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CALENDAR FOR 1934.

JANUARY.

Sun.	*	7	14	21	28	*
M.	1	8	15	22	29	*
Tu.	2	9	16	23	30	*
W.	3	10	17	24	31	*
Th.	4	11	18	25	*	*
F.	5	12	19	26	*	*
S.	6	13	20	27	*	*

FEBRUARY.

Sun.	*	4	11	18	25	*
M.	*	5	12	19	26	*
Tu.	*	6	13	20	27	*
W.	*	7	14	21	28	*
Th.	1	8	15	22	*	*
F.	2	9	16	23	*	*
S.	3	10	17	24	*	*

MARCH.

Sun.	*	4	11	18	25	*
M.	*	5	12	19	26	*
Tu.	*	6	13	20	27	*
W.	*	7	14	21	28	*
Th.	1	8	15	22	29	*
F.	2	9	16	23	30	*
S.	3	10	17	24	31	*

APRIL.

Sun.	1	8	15	22	29	*
M.	2	9	16	23	30	*
Tu.	3	10	17	24	*	*
W.	4	11	18	25	*	*
Th.	5	12	19	26	*	*
F.	6	13	20	27	*	*
S.	7	14	21	28	*	*

MAY.

Sun.	*	6	13	20	27	*
M.	*	7	14	21	28	*
Tu.	1	8	15	22	29	*
W.	2	9	16	23	30	*
Th.	3	10	17	24	31	*
F.	4	11	18	25	*	*
S.	5	12	19	26	*	*

JUNE.

Sun.	*	3	10	17	24	*
M.	*	4	11	18	25	*
Tu.	*	5	12	19	26	*
W.	*	6	13	20	27	*
Th.	*	7	14	21	28	*
F.	1	8	15	22	29	*
S.	2	9	16	23	30	*

JULY.

Sun.	1	8	15	22	29	*
M.	2	9	16	23	30	*
Tu.	3	10	17	24	31	*
W.	4	11	18	25	*	*
Th.	5	12	19	26	*	*
F.	6	13	20	27	*	*
S.	7	14	21	28	*	*

AUGUST.

Sun.	*	5	12	19	26	*
M.	*	6	13	20	27	*
Tu.	*	7	14	21	28	*
W.	1	8	15	22	29	*
Th.	2	9	16	23	30	*
F.	3	10	17	24	31	*
S.	4	11	18	25	*	*

SEPTEMBER.

Sun.	*	2	9	16	23	30
M.	*	3	10	17	24	*
Tu.	*	4	11	18	25	*
W.	*	5	12	19	26	*
Th.	*	6	13	20	27	*
F.	*	7	14	21	28	*
S.	1	8	15	22	29	*

OCTOBER.

Sun.	*	7	14	21	28	*
M.	1	8	15	22	29	*
Tu.	2	9	16	23	30	*
W.	3	10	17	24	31	*
Th.	4	11	18	25	*	*
F.	5	12	19	26	*	*
S.	6	13	20	27	*	*

NOVEMBER.

Sun.	*	4	11	18	25	*
M.	*	5	12	19	26	*
Tu.	*	6	13	20	27	*
W.	*	7	14	21	28	*
Th.	1	8	15	22	29	*
F.	2	9	16	23	30	*
S.	3	10	17	24	*	*

DECEMBER.

Sun.	*	2	9	16	23	30
M.	*	3	10	17	24	31
Tu.	*	4	11	18	25	*
W.	*	5	12	19	26	*
Th.	*	6	13	20	27	*
F.	*	7	14	21	28	*
S.	1	8	15	22	29	*

☾ Last Quarter .. .. 8th, 3h. 6m. A.M.

● New Moon .. ..15th, 7h. 7m. P.M.
☽ First Quarter ..22nd, 5h. 20m. P.M.
○ Full Moon .. ..30th, 10h. 1m. P.M.

Day of the Week.	Day of the Month.	Day of the Year.	Indian Standard Time. Sunrise. A.M.	Sunset. P.M.	True Noon. P.M.	Moon's Age at Noon.	Sun's Declination at Mean Noon.
			H. M.	H. M.	H. M.	D.	° ′
Monday	1	1	7 12	6 12	0 42	15·2	23 3
Tuesday	2	2	7 12	6 13	0 42	16·2	22 58
Wednesday ..	3	3	7 13	6 13	0 43	17·2	22 53
Thursday ..	4	4	7 13	6 14	0 43	18·2	22 47
Friday	5	5	7 13	6 15	0 44	19·2	22 41
Saturday.. ..	6	6	7 13	6 15	0 44	20·2	22 34
Sunday	7	7	7 14	6 16	0 45	21·2	22 27
Monday	8	8	7 14	6 17	0 45	22·2	22 19
Tuesday	9	9	7 14	6 17	0 46	23·2	22 12
Wednesday ..	10	10	7 14	6 18	0 46	24·2	22 3
Thursday ..	11	11	7 14	6 18	0 46	25·2	21 54
Friday	12	12	7 15	6 19	0 46	26·2	21 45
Saturday.. ..	13	13	7 15	6 20	0 47	27·2	21 35
Sunday	14	14	7 15	6 21	0 47	28·2	21 25
Monday	15	15	7 15	6 22	0 48	29·2	21 15
Tuesday	16	16	7 15	6 22	0 48	0·7	21 4
Wednesday ..	17	17	7 15	6 23	0 48	1·7	20 52
Thursday ..	18	18	7 15	6 24	0 49	2·7	20 40
Friday	19	19	7 15	6 25	0 49	3·7	20 28
Saturday.. ..	20	20	7 15	6 25	0 49	4·7	20 16
Sunday	21	21	7 15	6 26	0 50	5·7	20 3
Monday	22	22	7 15	6 27	0 50	6·7	19 49
Tuesday	23	23	7 15	6 27	0 50	7·7	19 35
Wednesday ..	24	24	7 15	6 28	0 50	8·7	19 21
Thursday ..	25	25	7 15	6 29	0 51	9·7	19 7
Friday	26	26	7 15	6 29	0 51	10·7	18 52
Saturday.. ..	27	27	7 14	6 29	0 51	11·7	18 37
Sunday	28	28	7 14	6 30	0 51	12·7	18 22
Monday	29	29	7 14	6 30	0 52	13·7	18 6
Tuesday	30	30	7 14	6 31	0 52	14·7	17 50
Wednesday ..	31	31	7 14	6 31	0 52	15·7	17 33

Phases of the Moon—FEBRUARY 28 Days.

☾ Last Quarter .. 7th, 2h. 52m. P.M.

● New Moon .. 14th, 6h. 13m. A.M. ☽ First Quarter .. 21st, 11h. 35m. A.M.

Day of the Week.	Day of the Month.	Day of the Year.	Indian Standard Time. Sunrise. A.M.	Sunset. P.M.	True Noon. P.M.	Moon's Age at Noon.	Sun's Declination at Mean Noon.
			H. M.	H. M.	H. M.	D.	° S. ′
Thursday ..	1	32	7 13	6 31	0 52	16·7	17 17
Friday	2	33	7 13	6 32	0 53	17·7	17 0
Saturday ..	3	34	7 13	6 32	0 53	18·7	16 42
Sunday	4	35	7 12	6 33	0 53	19·7	16 25
Monday	5	36	7 12	6 34	0 53	20·7	16 7
Tuesday	6	37	7 12	6 34	0 53	21·7	15 49
Wednesday ..	7	38	7 11	6 35	0 53	22·7	15 30
Thursday ..	8	39	7 11	6 35	0 53	23·7	15 11
Friday	9	40	7 10	6 36	0 53	24·7	14 52
Saturday	10	41	7 10	6 36	0 53	25·7	14 33
Sunday	11	42	7 10	6 37	0 53	26·7	14 14
Monday	12	43	7 9	6 37	0 53	27·7	13 54
Tuesday	13	44	7 9	6 38	0 53	28·7	13 34
Wednesday ..	14	45	7 8	6 38	0 53	0·3	13 14
Thursday ..	15	46	7 7	6 39	0 53	1·3	12 53
Friday	16	47	7 7	6 39	0 53	2·3	12 33
Saturday	17	48	7 6	6 40	0 53	3·3	12 12
Sunday	18	49	7 5	6 40	0 53	4·3	11 51
Monday	19	50	7 5	6 40	0 53	5·3	11 30
Tuesday	20	51	7 4	6 41	0 53	6·3	11 9
Wednesday ..	21	52	7 4	6 41	0 53	7·3	10 47
Thursday ..	22	53	7 3	6 41	0 53	8·3	10 25
Friday	23	54	7 2	6 42	0 52	9·7	10 3
Saturday	24	55	7 2	6 42	0 52	10·3	9 41
Sunday	25	56	7 1	6 42	0 52	11·3	9 19
Monday	26	57	7 1	6 43	0 51	12·3	8 57
Tuesday	27	58	7 0	6 43	0 51	13·3	8 35
Wednesday ..	28	59	6 59	6 43	0 51	14·3	8 12

☾ Last Quarter ..	.. 8th, 11h. 36m. P.M.	● New Moon ..	..15th, 5h. 38m. P.M.		
		☽ First Quarter ..	..23rd, 8h. 15m. A.M.		
		○ Full Moon ..	.. 31st, 6h. 45m. A.M.		

Day of the Week.	Day of the Month.	Day of the Year.	Indian Standard Time.				Moon's Age at Noon.	Sun's Declination at Mean Noon.
			Sunrise. A.M.	Sunset. P.M.	True Noon. P.M.			
			H. M.	H. M.	H. M.		D.	° ′
Thursday ..	1	60	6 58	6 44	0 51		15·3	7 4
Friday	2	61	6 58	6 45	0 51		16·3	7 27
Saturday ..	3	62	6 57	6 45	0 51		17·3	7 4
Sunday	4	63	6 56	6 45	0 51		18·3	6 41
Monday	5	64	6 56	6 46	0 51		19·3	6 18
Tuesday	6	65	6 55	6 46	0 50		20·3	5 55
Wednesday ..	7	66	6 54	6 47	0 50		21·3	5 32
Thursday ..	8	67	6 53	6 47	0 50		22·3	5 8
Friday	9	68	6 53	6 47	0 50		23·3	4 44
Saturday.. ..	10	69	6 52	6 48	0 49		24·3	4 21
Sunday	11	70	6 51	6 48	0 49		25·3	3 57
Monday	12	71	6 50	6 48	0 49		26·3	3 34
Tuesday	13	72	6 49	6 48	0 49		27·3	3 11
Wednesday ..	14	73	6 49	6 49	0 49		28·3	2 47
Thursday ..	15	74	6 48	6 49	0 49		29·3	2 23
Friday	16	75	6 47	6 49	0 48		0·8	1 59
Saturday.. ..	17	76	6 46	6 49	0 48		1·8	1 35
Sunday	18	77	6 45	6 49	0 48		2·8	1 12
Monday	19	78	6 44	6 50	0 47		3·8	0 48
Tuesday	20	79	6 43	6 50	0 47		4·8	0 24
Wednesday ..	21	80	6 42	6 50	0 47		5·8	0 1
Thursday ..	22	81	6 41	6 50	0 46		6·8	0 N 22
Friday	23	82	6 40	6 51	0 46		7·8	0 46
Saturday ..	24	83	6 39	6 51	0 46		8·8	1 10
Sunday	25	84	6 39	6 51	0 45		9·8	1 34
Monday	26	85	6 38	6 51	0 45		10·8	1 57
Tuesday	27	86	6 38	6 51	0 45		11·8	2 21
Wed.. ..	28	87	6 37	6 52	0 45		12·8	2 44
..	29	88	6 36	6 52	0 44		13·8	3 8
..	30	89	6 35	6 52	0 44		14·8	3 31
..	31	90	6 34	6 52	0 44		15·8	3 54

Phases of the Moon—APRIL 30 Days.

(Last Quarter .. .. 7th, 6h. 19m. A.M. |) First Quarter .. .. 22nd, 2h. 50m. A.M.

● New Moon .. .. 14th, 5h. 27m. A.M. | ○ Full Moon .. .. 29th, 6h. 15m. P.M.

Day of the Week	Day of the Month.	Day of the Year.	Indian Standard Time. Sunrise. A.M.	Sunset. P.M.	True Noon. P.M.	Moon's Age at Noon.	Sun's Declination at Mean Noon.
			H. M.	H. M.	H. M.	D.	° N. ′
Sunday	1	91	6 33	6 53	0 43	16·8	4 17
Monday	2	92	6 33	6 52	0 43	17·8	4 41
Tuesday	3	93	6 32	6 53	0 42	18·8	5 4
Wednesday ..	4	94	6 31	6 53	0 42	19·8	5 27
Thursday ..	5	95	6 30	6 54	0 42	20·8	5 50
Friday	6	96	6 29	6 54	0 42	21·8	6 13
Saturday	7	97	6 28	6 54	0 41	22·8	6 35
Sunday	8	98	6 28	6 54	0 41	23·8	6 58
Monday	9	99	6 27	6 54	0 41	24·8	7 20
Tuesday	10	100	6 26	6 55	0 40	25·8	7 43
Wednesday ..	11	101	6 25	6 55	0 40	26·8	8 5
Thursday ..	12	102	6 24	6 55	0 40	27·8	8 27
Friday	13	103	6 23	6 55	0 40	28·8	8 49
Saturday ..	14	104	6 22	6 56	0 39	0·3	9 11
Sunday	15	105	6 21	6 56	0 39	1·3	9 32
Monday	16	106	6 20	6 56	0 39	2·3	9 54
Tuesday	17	107	6 19	6 57	0 38	3·3	10 15
Wednesday ..	18	108	6 19	6 57	0 38	4·3	10 36
Thursday ..	19	109	6 18	6 57	0 38	5·3	10 57
Friday	20	110	6 17	6 57	0 38	6·3	11 18
Saturday ..	21	111	6 16	6 57	0 38	7·3	11 38
Sunday	22	112	6 15	6 58	0 37	8·3	11 59
Monday	23	113	6 14	6 58	0 37	9·3	12 19
Tuesday	24	114	6 14	6 58	0 37	10·3	12 39
Wednesday ..	25	115	6 13	6 59	0 37	11·3	12 59
Thursday ..	26	116	6 13	6 59	0 37	12·3	13 19
Friday	27	117	6 13	6 59	0 36	13·3	13 38
Saturday	28	118	6 12	7 0	0 36	14·3	13 57
Sunday	29	119	6 12	7 0	0 36	15·3	14 16
Monday	30	120	6 12	7 0	0 36	16·3	14 34

Phases of the Moon—JANUARY 31 Days.

○ Full Moon .. .. 1st, 2h. 24m. A.M. | ● New Moon .. ..15th, 7h. 7m. P.M.
☾ Last Quarter .. .. 8th, 3h. 6m. A.M. | ☽ First Quarter ..22nd, 5h. 20m. P.M.
○ Full Moon .. ..30th, 10h. 1m. P.M.

Day of the Week.	Day of the Month.	Day of the Year.	Indian Standard Time. Sunrise. A.M.	Sunset. P.M.	True Noon. P.M.	Moon's Age at Noon.	Sun's Declination at Mean Noon.
			H. M.	H. M.	H. M.	D.	° S. ′
Monday	1	1	7 12	6 12	0 42	15·2	23 3
Tuesday	2	2	7 12	6 13	0 42	16·2	22 58
Wednesday ..	3	3	7 13	6 13	0 43	17·2	22 53
Thursday ..	4	4	7 13	6 14	0 43	18·2	22 47
Friday	5	5	7 13	6 15	0 44	19·2	22 41
Saturday.. ..	6	6	7 13	6 15	0 44	20·2	22 34
Sunday	7	7	7 14	6 16	0 45	21·2	22 27
Monday	8	8	7 14	6 17	0 45	22·2	22 19
Tuesday	9	9	7 14	6 17	0 46	23·2	22 12
Wednesday ..	10	10	7 14	6 18	0 46	24·2	22 3
Thursday ..	11	11	7 14	6 18	0 46	25·2	21 54
Friday	12	12	7 15	6 19	0 46	26·2	21 45
Saturday.. ..	13	13	7 15	6 20	0 47	27·2	21 35
Sunday	14	14	7 15	6 21	0 47	28·2	21 25
Monday	15	15	7 15	6 22	0 48	29·2	21 15
Tuesday	16	16	7 15	6 22	0 48	0·7	21 4
Wednesday ..	17	17	7 15	6 23	0 48	1·7	20 52
Thursday ..	18	18	7 15	6 24	0 49	2·7	20 40
Friday	19	19	7 15	6 25	0 49	3·7	20 28
Saturday.. ..	20	20	7 15	6 25	0 49	4·7	20 16
Sunday	21	21	7 15	6 26	0 50	5·7	20 3
Monday	22	22	7 15	6 27	0 50	6·7	19 49
Tuesday	23	23	7 15	6 27	0 50	7·7	19 35
Wednesday ..	24	24	7 15	6 28	0 50	8·7	19 21
Thursday ..	25	25	7 15	6 29	0 51	9·7	19 7
Friday	26	26	7 15	6 29	0 51	10·7	18 52
Saturday.. ..	27	27	7 14	6 29	0 51	11·7	18 37
Sunday	28	28	7 14	6 30	0 51	12·7	18 22
Monday	29	29	7 14	6 30	0 52	13·7	18 6
Tuesday	30	30	7 14	6 31	0 52	14·7	17 50
Wednesday ..	31	31	7 14	6 31	0 52	15·7	17 33

Phases of the Moon—FEBRUARY 28 Days.

☾ Last Quarter .. 7th, 2h. 52m. P.M.

● New Moon .. ..14th, 6h, 13m. A.M.

☽ First Quarter .. ..21st, 11h. 35m. A.M.

Day of the Week.	Day of the Month.	Day of the Year.	Indian Standard Time. Sunrise. A.M.	Sunset. P.M.	True Noon. P.M.	Moon's Age at Noon.	Sun's Declination at Mean Noon.
			H. M.	H. M.	H. M.	D.	° S. ′
Thursday ..	1	32	7 13	6 31	0 52	16·7	17 17
Friday	2	33	7 13	6 32	0 53	17·7	17 0
Saturday.. ..	3	34	7 13	6 32	0 53	18·7	16 42
Sunday	4	35	7 12	6 33	0 53	19·7	16 25
Monday	5	36	7 12	6 34	0 53	20·7	16 7
Tuesday	6	37	7 12	6 34	0 53	21·7	15 49
Wednesday ..	7	38	7 11	6 35	0 53	22·7	15 30
Thursday ..	8	39	7 11	6 35	0 53	23·7	15 11
Friday	9	40	7 10	6 36	0 53	24·7	14 52
Saturday.. ..	10	41	7 10	6 36	0 53	25·7	14 33
Sunday	11	42	7 10	6 37	0 53	26·7	14 14
Monday	12	43	7 9	6 37	0 53	27·7	13 54
Tuesday	13	44	7 9	6 38	0 53	28·7	13 34
Wednesday ..	14	45	7 8	6 38	0 53	0·3	13 14
Thursday ..	15	46	7 7	6 39	0 53	1·3	12 53
Friday	16	47	7 7	6 39	0 53	2·3	12 33
Saturday.. ..	17	48	7 6	6 40	0 53	3·3	12 12
Sunday	18	49	7 5	6 40	0 53	4·3	11 51
Monday	19	50	7 5	6 40	0 53	5·3	11 30
Tuesday	20	51	7 4	6 41	0 53	6·3	11 9
Wednesday ..	21	52	7 4	6 41	0 53	7·3	10 47
Thursday ..	22	53	7 3	6 41	0 53	8·3	10 25
Friday	23	54	7 2	6 42	0 52	9·7	10 3
Saturday.. ..	24	55	7 2	6 42	0 52	10·3	9 41
Sunday	25	56	7 1	6 42	0 52	11·3	9 19
Monday	26	57	7 1	6 43	0 51	12·3	8 57
Tuesday	27	58	7 0	6 43	0 51	13·3	8 35
Wednesday ..	28	59	6 59	6 43	0 51	14·3	8 12

Phases of the Moon—MARCH 31 Days.

○ Full Moon	1st, 3h. 56m. P.M.	● New Moon ..	..15th, 5h. 38m. P.M.
☾ Last Quarter	8th, 11h. 36m. P.M.	☽ First Quarter ..	..23rd, 6h. 15m. A.M.
		○ Full Moon ..	..31st, 6h. 45m. A.M.

Day of the Week.	Day of the Month.	Day of the Year.	Indian Standard Time.			Moon's Age at Noon.	Sun's Declination at Mean Noon.
			Sunrise. A.M.	Sunset. P.M.	True Noon. P.M.		
			H. M.	H. M.	H. M.	D.	° ′ S.
Thursday ..	1	60	6 58	6 44	0 51	15·3	7 49
Friday	2	61	6 58	6 45	0 51	16·3	7 27
Saturday ..	3	62	6 57	6 45	0 51	17·3	7 4
Sunday	4	63	6 56	6 45	0 51	18·3	6 41
Monday	5	64	6 56	6 46	0 51	19·3	6 18
Tuesday	6	65	6 55	6 46	0 50	20·3	5 55
Wednesday ..	7	66	6 54	6 47	0 50	21·3	5 32
Thursday ..	8	67	6 53	6 47	0 50	22·3	5 8
Friday	9	68	6 53	6 47	0 50	23·3	4 44
Saturday.. ..	10	69	6 52	6 48	0 49	24·3	4 21
Sunday	11	70	6 51	6 48	0 49	25·3	3 57
Monday	12	71	6 50	6 48	0 49	26·3	3 34
Tuesday	13	72	6 49	6 48	0 49	27·3	3 11
Wednesday ..	14	73	6 49	6 49	0 49	28·3	2 47
Thursday ..	15	74	6 48	6 49	0 49	29·3	2 23
Friday	16	75	6 47	6 49	0 48	0·8	1 59
Saturday.. ..	17	76	6 46	6 49	0 48	1·8	1 35
Sunday	18	77	6 45	6 49	0 48	2·8	1 12
Monday	19	78	6 44	6 50	0 47	3·8	0 48
Tuesday	20	79	6 43	6 50	0 47	4·8	0 24
Wednesday ..	21	80	6 42	6 50	0 47	5·8	0 1
Thursday ..	22	81	6 41	6 50	0 46	6·8	0 N 22
Friday	23	82	6 40	6 51	0 46	7·8	0 46
Saturday ..	24	83	6 39	6 51	0 46	8·8	1 10
Sunday	25	84	6 39	6 51	0 45	9·8	1 34
Monday	26	85	6 38	6 51	0 45	10·8	1 57
Tuesday	27	86	6 38	6 51	0 45	11·8	2 21
Wednesday ..	28	87	6 37	6 52	0 45	12·8	2 44
Thursday ..	29	88	6 36	6 52	0 44	13·8	3 8
Friday	30	89	6 35	6 52	0 44	14·8	3 31
Saturday ..	31	90	6 34	6 52	0 44	15·8	3 54

Phases of the Moon—APRIL 30 Days.

☾ Last Quarter .. .. 7th, 6h. 19m. A.M. | ☽ First Quarter .. ..22nd, 2h. 50m. A.M.

● New Moon .. ..14th, 5h. 27m. A.M. | ○ Full Moon .. ..29th, 6h. 15m. P.M.

Day of the Week.	Day of the Month.	Day of the Year.	Indian Standard Time. Sunrise. A.M.	Sunset. P.M.	True Noon. P.M.	Moon's Age at Noon.	Sun's Declination at Mean Noon.
			H. M.	H. M.	H. M.	D.	° N. ′
Sunday	1	91	6 33	6 53	0 43	16·8	4 17
Monday	2	92	6 33	6 53	0 43	17·8	4 41
Tuesday	3	93	6 32	6 53	0 42	18·8	5 4
Wednesday ..	4	94	6 31	6 53	0 42	19·8	5 27
Thursday ..	5	95	6 30	6 54	0 42	20·8	5 50
Friday	6	96	6 29	6 54	0 42	21·8	6 13
Saturday.. ..	7	97	6 28	6 54	0 41	22·8	6 35
Sunday	8	98	6 28	6 54	0 41	23·8	6 58
Monday	9	99	6 27	6 54	0 41	24·8	7 20
Tuesday	10	100	6 26	6 55	0 40	25·8	7 43
Wednesday ..	11	101	6 25	6 55	0 40	26·8	8 5
Thursday ..	12	102	6 24	6 55	0 40	27·8	8 27
Friday	13	103	6 23	6 55	0 40	28·8	8 49
Saturday.. ..	14	104	6 22	6 56	0 39	0·3	9 11
Sunday	15	105	6 21	6 56	0 39	1·3	9 32
Monday	16	106	6 20	6 56	0 39	2·3	9 54
Tuesday	17	107	6 19	6 57	0 38	3·3	10 15
Wednesday ..	18	108	6 19	6 57	0 38	4·3	10 36
Thursday ..	19	109	6 18	6 57	0 38	5·3	10 57
Friday	20	110	6 17	6 57	0 38	6·3	11 18
Saturday.. ..	21	111	6 16	6 57	0 38	7·3	11 38
Sunday	22	112	6 15	6 58	0 37	8·3	11 59
Monday	23	113	6 14	6 58	0 37	9·3	12 19
Tuesday	24	114	6 14	6 58	0 37	10·3	12 39
Wednesday ..	25	115	6 13	6 59	0 37	11·3	12 59
Thursday ..	26	116	6 13	6 59	0 37	12·3	13 19
Friday	27	117	6 13	6 59	0 36	13·3	13 38
Saturday.. ..	28	118	6 12	7 0	0 36	14·3	13 57
Sunday	29	119	6 12	7 0	0 36	15·3	14 16
Monday	30	120	6 12	7 0	0 36	16·3	14 34

Phases of the Moon—MAY 31 Days.

☾ Last Quarter .. .. 6th, 0h. 11m. P.M. | ☽ First Quarter .. .. 21st, 8h. 50m. P.M.

● New Moon .. ..13th, 6h. 0m. P.M. | ○ Full Moon .. ..29th, 3h. 11m. A.M.

Day of the Week.	Day of the Month.	Day of the Year.	Indian Standard Time. Sunrise. A.M.	Sunset. P.M.	True Noon. P.M.	Moon's Age at Noon.	Sun's Declination at Mean Noon.
			H. M.	H. M.	H. M.	D.	° N. ′
Tuesday	1	121	6 11	7 1	0 36	17·3	14 53
Wednesday ..	2	122	6 11	7 1	0 36	18·3	15 11
Thursday ..	3	123	6 10	7 1	0 36	19·3	15 29
Friday	4	124	6 10	7 2	0 35	20·3	15 47
Saturday ..	5	125	6 9	7 2	0 35	21·3	16 4
Sunday	6	126	6 9	7 2	0 35	22·3	16 21
Monday	7	127	6 8	7 3	0 35	23·3	16 38
Tuesday	8	128	6 7	7 3	0 35	24·3	16 55
Wednesday ..	9	129	6 7	7 3	0 35	25·3	17 11
Thursday	10	130	6 6	7 4	0 35	26·3	17 27
Friday	11	131	6 6	7 4	0 35	27·3	17 43
Saturday ..	12	132	6 5	7 4	0 35	28·3	17 58
Sunday	13	133	6 5	7 5	0 35	29·3	18 13
Monday	14	134	6 5	7 5	0 35	0·8	18 28
Tuesday	15	135	6 4	7 6	0 35	1·8	18 43
Wednesday ..	16	136	6 4	7 6	0 35	2·8	18 57
Thursday ..	17	137	6 4	7 6	0 35	3·8	19 11
Friday	18	138	6 3	7 7	0 35	4·8	19 25
Saturday	19	139	6 3	7 7	0 35	5·8	19 38
Sunday	20	140	6 3	7 7	0 35	6·8	19 51
Monday	21	141	6 2	7 8	0 35	7·8	20 3
Tuesday	22	142	6 2	7 8	0 35	8·8	20 15
Wednesday ..	23	143	6 2	7 9	0 35	9·8	20 27
Thursday ..	24	144	6 2	7 9	0 35	10·8	20 39
Friday	25	145	6 2	7 9	0 35	11·8	20 50
Saturday	26	146	6 2	7 10	0 36	12·8	21 1
Sunday	27	147	6 2	7 10	0 36	13·8	21 11
Monday	28	148	6 1	7 11	0 36	14·8	21 21
Tuesday	29	149	6 1	7 11	0 36	15·8	21 31
Wednesday ..	30	150	6 1	7 11	0 36	16·8	21 41
Thursday ..	31	151	6 1	7 12	0 36	17·8	21 50

Phases of the Moon—JUNE 30 Days.

☾ Last Quarter .. .. 4th, 6h. 23m. P.M. | ☽ First Quarter .. ..20th, 0h. 7m. P.M.

● New Moon .. ..12th, 7h. 42m. A.M. | ○ Full Moon .. ..27th, 10h. 38m. A.M.

Day of the Week.	Day of the Month.	Day of the Year.	Indian Standard Time. Sunrise, A.M.	Sunset, P.M.	True Noon, P.M.	Moon's Age at Noon.	Sun's Declination at Mean Noon.
			H. M.	H. M.	H. M.	D.	° N. ′
Friday	1	152	6 1	7 12	0 36	18·8	21 58
Saturday.. ..	2	153	6 1	7 12	0 36	19·8	22 6
Sunday	3	154	6 1	7 13	0 37	20·8	22 14
Monday	4	155	6 1	7 13	0 37	21·8	22 22
Tuesday	5	156	6 1	7 14	0 37	22·8	22 29
Wednesday ..	6	157	6 1	7 14	0 37	23·8	22 35
Thursday ..	7	158	6 1	7 14	0 37	24·8	22 42
Friday	8	159	6 1	7 15	0 37	25·8	22 48
Saturday.. ..	9	160	6 1	7 15	0 38	26·8	22 53
Sunday	10	161	6 1	7 15	0 38	27·8	22 58
Monday	11	162	6 1	7 16	0 38	28·8	23 3
Tuesday	12	163	6 1	7 16	0 38	0·2	23 7
Wednesday ..	13	164	6 1	7 16	0 38	1·2	23 11
Thursday ..	14	165	6 1	7 17	0 39	2·2	23 14
Friday	15	166	6 1	7 17	0 39	3·2	23 17
Saturday.. ..	16	167	6 1	7 17	0 39	4·2	23 20
Sunday	17	168	6 1	7 17	0 39	5·2	23 22
Monday	18	169	6 2	7 18	0 39	6·2	23 24
Tuesday	19	170	6 2	7 18	0 40	7·2	23 25
Wednesday ..	20	171	6 2	7 18	0 40	8·2	23 26
Thursday ..	21	172	6 2	7 18	0 40	9·2	23 27
Friday	22	173	6 3	7 19	0 40	10·2	23 27
Saturday ..	23	174	6 3	7 19	0 41	11·2	23 27
Sunday	24	175	6 3	7 19	0 41	12·2	23 26
Monday	25	176	6 3	7 19	0 41	13·2	23 25
Tuesday	26	177	6 3	7 19	0 41	14·2	23 23
Wednesday ..	27	178	6 4	7 19	0 41	15·2	23 21
Thursday ..	28	179	6 4	7 20	0 42	16·2	23 19
Friday	29	180	6 4	7 20	0 42	17·2	23 16
Saturday.. ..	30	181	6 4	7 20	0 42	18·2	23 13

Phases of the Moon—JULY 31 Days.

☾ Last Quarter .. .. 4th, 1h. 58m. A.M. | ☽ First Quarter ..20th, 0h. 23m. A.M.

● New Moon .. ..11th, 10h. 36m. P.M. | ○ Full Moon .. ..26th, 5h. 39m. P.M.

Day of the Week.	Day of the Month.	Day of the Year.	Indian Standard Time.			Moon's Age at Noon.	Sun's Declination at Mean Noon.
			Sunrise. A.M.	Sunset. P.M.	True Noon. P.M.		
			H. M.	H. M.	H. M.	D.	° N. ′
Sunday	1	182	6 5	7 20	0 42	19·2	23 10
Monday	2	183	6 5	7 20	0 42	20·2	23 6
Tuesday	3	184	6 6	7 20	0 43	21·2	23 1
Wednesday ..	4	185	6 6	7 20	0 43	22·2	22 56
Thursday ..	5	186	6 6	7 20	0 43	23·2	22 51
Friday	6	187	6 7	7 20	0 43	24·2	22 45
Saturday.. ..	7	188	6 7	7 20	0 43	25·2	22 40
Sunday	8	189	6 7	7 20	0 43	26·2	22 34
Monday	9	190	6 8	7 20	0 44	27·2	22 27
Tuesday	10	191	6 8	7 20	0 44	28·2	22 19
Wednesday ..	11	192	6 8	7 20	0 44	29·2	22 12
Thursday ..	12	193	6 8	7 20	0 44	0·6	22 4
Friday	13	194	6 8	7 20	0 44	1·6	21 56
Saturday.. ..	14	195	6 9	7 20	0 44	2·6	21 47
Sunday	15	196	6 9	7 19	0 44	3·6	21 38
Monday	16	197	6 9	7 19	0 44	4·6	21 29
Tuesday	17	198	6 10	7 19	0 45	5·6	21 19
Wednesday ..	18	199	6 10	7 19	0 45	6·6	21 9
Thursday ..	19	200	6 10	7 19	0 45	7·6	20 58
Friday	20	201	6 11	7 18	0 45	8·6	20 47
Saturday.. ..	21	202	6 11	7 18	0 45	9·6	20 36
Sunday	22	203	6 12	7 18	0 45	10·6	20 25
Monday	23	204	6 12	7 18	0 45	11·6	20 13
Tuesday	24	205	6 12	7 17	0 45	12·6	20 1
Wednesday ..	25	206	6 13	7 17	0 45	13·6	19 48
Thursday ..	26	207	6 13	7 17	0 45	14·6	19 35
Friday	27	208	6 13	7 17	0 45	15·6	19 22
Saturday.. ..	28	209	6 14	7 16	0 45	16·6	19 9
Sunday	29	210	6 14	7 16	0 45	17·6	18 55
Monday	30	211	6 14	7 16	0 45	18·6	18 41
Tuesday	31	212	6 15	7 15	0 45	19·6	18 26

Phases of the Moon—AUGUST 31 Days.

☾ Last Quarter .. 2nd, 11h. 57m. A.M. | ☽ First Quarter .. ..18th, 10h. 3m. A.M.

● New Moon .. .. 10th, 2h. 16m. P.M. | ○ Full Moon .. ..25th, 1h. 7m. A.M.

Day of the Week.	Day of the Month.	Day of the Year.	Indian Standard Time. Sunrise, A.M.	Sunset, P.M.	True Noon, P.M.	Moon's Age at Noon.	Sun's Declination at Mean Noon.
			H. M.	H. M.	H. M.	D.	° N. ′
Wednesday ..	1	213	6 15	7 15	0 45	20·6	18 11
Thursday ..	2	214	6 15	7 14	0 45	21·6	17 56
Friday	3	215	6 16	7 14	0 45	22·6	17 41
Saturday.. ..	4	216	6 16	7 13	0 45	23·6	17 25
Sunday	5	217	6 16	7 13	0 45	24·6	17 9
Monday	6	218	6 17	7 12	0 45	25·6	16 53
Tuesday	7	219	6 17	7 12	0 44	26·6	16 37
Wednesday ..	8	220	6 17	7 11	0 44	27·6	16 20
Thursday ..	9	221	6 18	7 11	0 44	28·6	16 3
Friday	10	222	6 18	7 10	0 44	29·6	15 45
Saturday.. ..	11	223	6 18	7 9	0 44	0·9	15 28
Sunday	12	224	6 19	7 9	0 44	1·9	15 11
Monday	13	225	6 19	7 8	0 44	2·9	14 53
Tuesday	14	226	6 19	7 8	0 43	3·9	14 34
Wednesday ..	15	227	6 20	7 7	0 43	4·9	14 16
Thursday ..	16	228	6 20	7 6	0 43	5·9	13 57
Friday	17	229	6 20	7 6	0 43	6·9	13 38
Saturday.. ..	18	230	6 20	7 5	0 43	7·9	13 19
Sunday	19	231	6 21	7 4	0 42	8·9	13 0
Monday	20	232	6 21	7 4	0 42	9·9	12 40
Tuesday	21	233	6 21	7 3	0 42	10·9	12 20
Wednesday ..	22	234	6 21	7 2	0 42	11·9	12 0
Thursday ..	23	235	6 21	7 1	0 42	12·9	11 40
Friday	24	236	6 22	7 1	0 41	13·9	11 20
Saturday.. ..	25	237	6 22	7 0	0 41	14·9	10 59
Sunday	26	238	6 22	6 59	0 40	15·9	10 38
Monday	27	239	6 22	6 59	0 40	16·9	10 18
Tuesday	28	240	6 23	6 58	0 40	17·9	9 57
Wednesday ..	29	241	6 23	6 57	0 40	18·9	9 36
Thursday ..	30	242	6 23	6 56	0 39	19·9	9 14
Friday	31	243	6 23	6 55	0 39	20·9	8 53

Phases of the Moon—SEPTEMBER 30 Days.

☾ Last Quarter .. .. 1st, 1h. 10m. A.M. ☽ First Quarter .. .. 16th, 5h. 56m. P.M.
● New Moon .. .. 9th, 5h. 50m. A.M. ○ Full Moon .. .. 23rd, 9h. 4m. A.M.
☾ Last Quarter .. .. 30th, 5h. 59m. P.M.

Day of the Week.	Day of the Month.	Day of the Year.	Indian Standard Time. Sunrise. A.M.	Sunset. P.M.	True Noon. P.M.	Moon's Age at Noon.	Sun's Declination at Mean Noon.
			H. M.	H. M.	H. M.	D.	N. ° ′
Saturday.. ..	1	244	6 23	6 55	0 39	21·9	8 31
Sunday	2	245	6 24	6 54	0 39	22·9	8 9
Monday	3	246	6 24	6 53	0 38	23·9	7 47
Tuesday	4	247	6 24	6 52	0 38	24·9	7 25
Wednesday ..	5	248	6 24	6 51	0 38	25·9	7 3
Thursday ..	6	249	6 25	6 50	0 37	26·9	6 41
Friday	7	250	6 25	6 50	0 37	27·9	6 19
Saturday.. ..	8	251	6 25	6 49	0 37	28·9	5 56
Sunday	9	252	6 25	6 48	0 36	0·3	5 33
Monday	10	253	6 25	6 47	0 36	1·3	5 11
Tuesday	11	254	6 25	6 46	0 36	2·3	4 48
Wednesday ..	12	255	6 25	6 45	0 35	3·3	4 25
Thursday ..	13	256	6 26	6 44	0 35	4·3	4 2
Friday	14	257	6 26	6 43	0 35	5·3	3 39
Saturday.. ..	15	258	6 26	6 43	0 34	6·3	3 16
Sunday	16	259	6 26	6 42	0 34	7·3	2 53
Monday	17	260	6 26	6 41	0 33	8·3	2 30
Tuesday	18	261	6 27	6 40	0 33	9·3	2 7
Wednesday ..	19	262	6 27	6 39	0 33	10·3	1 44
Thursday ..	20	263	6 27	6 38	0 32	11·3	1 21
Friday	21	264	6 27	6 37	0 32	12·3	0 57
Saturday.. ..	22	265	6 27	6 36	0 32	13·3	0 33
Sunday	23	266	6 27	6 36	0 31	14·3	0 10
Monday	24	267	6 27	6 35	0 31	15·3	0 13
Tuesday	25	268	6 28	6 34	0 31	16·3	0 36
Wednesday ..	26	269	6 28	6 33	0 30	17·3	0 59
Thursday ..	27	270	6 28	6 32	0 30	18·3	1 23
Friday	28	271	6 28	6 31	0 30	19·3	1 46
Saturday.. ..	29	272	6 29	6 30	0 29	20·3	2 9
Sunday	30	273	6 29	6 29	0 29	21·3	2 33

Phases of the Moon—OCTOBER 31 Days.

● New Moon .. .. 8th, 8h. 35m. P.M. | ○ Full Moon .. ..22nd, 8h. 31m. P.M.

☽ First Quarter ..16th, 0h. 59m. A.M. | ☾ Last Quarter .. ..30th, 1h. 52m. P.M.

Day of the Week.	Day of the Month.	Day of the Year.	Indian Standard Time. Sunrise. A.M.	Sunset. P.M.	True Noon. P.M.	Moon's Age at Noon.	Sun's Declination at Mean Noon.
			H. M.	H. M.	H. M.	D.	° S. ′
Monday	1	274	6 29	6 29	0 29	22·3	2 56
Tuesday	2	275	6 29	6 28	0 29	23·3	3 19
Wednesday ..	3	276	6 30	6 27	0 29	24·3	3 43
Thursday ..	4	277	6 30	6 26	0 28	25·3	4 6
Friday	5	278	6 30	6 26	0 28	26·3	4 29
Saturday.. ..	6	279	6 30	6 25	0 28	27·3	4 52
Sunday	7	280	6 31	6 24	0 28	28·3	5 15
Monday	8	281	6 31	6 23	0 27	29·3	5 38
Tuesday	9	282	6 31	6 22	0 27	0·7	6 1
Wednesday ..	10	283	6 32	6 21	0 27	1·7	6 24
Thursday ..	11	284	6 32	6 20	0 27	2·7	6 47
Friday	12	285	6 32	6 19	0 27	3·7	7 10
Saturday ..	13	286	6 33	6 18	0 26	4·7	7 33
Sunday	14	287	6 33	6 17	0 26	5·7	7 55
Monday	15	288	6 33	6 16	0 26	6·7	8 17
Tuesday	16	289	6 33	6 15	0 26	7·7	8 39
Wednesday ..	17	290	6 34	6 14	0 25	8·7	9 1
Thursday ..	18	291	6 34	6 13	0 25	9·7	9 23
Friday	19	292	6 34	6 12	0 25	10·7	9 45
Saturday.. ..	20	293	6 35	6 12	0 25	11·7	10 7
Sunday	21	294	6 35	6 11	0 24	12·7	10 28
Monday	22	295	6 35	6 10	0 24	13·7	10 50
Tuesday	23	296	6 35	6 9	0 24	14·7	11 11
Wednesday ..	24	297	6 36	6 8	0 24	15·7	11 32
Thursday ..	25	298	6 36	6 8	0 24	16·7	11 53
Friday	26	299	6 36	6 7	0 23	17·7	12 14
Saturday.. ..	27	300	6 37	6 7	0 23	18·7	12 34
Sunday	28	301	6 37	6 7	0 23	19·7	12 55
Monday	29	302	6 37	6 6	0 23	20·7	13 15
Tuesday	30	303	6 37	6 6	0 23	21·7	13 35
Wednesday ..	31	304	6 38	6 6	0 23	22·7	13 54

Phases of the Moon—NOVEMBER 30 Days.

● New Moon .. .. 7th 10h. 14m. A.M. | ○ Full Moon .. .. 21st, 9h. 56m. A.M.

☽ First Quarter .. ..14th, 8h. 9m. A.M. | ☾ Last Quarter .. 29th, 11h. 9m. A.M.

Day of the Week.	Day of the Month.	Day of the Year.	Indian Standard Time. Sunrise. A.M.	Sunset. P.M.	True Noon. P.M.	Moon's Age at Noon.	Sun's Declination at Mean Noon.
			H. M.	H. M.	H. M.	D.	S. ° ′
Thursday ..	1	305	6 38	6 6	0 22	23·7	14 14
Friday	2	306	6 39	6 6	0 22	24·7	14 33
Saturday.. ..	3	307	6 39	6 5	0 22	25·7	14 52
Sunday	4	308	6 40	6 5	0 22	26·7	15 11
Monday	5	309	6 40	6 4	0 22	27·7	15 29
Tuesday	6	310	6 41	6 4	0 22	28·7	15 48
Wednesday ..	7	311	6 41	6 4	0 22	0·1	16 6
Thursday ..	8	312	6 42	6 4	0 22	1·1	16 24
Friday	9	313	6 42	6 4	0 23	2·1	16 41
Saturday.. ..	10	314	6 43	6 3	0 23	3·1	16 58
Sunday	11	315	6 43	6 3	0 23	4·1	17 15
Monday	12	316	6 44	6 3	0 23	5·1	17 32
Tuesday	13	317	6 44	6 2	0 23	6·1	17 48
Wednesday ..	14	318	6 45	6 2	0 23	7·1	18 4
Thursday ..	15	319	6 45	6 1	0 23	8·1	18 20
Friday	16	320	6 46	6 1	0 23	9·1	18 35
Saturday.. ..	17	321	6 46	6 1	0 23	10·1	18 50
Sunday	18	322	6 47	6 0	0 23	11·1	19 5
Monday	19	323	6 48	6 0	0 23	12·1	19 19
Tuesday	20	324	6 48	6 0	0 24	13·1	19 33
Wednesday ..	21	325	6 49	6 0	0 24	14·1	19 47
Thursday ..	22	326	6 49	6 0	0 24	15·1	20 0
Friday	23	327	6 50	6 0	0 24	16·1	20 13
Saturday.. ..	24	328	6 51	6 0	0 25	17·1	20 26
Sunday	25	329	6 51	6 0	0 25	18·1	20 38
Monday	26	330	6 52	6 0	0 25	19·1	20 50
Tuesday	27	331	6 53	6 0	0 25	20·1	21 1
Wednesday ..	28	332	6 53	6 0	0 26	21·1	21 12
Thursday ..	29	333	6 54	6 0	0 26	22·1	21 23
Friday	30	334	6 54	6 0	0 27	23·1	21 33

Phases of the Moon—DECEMBER 31 Days.

● New Moon .. .. 6th, 10h. 55m. P.M. ○ Full Moon ..21st, 2h. 23m. A.M.

☽ First Quarter ..13th, 4h. 22m. P.M. ☾ Last Quarter ..29th, 7h. 38m. A.M.

Day of the Week.	Day of the Month.	Day of the Year.	Indian Standard Time. Sunrise. A.M.	Sunset. P.M.	Time Noon. P.M.	Moon's Age at Noon.	Sun's Declination at Mean Noon.
			H. M.	H. M.	H. M.	D.	S. ,
Saturday ..	1	335	6 55	6 0	0 28	24·1	21 43
Sunday ..	2	336	6 55	6 0	0 28	25·1	21 52
Monday ..	3	337	6 56	6 0	0 28	26·1	22 1
Tuesday ..	4	338	6 57	6 0	0 29	27·1	22 10
Wednesday ..	5	339	6 58	6 0	0 29	28·1	22 18
Thursday ..	6	340	6 59	6 1	0 30	29·1	22 25
Friday ..	7	341	6 59	6 1	0 30	0·6	22 33
Saturday ..	8	342	6 59	6 1	0 30	1·6	22 40
Sunday ..	9	343	7 0	6 1	0 31	2·6	22 46
Monday ..	10	344	7 0	6 2	0 31	3·6	22 52
Tuesday ..	11	345	7 1	6 2	0 32	4·6	22 57
Wednesday ..	12	346	7 2	6 3	0 32	5·6	23 2
Thursday ..	13	347	7 2	6 3	0 33	6·6	23 7
Friday ..	14	348	7 3	6 3	0 33	7·6	23 11
Saturday ..	15	349	7 3	6 4	0 34	8·6	23 15
Sunday ..	16	350	7 4	6 4	0 35	9·6	23 18
Monday ..	17	351	7 4	6 5	0 35	10·6	23 21
Tuesday ..	18	352	7 5	6 5	0 36	11·6	23 23
Wednesday ..	19	353	7 5	6 6	0 36	12·6	23 24
Thursday ..	20	354	7 6	6 6	0 37	13·6	23 26
Friday ..	21	355	7 7	6 7	0 37	14·6	23 27
Saturday ..	22	356	7 7	6 7	0 38	15·6	23 27
Sunday ..	23	357	7 8	6 8	0 38	16·6	23 27
Monday ..	24	358	7 8	6 9	0 39	17·6	23 26
Tuesday ..	25	359	7 9	6 9	0 39	18·6	23 25
Wednesday ..	26	360	7 9	6 9	0 40	19·6	23 23
Thursday ..	27	361	7 10	6 10	0 40	20·6	23 22
Friday ..	28	362	7 10	6 10	0 41	21·6	23 19
Saturday ..	29	363	7 11	6 10	0 41	22·6	23 16
Sunday ..	30	364	7 11	6 11	0 41	23·6	23 13
Monday ..	31	365	7 11	6 11	0 42	24·6	23 9

CALENDAR FOR 1935.

JANUARY.

Sun. . .	*	6	13	20	27	*
M. . .	*	7	14	21	28	*
Tu. . .	1	8	15	22	29	*
W. . .	2	9	16	23	30	*
Th. . .	3	10	17	24	31	*
F. . .	4	11	18	25	*	*
S. . .	5	12	19	26	*	*

FEBRUARY.

Sun. . .	*	3	10	17	24	*
M. . .	*	4	11	18	25	*
Tu. . .	*	5	12	19	26	*
W. . .	*	6	13	20	27	*
Th. . .	*	7	14	21	28	*
F. . .	1	8	15	22	*	*
S. . .	2	9	16	23	*	*

MARCH.

Sun. . .	*	3	10	17	24	31
M. . .	*	4	11	18	25	*
Tu. . .	*	5	12	19	26	*
W. . .	*	6	13	20	27	*
Th. . .	*	7	14	21	28	*
F. . .	1	8	15	22	29	*
S. . .	2	9	16	23	30	*

APRIL.

Sun. . .	*	7	14	21	28	*
M. . .	1	8	15	22	29	*
Tu. . .	2	9	16	23	30	*
W. . .	3	10	17	24	*	*
Th. . .	4	11	18	25	*	*
F. . .	5	12	19	26	*	*
S. . .	6	13	20	27	*	*

MAY.

Sun. . .	*	5	12	19	26	*
M. . .	*	6	13	20	27	*
Tu. . .	*	7	14	21	28	*
W. . .	1	8	15	22	29	*
Th. . .	2	9	16	23	30	*
F. . .	3	10	17	24	31	*
S. . .	4	11	18	25	*	*

JUNE.

Sun. . .	*	2	9	16	23	30
M. . .	*	3	10	17	24	*
Tu. . .	*	4	11	18	25	*
W. . .	*	5	12	19	26	*
Th. . .	*	6	13	20	27	*
F. . .	*	7	14	21	28	*
S. . .	1	8	15	22	29	*

JULY.

Sun. . .	*	7	14	21	28	*
M. . .	1	8	15	22	29	*
Tu. . .	2	9	16	23	30	*
W. . .	3	10	17	24	31	*
Th. . .	4	11	18	25	*	*
F. . .	5	12	19	26	*	*
S. . .	6	13	20	27	*	*

AUGUST.

Sun. . .	*	4	11	18	25	*
M. . .	*	5	12	19	26	*
Tu. . .	*	6	13	20	27	*
W. . .	*	7	14	21	28	*
Th. . .	1	8	15	22	29	*
F. . .	2	9	16	23	30	*
S. . .	3	10	17	24	31	*

SEPTEMBER.

Sun. . .	1	8	15	22	29	*
M. . .	2	9	16	23	30	*
Tu. . .	3	10	17	24	*	*
W. . .	4	11	18	25	*	*
Th. . .	5	12	19	26	*	*
F. . .	6	13	20	27	*	*
S. . .	7	14	21	28	*	*

OCTOBER.

Sun. . .	*	6	13	20	27	*
M. . .	*	7	14	21	28	*
Tu. . .	1	8	15	22	29	*
W. . .	2	9	16	23	30	*
Th. . .	3	10	17	24	31	*
F. . .	4	11	18	25	*	*
S. . .	5	12	19	26	*	*

NOVEMBER.

Sun. . .	*	3	10	17	24	*
M. . .	*	4	11	18	25	*
Tu. . .	*	5	12	19	26	*
W. . .	*	6	13	20	27	*
Th. . .	*	7	14	21	28	*
F. . .	1	8	15	22	29	*
S. . .	2	9	16	23	30	*

DECEMBER.

Sun. . .	1	8	15	22	29	*
M. . .	2	9	16	23	30	*
Tu. . .	3	10	17	24	31	*
W. . .	4	11	18	25	*	*
Th. . .	5	12	19	26	*	*
F. . .	6	13	20	27	*	*
S. . .	7	14	21	28	*	*

PREFACE

THE Editors have to thank many correspondents who during the past year have sent them suggestions for the improvement of this book. The Indian Year Book is intended above all to be a book of reference, and its completeness and convenience of arrangement must necessarily depend to a great extent on the part taken in its editing by the members of the public who most use it.

The help extended to the Editors by various officials, and more particularly by the Director of Information and Labour Intelligence, Bombay, and the Indian Commercial Intelligence Department, has again been readily given and is most gratefully acknowledged. Without such help it would be impossible to produce the Year Book with up-to-date statistics.

Suggestions for the improvement or correction of the Year Book may be sent to the Editors at any time, but those which reach them before January have a better chance of being adopted than later suggestions which only reach them after the work of revision has been partly completed.

The Times of India, Bombay,
April, 1934.

An Indian Glossary.

ABKARI.—Excise of liquors and drugs.

ACHHUT.—Untouchable (Hindi, Asuddhar.

ACREAGE CONTRIBUTION.—Contribution paid by holders of land irrigated by Government.

ADHIRAJ.—Supreme ruler, over lord, added to "Maharaja," &c., it means "paramount"

AFSAR.—A corruption of the English "officer"

AHIMSA.—Non-violence.

AHLUWALIA.—Name of a princely family resident at the village of Ahlu, near Lahore.

AIN.—A timber tree TERMINALIA TOMENTOSA.

AKALI.—Originally, a Sikh devotee, one of band founded by Guru Govind Singh (who died 1708): now, a member of the politico-religious army (*dal*) of reforming Sikhs.

AKHARA.—A Hindu school of gymnastics.

AKHUNDZADA.—Son of a Head Officer.

ALIJAH.—Of exalted rank.

ALIGHOL.—Literally a Mahomedan circle. A kind of athletic club formed for purposes of self-defence.

ALI RAJA.—Sea King (Laccadives)

AM.—Mango.

AMIL.—A name given in Sind to educated members of the Lohana community, a Hindu caste consisting principally of bankers, clerks and minor officials.

AMIR (corruptly EMIR).—A Mohammedan Chief, often also a personal name.

AMMA.—A goddess, particularly Mariamma goddess of small-pox, South India.

ANICUT.—A dam or weir across a river for irrigation purposes, Southern India.

ANJUMAN.—A communal gathering of Mahomedans.

APHUS.—Believed to be a corruption of ALPHONSE, the name of the best variety of Bombay mango.

ARZ, ARZI, ARZ-DASHT.—Written petition.

ASAF.—A minister.

ASPRISHYA.—Untouchable (Sanskrit).

AUS.—The early rice crop, Bengal, syn. Ahu, Assam.

AVATAR.—An incarnation of Vishnu.

AYURVEDA.—Hindu science of Medicine.

BABA.—Lit. "Father," a respectful "Mr." Irish "Your Honour."

BABU.—(1) A gentleman in Bengal, corresponding to Pant in the Deccan and Konkan. (2) Hence used by Anglo-Indians of a clerk or accountant. Strictly a 5th or still younger son of a Raja but often used of any son younger than the heir, whilst it has also grown into a term of address=Esquire. There are, however, one or two Rajas whose sons are known respectively as—1st, Kunwar; 2nd, Diwan; 3rd, Thakur; 4th, Lal; 5th Babu.

BABUL.—A common thorny tree, the bark of which is used for tanning, ACACIA ARABICA.

BADMASH.—A bad character: a rascal.

BAGH.—Tiger or Panther.

BAGHLA.—(1) A native boat (Buggalow), (2) The common pond heron or paddybird.

BAHADUR.—Lit "brave" or "warrior", a title used by both Hindus and Mohammedans, often bestowed by Government; added to other titles, it increases their honour but alone it designates an inferior ruler.

BAIRAGI.—A Hindu religious mendicant.

BAJRA OR BAJRI.—The bulrush millet, a common food-grain, PENNISETUM TYPHOIDEUM; syn. cambu, Madras.

BAKHSHI.—A revenue officer or magistrate.

BAKHSHISH.—Cheri-meri (or Chiri-miri) Tip.

BAND.—A dam or embankment (Bund).

BANDAR.—Monkey.

BANYAN.—A species of fig-tree, FICUS BENGALENSIS.

BARA SING.—Swamp deer,

BARSAT.—(1) A fall of rain, (2) the rainy season.

BARSATI.—Farcy (horse's disease).

BASTI.—(1) A village, or collection of huts; (2) A Jain temple, Kanara.

BATTA.—Lit. 'discount' and hence allowances by way of compensation.

BATTAK.—Duck.

BAWARCHI.—Cook in India, Syn. Mistri, in Bombay only.

BAZAR.—(1) A street lined with shops, India proper; (2) a covered market, Burma.

BEGUM or BEGAM.—The feminine of "Nawab" combined in Bhopal as "Nawab Begum."

BER.—A thorny shrub bearing a fruit like a small plum, ZIZYPHUS JUJUBA.

Note.—According to the Hunterian system of transliteration here adopted the vowels have the following values:—a either long as the a in 'father' or short as the u in 'cut,' e as the a in 'gain,' i either short as the i in 'bib,' or long as the ee in 'feel,' o as the o in 'bone,' u either short as the oo in 'good,' or long as the oo in 'boot,' ai as the i in 'mile,' au as the ou in 'grouse.' This is only a rough guide. The vowel values vary in different parts of India in a marked degree.

BESAR.—In Hindi (also Gujarati Vesar).—Woman's nose-ring.

BEWAR.—Name in Central Provinces for shifting cultivation in jungles and hill-sides; syn. taungya, Burma; jhum, North-Eastern India.

BHADOI.—Early autumn crop, Northern India reaped in the month Bhadon.

BHAGAT OR BHAKTA.—A devotee.

BHAG-BATAI.—System of payment of land revenue in kind.

BHAIBAND.—Relation or man of same caste or community.

BHAIBANDI.—Nepotism.

BHANGI.—Sweeper, scavenger.

BHANG.—The dried leaves of the hemp plant, CANNABIS SATIVA, a narcotic.

BHANWAR.—Light sandy soil; syn. bhur.

BHANWARLAL.—Title of heir apparent in some Rajput States.

BHARAL.—A Himalayan wild sheep, OVIS NAHURA.

BHARAT.—India.

BHARATA-VARSHA.—India.

BHENDI.—A succulent vegetable (HIBISCUS ESCULENTUS).

BHONSLE.—Name of a Maratha dynasty

BHUP.—Title of the ruler of Cooch Behar

BHUGTI.—Name of a Baluch tribe.

BHUSA.—Chaff, for fodder.

BHUT.—The spirit of departed persons.

BIDRI.—A class of ornamental metalwork in which blackened pewter is inlaid with silver, named from the town of Bidar, Hyderabad.

BIGHA.—A measure of land varying widely; the standard bigha is generally five-eighths of an acre. "Vigha" in Gujarat and Kathiawar.

BHISHTI.—Commonly pronounced "Bhishti." Water-carrier (lit. "man of heaven").

BIL (BID).—A grassland—North India, Gujarat and Kathiawar. Also "Vidi."

BLACK COTTON SOIL.—A dark-coloured soil very retentive of moisture, found in Central and Southern India.

BOARD OF REVENUE.—The chief controlling revenue authority in Bengal, the United Provinces and Madras.

BOHRA:—A sect of Ismaili Shia Mussalmans, belonging to Gujarat.

BOR.—See BER.

BRINJAL.—A vegetable, SOLANUM MELONGENA; syn. egg-plant.

BUND.—Embankment.

BUNDER, or bandar.—A harbour or port. Also "Monkey."

BURJ.—A bastion in a line of battlements.

CADJAN.—Palm leaves used for thatch.

CHABUK.—A whip.

CHABUTRA.—A platform of mud or plastered brick, used for social gatherings, Northern India.

CHADAR.—A sheet worn as a shawl by men and sometimes by women. (Chudder.)

CHAITYA.—An ancient Buddhist chapel.

CHAMBHAR (CHAMAR).—"Cobbler", "Shoemaker." A caste whose trade is to tan leather.

CHAMPAK.—A tree with fragrant blossoms, MICHELIA CHAMPACA.

CHANA.—Grain.

CHAND.—Moon

CHANDI.—(Pron. with soft d) Silver: Chandi (with palatal and short a)—Goddess Durga.

CHAPATI.—A cake of unleavened bread.

CHAPRASI.—An orderly or messenger, Northern India; syn. pattawala, Bombay; peon, Madras.

CHARAS.—The resin of the hemp plant, CANNABIS SATIVA, used for smoking.

CHARKHA.—A spinning wheel.

CHARPAI (charpoy).—A bedstead with four legs, and tape stretched across the frame for a mattress.

CHAUDHRI.—Under native rule, a subordinate revenue official; at present the term is applied to the headman or representative of a trade guild.

CHAUK, CHOWK.—A place where four roads meet.

CHAUKIDAR.—The village watchman and rural policeman.

CHAUTH.—The fourth part of the land revenue, exacted by the Marathas in subject territories.

CHAVRI (CHORO GUJARATI).—Village headquarters.

CHEETAH.—Hunting leopard.

CHELA.—A pupil, usually in connexion with religious teaching.

CHHAONI.—A collection of thatched huts or barracks; hence a cantonment.

CHHAPRAPATI.—One of sufficient dignity to have an umbrella carried over him.

CHHATRI.—(1) An umbrella, (2) domed building such as a cenotaph.

CHIEF COMMISSIONER.—The administrative head of one of the lesser Provinces in British India.

CHIKOR.—A kind of partridge, CACCABIS CHUCAR.

CHIKU.—The Bombay name for the fruit of ACHRAS SAPOTA, the Sapodilla plum of the West Indies.

CHINAR.—A plane tree, PLATANUS ORIENTALIS.

CHINKARA.—The Indian gazelle, GAZELLA BENNETTI, often called 'ravine deer.'

CHITAL.—The spotted deer, CERVUS AXIS.

CHOBDAR.—Mace-bearer whose business is to announce the arrival of guests on state occasions.

CHOLAM.—Name in Southern India for the large millet, ANDROPOGON SORGHUM; syn. jowar.

CHOLI.—A kind of short bodice worn by women.

CHOWRIE.—Fly-whisk.

CHUNAM, chuna.—Lime plaster.

CIRCLE.—The area in charge of—(1) A Conservator of Forests; (2) A Postmaster or Deputy Postmaster-General; (3) A Superintending Engineer of the Public Works Department.

CIVIL SURGEON.—The officer in medical charge of a District.

COGNIZABLE.—An offence for which the culprit can be arrested by the police without a warrant.

COLLECTOR.—The administrative head of a District in Bengal, Bombay, Madras, etc. Syn. Deputy Commissioner.

COMMISSIONER.—(1) The officer in charge of a Division or group of Districts; (2) the head of various departments, such as Stamps, Excise, etc.

COMPOUND.—The garden and open land attached to a house. An Anglo-Indian word perhaps derived from 'kumpan,' a hedge.

CONSERVATOR.—The Supervising Officer in charge of a Circle in the Forest Department.

COUNCIL BILLS.—Bills or telegraphic transfers drawn on the Indian Government by the Secretary of State in Council.

COUNT.—Cotton yarns are described as 20's, 30's, etc., counts when not more than a like number of hanks of 840 yards go to the pound avoirdupois.

COURT OF WARDS.—An establishment for managing estates of minors and other disqualified persons.

CRORE, karor.—Ten millions.

DADA.—Lit. "grandfather" (paternal); any venerable person. In Bombay slang a "hooligan boss."

DAFFADAR.—A non-commissioned native officer in the army or police.

DAFTAR.—Office records.

DAFTARI.—Record-keeper.

DAH OR DAO.—A cutting instrument with no point, used as a sword, and also as an axe, Assam and Burma.

DAK (dawk).—A stage on a stage coach route. Dawk bungalow is the travellers' bungalow maintained at such stages in days before railways came.

DAKAITI, DACOITY.—Robbery by five or more persons.

DAL.—(Pron. with dental d and short a) "Army," hence any disciplined body, *e.g.*, Akali Dal, Seva Dal.

DAL.—A generic term applied to various pulses.

DAM.—An old copper coin, one-fortieth of a rupee.

DARBAR.—(1) A ceremonial assembly, especially one presided over by the Ruler of a State; hence (2) the Government of a Native State.

DARGAH.—A Mahomedan shrine or tomb of a saint.

DARI, Dhurrie.—A rug or carpet, usually of cotton, but sometimes of wool.

DARKHAST.—A tender or application to rent land.

DAROGHA.—The title of officials in various departments; now especially applied to subordinate controlling Officers in the Police and Jail Departments.

DARSHAN.—Lit. "Sight." To go to a temple to get a sight of the idol is to make "darshan". Also used in case of great or holy personages.

DARWAN.—A door-keeper.

DARWAZA.—A gateway.

DASTURI.—Customary perquisite.

DAULA AND DAULAT.—State.

DEB.—A Brahminical priestly title; taken from the name of a divinity.

DEBOTTAR.—Land assigned for the upkeep of temples or maintenance of Hindu worship.

DEODAR.—A cedar, CEDRUS LEBANI or C. DEODARA.

DEPUTY COMMISSIONER.—The Administrative head of a District in the Punjab, Central Provinces, etc. Syn. Collector.

DEPUTY MAGISTRATE AND COLLECTOR.—A subordinate of the Collector, having executive and judicial (revenue and criminal) powers; equivalent to Extra Assistant Commissioner in non-regulation areas.

DERA.—Tent in N. India.

DERASAR.—Jain Temple.

DESAI.—A revenue official under native (Maratha) rule.

DESH.—(1) Native country; (2) the plains as opposed to the hills, Northern India; (3) the plateau of the Deccan above the Ghats.

DESH-BHAKTA.—Patriot.

DESHI.—Indigenous, opposed to bideshi, foreign.

DESHMUKH.—A petty official under native (Maratha) rule.

DESH-SEVIKA.—Servant (Fem.) of the country; Female Volunteer in the Civil Disobedience movement.

DEVA.—A deity.

DEVADASI.—A girl dedicated to temple or God. Murli in Maharashtra.

DEVASTHAN.—Land assigned for the upkeep of a temple or other religious foundation.

DEWAN.—A Vizier or other First Minister to an Indian Chief, either Hindu or Mohammedan, and equal in rank with "Sardar" under which see other equivalents. The term is also used of a Council of State.

DHAK.—A tree, BUTEA FRONDOSA, with brilliant orange-scarlet flowers used for dyeing, and also producing a gum; syn. palas, Bengal and Bombay; Chhiul, Central India; "Khakhro" in Gujarat and Kathiawar.

DHAMNI.—A heavy shighram or tonga drawn by bullocks.

DHARALA.—Bhil, Koli, or other warlike castes carrying sharp weapons.

DHARMA.—Religion (Hindu).

DHARMSALA.—A charitable institution provided as a resting-place for pilgrims or travellers, Northern India.

DHATURA.—A stupefying drug, DATURA ARSTUOSA.

DHED.—A large untouchable caste in Gujarat, corresponding to Mahar in Maharashtra and Holeya in Karnatak.

DHENKLI.—Name in Northern India for the lever used in raising water; syn. picottah.

DHOBI.—A washerman.

DHOTI.—The loincloth worn by men.

DIN.—Religion (Mahomedan).

DISTRICT.—The most important administrative unit of area.

DIVISION.—(1) A group of districts for administrative and revenue purposes, under a Commissioner; (2) the area in charge of a Deputy Conservator of Forests, usually corresponding with a (revenue) District; (3) the area under a Superintendent of Post Offices; (4) a group of (revenue) districts under an Executive Engineer of the Public Works Department.

DIWAN (SIKH).—Communal Gathering.

DIWALI.—The lamp festival of Hindus.

DIWANI.—Civil, especially revenue, administration; now used generally in Northern India of civil justice and Courts.

DOAB.—The tract between two rivers, especially that between the Ganges and Jumna.

DOM.—Untouchable caste in Northern India.

DRUG.—A hill-fort, Mysore.

DRY CROP.—A crop grown without artificial irrigation.

DRY RATE.—The rate of revenue for unirrigated land.

DUN.—(Pron. "doon") A valley, Northern India.

EKKA.—A small two-wheeled conveyance drawn by a pony, Northern India.

ELCHI, ELACHI.—Cardamom.

ELCHI (Turk.)—Ambassador.

ELAYA RAJA.—Title given to the heir of the Maharaja of Travancore or Cochin.

EXTRA ASSISTANT COMMISSIONER.—See Deputy Magistrate and Collector.

FAKIR.—Properly an Islamic mendicant but often loosely used of Hindu mendicants also.

FAMINE INSURANCE GRANT.—An annual provision from revenue to meet direct famine expenditure, or the cost of certain classes of public works, or to avoid debt.

FARMAN.—An imperial (Mughal) order or grant.

FARZAND.—Lit. means "child" with the defining words added such as "Farzand-e-dilband" in the case of several Indian Princes it means beloved, favourite, etc.

FARZANDARI or FAZANDARI.—A kind of land tenure in Bombay City.

FASLI.—Era (solar) started by Akbar, A.C. minus 572-3.

FATEH.—"Victory."

FATEH JANG.—"Victorious in Battle" (a title of the Nizam).

FATWA.—Judicial decree or written opinion of a doctor of Muslim law.

FAUJDARI.—Relating to a criminal court, criminal proceedings.

FAUJDARI.—Under native rule, the area under a Faujdar or subordinate governor; now used generally of Magistrates' Criminal Courts.

FINANCIAL COMMISSIONER.—The chief controlling revenue authority in the Punjab, Burma and the Central Provinces.

FITTON GARI.—A phaeton, Bombay. Derived from the English.

GADDI, Gadi.—The cushion or throne of (Hindu) royalty.

GAEKWAR (sometimes GUICOWAR).—Title with "Maharaja" added of the ruler of Baroda. It was once a caste name and means "cowherd," *i.e.*, the protector of the sacred animal; but later on, in common with "Holkar" and "Sindhia," it came to be a dynastic appellation and consequently regarded as a title. Thus, a Prince becomes "Gaekwar" on succeeding to the estate of Baroda; "Holkar," to that of Indore and "Sindhia," to that of Gwalior.

(All these are surnames of which Gaekwar and Shinde are quite common among Marathas—and even Mahars).

GANJA.—The unfertilised flowers of the cultivated female hemp plant, CANNABIS SATIVA, used for smoking.

GAUR.—Wild cattle, commonly called 'bison' BOS GAURUS.

GAYAL.—A species of wild cattle, BOS FRONTALIS, domesticated on the North-East Frontier; syn. mithan.

GHADR.—Mutiny, Revolution.

GHARRIE (GARI).—A carriage, cart.

GHAT, Ghaut.—(1) A landing-place on a river; (2) the bathing steps on the bank of a tank; (3) a pass up a mountain; (4) in European usage, a mountain range. In the last sense especially applied to the Eastern and Western Ghats.

GHATWAL.—A tenure-holder who originally held his land on the condition of guarding the neighbouring hill passes (ghats), Bengal.

GHAZI.—One who engaged in "Ghazv," a holy War, *i.e.*, against kafirs.

GHI, Ghee.—Clarified butter.

GINGELLY.—See TIL.

GODOWN.—A store room or warehouse. An Anglo-Indian word derived from the Malay "gadang."

GOPI.—Cowherd girl. The dance of the youthful Krishna with the Gopis is a favourite subject of paintings.

GOPURAM.—A gateway, especially applied to the great temple gateways in Southern India.

GOSAIN, Goswami.—A (Hindu) devotee; lit. one who restrains his passions.

GOSHA.—Name in Southern India for 'parda women;' lit. the word "Gosha" means corner or seclusion; "one who sits in" is the meaning of the word "Nashin" which is usually added to "Gosha" and "Parda" *e.g.*, Goshanashin Pardanashin.

GRAM.—A kind of pea, CICER ARIETINUM. In Southern India the pulse DOLICHOS BIFLORUS is known as horse gram.

GRANTHA-SAHEB.—Sikh holy book.

GUNJ.—The red seed with a black 'eye' of ABRUS PRECATORIUS, a common wild creeper used as the official weight for minute quantities of opium 96th of a TOLA.

GUP, OR GUP SHUP.—Tittle tattle.

GUR, Goor—Crude sugar; syn. jaggery, Southern India; tanyet, Burma.

GURAL.—A Himalayan goat antelope. CEMAGORAL.

GURDWARA.—A Sikh Shrine.

GURU.—(1) A Hindu religious preceptor; (2) a schoolmaster, Bengal.

HABSHI.—Literally an Abyssinian. Now a term for anyone whose complexion is particularly dark.

HADITH.—(commonly pronounced "Hadis") Tradition of the Prophet.

HAFIZ.—Guardian., one who has Quran by heart.

HAJ.—Pilgrimage to Mecca.

HAJAM, HAJJAM.—A barber.

HAJI.—A Mahomedan who has performed the haj. He is entitled to dye his beard red.

HAKIM.—A native doctor practising the Mahomedan system of medicine.

HAKIM (with long a).—Governor, ruler.

HALAL—Lawful (from Islam point of view). Used of meat of animal ceremoniously slaughtered with a sawing motion of the knife. cf. "Jhatka".

HALALKHOR.—A sweeper or scavenger; lit. one to whom everything is lawful food.

HALI.—Current. Applied to coin of Native States, especially Hyderabad.

HAMAL.—(1) A porter or cooly, (2) a house servant.

HAQ.—A right.

HARIJAN—Untouchables. The term originally means "the people of God". According to Mr. Gandhi the term was suggested by certain of the class themselves who did not care for the description of "untouchable", and it was copied from the example of a poet of Gujarat.

HEJIRA (HIJRAH)—The era dating from the flight of Mahomed to Mecca, June 20th, 622 A.D.

HEERA LAL.—A Hindu name ('Hira' is diamond and 'Lal' is ruby.)

HILSA.—A kind of fish. CLUPEA ILISHA.

HOONDI, HUNDI.—A draft (banking.)

HOLKAR.—See "Gaekwar."

HTI.—An iron pinnacle placed on a pagoda in Burma.

HUKKA, HOOKAH.—The Indian tobacco pipe.

HUKM.—An order.

HUNDI.—A bill of exchange.

IDGAH.—An enclosed place outside a town where Mahomedan services are held on festivals known as the Id., etc.

ILAKHE.—A department. (Ilakha in Marathi and Gujarati Languages means Presidency.)

IMAM.—The layman who leads the congregation in prayer. Mahomedan.

INAM.—Lit. 'reward.' Hence land held revenue free or at a reduced rate, often subject to service. See DEVASTHAN, SARANJAM, WATAN.

INUNDATION CANAL.—A channel taken off from a river at a comparatively high level, which conveys water only when the river is in flood.

IZZAT.—Prestige.

JACK FRUIT.—Fruit of ARTOCARPUS INTEGRIFOLIA, ver. PHANAS.

KACHCHA.—Unripe, mud-built, inferior.

JAGGERY, jagri.—Name in Southern India for crude sugar; syn. gur.

JAGIR.—An assignment of land, or of the revenue of land held by a Jagirdar.

JAH.—A term denoting dignity, applied to highest class nobles in Hyderabad State.

JAM (Sindhi or Baluch).—Chief. Also the Jam of Nawanagar.

JAMABANDI.—The annual settlement made under the ryotwari system.

JAMADAR.—A native officer in the army or police.

JANGAMA.—A Lingayat priest.

JAPTI.—Distraint; attachment: corrupt of "Zabti."

JATHA.—An association.

JATKA.—Pony-cart, South India.

JAZIRAT-UL-ARAB.—The Sacred Island of Arabia, including all the countries which contain cities sacred to the Mahomedans: Arabia, Palestine and Mesopotamia.

JHATKA—"Stroke", used of meat of animal slaughtered with a stroke as opposed to "Halal". s. v.

JHIL.—A natural lake or swamp, Northern India; syn. bil, Eastern Bengal and Assam.

JIHAD.—A religious war undertaken by Musalmans.

JIRGA.—A council of tribal elders, North-West frontier.

JOGI (YOGI).—A Hindu ascetic.

JOSHI.—Village astrologer.

JOWAR.—The large millet, a very common food-grain, ANDROPOGON SORGHUM, or SORGHUM VULGARE; syn. cholam and jola, in Southern India.

JUDI.—A revenue term in S. Division of the Bombay Presidency.

JUDICIAL COMMISSIONER.—An officer exercising the functions of a High Court in the Central Provinces, Oudh, and Sind.

KACHCHA.—Unripe, mud built, inferior.

KACHERI, kachahri.—An office or office building, especially that of a Government official.

KADAB, karbi.—The stalk of jowari (*q. v.*)—a valuable fodder.

KAFIR.—Infidel, applied by Muslims to all non-Muslims.

KAJU, kashew.—The nut of ANACARDIUM OCCIDENTALE, largely grown in the Konkan.

KAKAR.—The barking deer, CERVULUS MUNTJAC.

KAKRI.—Cucumber.

KALAR, kallar.—Barren land covered with salt or alkaline efflorescences, Northern India.

KALI-YUGA.—
KALI.— } The Iron age. (short a).

KALI.—Popular goddess, consort of Shiva.
KALI.—Black soil. } (long a).

KALIMA.—The Mahomedan Confession of faith.

KAMARBAND, Cummerbund.—A waistcloth, or belt.

KANAT.—The wall of a large tent. "Kanat" (in Persia)—Underground Canal.

KANGAR.—A kind of portable warming-pan, carried by persons in Kashmir to keep themselves warm.

KANKAR.—Nodular limestone, used for metalling roads, as building stones or for preparation of lime.

KANS.—A coarse grass which spreads and prevents cultivation especially in Bundelkhand SACCHARUM SPONTANEUM.

KANUNGO.—A Revenue Inspector.

KAPAS.—Cotton.

KARAIT.—A very venomous snake, BUNGARUS CANDIDUS or CAERULEUS.

KARBHARI.—A manager. Also Dewan in smaller States in Maharashtra and Gujarat.

KAREZ.—(Persian 'Kanat'.) Underground tunnels near the skirts of hills, by which water is gradually led to the surface for irrigation, especially in Baluchistan.

KARKUN.—A clerk or writer, Bombay.

KARMA.—The doctrine that existence is conditioned by the sum of the good and evil actions in past existences.

KARNAM.—See PATWARI.

KARTOOS.—A cartridge.

KAS.—The five "Kas" which denote the Sikh are *Kes*, the uncut hair; *Kachh*, the short drawers; *Kara*, the iron bangle; *Kirpan*, the steel knife; and *Kangha*, the comb.

KASAI.—A butcher.

KAZI.—Better written *Qazi*—Under native rule, a judge administering Mahomedan law. Under British rule, the kazi registers marriages between Mahomedans and performs other functions, but has no powers conferred by law.

KHARITA.—Letter from an Indian Prince to the Governor-General.

KHABARDAR.—Beware.

KHADI (or KHADDER).—Cotton cloth handwoven from hand-spun yarn.

KHALASI.—A native fireman, sailor, artilleryman, or tent-pitcher.

KHALSA.—Lit. 'pure.' (1) Applied especially to themselves by the Sikhs, the word Khalsa being equivalent to the Sikh community; (2) land directly under Government as opposed to land alienated to grantees, etc., Northern India, and Deccan.

KHAN.—Originally the ruler of a small Mohammedan state, now a nearly empty title though prized. It is very frequently used rather as *part* of a name, especially by Afghans and Pathans.

KHANDI, candy. A weight especially used for cotton bales in Bombay, equivalent to 20 mds.

KHANSAMA.—A butler.

KHARAB.—Also "Kharaba." In Bombay of any portion of an assessed survey No. which being uncultivable is left unassessed.

KHARGOSH.—Hare.

KHARIF.—Any crops sown just before or during the main S. W. monsoon.

KHAS.—Special, in Government hands. Khas tahasildar, the manager of a Government estate.

KHASADAR.—Local levies of foot soldiers Afghanistan or N. W. Frontier.

KHAS-KHAS, Kus-Kus.—A grass with scented roots, used for making screens which are placed in doorways and kept wet to cool a house by evaporation, ANDROPOGON SQUARROSUS.

KHEDDA, kheda.—A stockade into which wild elephants are driven; also applied to the operations for catching.

KHICHADI, kejjeree.—A dish of cooked rice and other ingredients, and by Anglo-Indians specially used of rice with fish.

KHILAT.—A robe of honour.

KHUTBA.—The weekly prayer for Mahomedans in general and for the reigning sovereign in particular.

KHWAJA.—A Persian word for "master," sometimes a name.

KINCOB, kamkhwab.—Silk textiles brocaded with gold or silver.

KIRPAN.—A Sikh religious emblem; a sword.

KISAN.—Agriculturist, used in North India. "Ryot" in Maharashtra, etc.

KODALI Also "Kudali".—The implement like a hoe or mattock in common use for digging; syn. mamuti, Southern India.

KONKAN.—The narrow strip of low land between the Western ghats and the sea.

KOS.—A variable measure of distance usually estimated at about two miles. The distance between the kos-minars or milestones on the Mughal Imperial roads averages a little over 2 miles, 4 furlongs, 150 yards. Also means the leathern water-lift drawn by bullocks in Gujarat and Kathiawar.

KOT.—Battlements.

KOTHI.—A large house.

KOTWAL.—The head of the police in a town, under native rule. The term is still used in Hyderabad and other parts of India.

KOTWALI.—The chief police station in a head-quarters town.

KUCHA BANDI—A barrier or gateway erected across a lane.

KUFR.—Infidelity, unbelief in the Quran and the Prophet.

KULKARNI.—See PATWARI.

KUMBHAMELA.—The great fair at Hardwar, so called because when it is held every 12 year Jupiter and Sun are in the sign Kumbhas, (Aquarius).

KUMBHAR.—(M.) A potter. U-"Kumhar."

KUNBI.—An agriculturist (Kanbi in Gujarat Kurmi in N. India.)

KUNWAR OR KUMAR.—The heir of a Raja. (Every son of any chief in Gujarat and Kathiawar)

KURAN.—A big grass land growing grass fit for cutting.

KUSHTI (U)., KUSTI (M).—Wrestling.

KYARI.—Land embanked to hold water for rice cultivation.

KYAUNG.—A Buddhist monastery, which always contains a school, Burma.

LAKH, lac.—A hundred thousand.

LAL.—A younger son of a Raja (strictly a 4th son, but see under "Babu").

LAMBARDAR.—The representative of the co-sharers in a zamindari village, Northern India.

LANGUR.—A large monkey, SEMNOPITHECUS ENTELLUS.

LASCAR, correct lashkar.—(1) an army, (2) in English usage an Indian sailor.

LAT.—A monumental pillar. "Lat" Hindustani corruption of "Lord" *e.g.*, "Bara Lat"—Viceroy, "Jangi Lat"—Commander-in-Chief, "Chhota Lat" Governor.

LATERITE.—A vesicular material formed of disintegrated rock, used for buildings and making roads; also probably valuable for the production of aluminium. Laterite produces a deep brichord soil.

LINGAM.—The phallic emblem, worshipped as the representative of Shiva.

LITCHI.—A fruit tree grown in North India (LITCHI CHINENSIS).

LOKAMANYA.—(Lit.) Esteemed of the people. A national hero.

LOKENDRA OR LOKINDRA.—"Protector of the World," title of the Chiefs of Dholpur and Datia.

LONGYI.—A waistcloth, Burma.

LOTA.—A small brass water-pot.

LUNGI, loongi—A cloth (coloured dhoti) simply wound round the waist.

MADRASA.—A school especially one for the higher instruction of Mahomedans.

MAHAJAN.—The guild of Hindu or Jain merchants in a city. The head of the Mahajan is the Nagarsheth (*q. v.*).

MAHAL.—(1) Formerly a considerable tract of country; (2) now a village or part of a village for which a separate agreement is taken for the payment of land revenue; (3) a department of revenue, *e.g.*, right to catch elephants, or to take stone; (4) in Bombay a small Taluka under a MAHALKARI.

MAHANT.—The head of a Hindu conventual establishment.

MAHARAJA.—The highest of hereditary rulers among the Hindus, or else a personal distinction conferred by Government. It has several variations as under "Raja" with the addition of MAHARAJ RANA; its feminine is MAHARANI (MAHA=great).

MAHARAJ KUMAR.—Son of a Maharaja.

MAHATMA.—(lit.) A great soul; applied to men who have transcended the limitations of the flesh and the world.

MAHAMAHOPADHYAYA.—A Hindu title denoting learned in Sanskritic lore.

MAHSEER, mahasir.—A large carp. BARBUS TOR (lit. 'the big-headed').

MAHUA.—A tree, BASSIA LATIFOLIA, producing flowers used (when dried) as food or for distilling liquor, and seeds which furnish oil.

MAHURAT.—The propitious moment fixed by astrologers for an important undertaking.

The word in Sanskrit and Marathi is "Muhurta"; in Gujarati "Murrat" or "Mhurat."

MAIDAN.—An open space of level ground, the park at Calcutta.

MAINA.—A bird.

MAJOR WORKS.—Irrigation works for which separate accounts are kept of capital, revenue, and interest.

MAJUR.—A labourer (in Bombay).

MAKTAB.—An elementary Mahomedan school.

MALGUZAR (revenue payer).—(1) The term applied in the Central Provinces to a co-sharer in a village held in ordinary proprietary tenure, (2) a cultivator in the Chamba State.

MAKTA.—Licence, monopoly.

MAKTADAR.—A licencee, monopolist.

MALI.—A gardener.

MALIK.—Master, proprietor.

MAMLATDAR (Mar. "Mamledar").—The officer in charge of a taluka, Bombay, whose duties are both executive and magisterial; syn. tahasildar Mar. "Mamledar").

MANDAP, or mandapam.—A porch or pillared hall, especially of a temple.

MANGOSTEEN.—The fruit of GARCINIA MANGOSTANA.

MARI.—A Baluch tribe. (Bhugtis and Maris generally spoken of together.)

MARKHOR.—A wild goat in North-Western India, CAPRA FALCONERI.

MASJID.—A mosque. Jama Masjid, the principal mosque in a town, where worshippers collect on Fridays.

MASNAD.—Seat of state or throne, Mahomedan; syn. gaddi.

MATH.—A Hindu conventual establishment.

MAULANA.—A Mahomedan skilled in Arabic and religious knowledge.

MAULVI.—A person learned in Muhammadan law.

MAUND, ver. Man.—A weight varying in different localities. The Ry. maund is 80 lbs.

MAYA.—Sanskrit term for "cosmic illusion" in Vedanta philosophy.

MEHEL or MAHAL.—A palace.

MELA.—A religious festival or fair.

MIAN.—Title of the son of a Rajput Nawab resembling the Scottish "Master."

MIHRAB.—The niche in the centre of the western wall of a mosque.

MIMBAR.—Steps in a mosque, used as a pulpit.

MINAR.—A pillar or tower.

MINOR WORKS.—Irrigation works for which regular accounts are not kept, except, in some cases, of capital.

MIR.—A leader, an inferior title which, like "Khan," has grown into a name, especially used by descendants of the Chiefs of Sind.

MIRZA.—If prefixed, "Mr." or "Esquire."

MOFUSSIL.—See MUFFASSAL.

MISTRI.—(1) a foreman, (2) a cook.

MOHUR.—A Gold coin no longer current, worth about Rs. 16.

MOLESALAM.—A class of land holding Rajput Musalmans in Gujarat who have retained Hindu names and customs.

MONG, MOUNG, OR MAUNG (Arakanese)—Leader.

MORA.—Stool.

MONSOON.—Lit. Season, and specifically (1) The S. W. Monsoon, which is a Northward extension of the S. E. trades, which in the Northern Summer cross the equator and circulate into and around the low pressure area over North India, caused by the excessive heating of the land area, and (2) The N. E. Monsoon, which is the current of cold winds blowing down during the Northern winter from the cold land areas of Central Asia, giving rain in India only in S. E. Madras and Ceylon through moisture acquired in crossing the Bay of Bengal, and passing across the equator into the low pressure areas of the Australasian Southern summit.

MOPLAH (Mappila).—A fanatical Mahomedan sect in Malabar.

MOULVI OR MAULVI.—A learned Musalman or Muslim teacher.

MUDALIYAR OR MUD-LIAR.—A personal proper name, but implying "steward of the lands."

MUEZZIN.—Person employed to sound the Mahomedan call to prayer.

MUFFASSAL, mofussil.—The outlying parts of a District, Province or Presidency, as distinguished from the headquarters (Sadr).

MUJAWAR.—Custodian of Musalman sacred place, especially Saint's tomb.

MUJTAHID.—*Lit.* One who wages war against infidels. Learned Mahomedan. Generic name given to custodian of Mahomedan sacred places in some parts.

MUKADAM.—Chief, leader; in Bombay, leader of coolie gang; also one employed by a merchant to superintend landing or shipment of goods.

MUKHTAR (corruptly mukhtiar).—(1) A legal practitioner who has not got a sanad and therefore cannot appear in court as of right; (2) any person holding a power of attorney on behalf of another person.

MUKHTIARKAR.—The officer in charge of a taluka, Sind, whose duties are both executive and magisterial; syn. tahasildar.

MUKTI, 'release.'—The perfect rest attained by the last death and the final reabsorption of the individual soul into the world soul, syn. NIRVANA, MOKSHA.

MUMTAZ-UD-DAULA.—Distinguished in the State. MULK, in the country.

MUNG, mug.—A pulse, PHASEOLUS RADIATUS: syn. mag. Gujarat.

MUNJ.—(1) A tall grass (SACCHARUM MUNJA) in North India, from which mats are woven, and the Brahman sacred thread worn; (2) In Maharashtra "munj" means the thread ceremony.

MUNSHI.—A teacher of Hindustani or any Perso-Arabian language. President or presiding official. Also Secretary or writer.

MUNSIF.—Judge of the lowest Court with civil jurisdiction.

MURLI (DEVADASI).—A girl dedicated to a God or temple.

MURUM, moorum.—Gravel and earth used for metalling roads.

MUSALMAN, Muslim, Momin (plural Mominin)—The names by which Mahomedans describe themselves. "Momin" is also name of a particular caste of Muhamadans in Gujarat; also called "Mumnas."

MYOWUN.—"Mr."

NACHANI, NAGLI—See RAGI.

NAGARKHANA, Nakkarkhana.—A place where drums are beaten.

NAGARSHETH.—The head of the trading guild of Hindu and Jain merchants in a city.

NAIB.—Assistant or Deputy.

NAIK.—A leader, hence (1) a local chieftain in Southern India; (2) a native officer of the lowest rank (corporal) in the Indian army. (In Bombay a head peon.)

NAT.—A demon or spirit, Burma.

NAWAB.—A title borne by Musalmans, corresponding roughly to that of Raja among Hindus. Originally a Viceroy under the Moghal Government, now the regular leading title of a Mohammedan Prince, corresponding to "Maharaja" of the Hindu.

NAWABZADA.—Son of a Nawab.

NAZAR, nazarana.—A due paid on succession or on certain ceremonial occasions.

NAZIM.—Superintendent or Manager.

NET ASSETS.—(1) In Northern India, the rent or share of the gross produce of land taken by the landlord; (2) in Madras and Lower Burma, the difference between the assumed value of the crop and the estimate of its cost of production.

NEWAR.—Broad webbing woven across bedsteads instead of iron slabs.

NGAPI.—Pressed fish or salted fish paste largely made and consumed in Burma.

NILGAO.—Blue Bull. A large antelope.

NIM, neem.—A tree, MELIA AZADIRACHTA the berries of which are used in dyeing.

NIRVANA.—See MUKTI.

NIKAH.—Muslim legal marriage.

NISHAN.—Sign, Sacred Symbol carried in a procession.

NIZAM.—The title of the ruler of Hyderabad, the one Mohammedan Prince superior to Nawab.

NIZAMAT.—A sub-division of a Native State, corresponding to a British District, chiefly in the Punjab and Bhopal.

NON-AGRICULTURAL ASSESSMENT.—Enhanced assessment imposed when land already assessed as agricultural is diverted to use as a building site or for industrial concerns.

NON-COGNIZABLE.—An offence for which the culprit cannot be arrested by the police without a warrant.

NONO (Thibetan).—The ruler of Spitta.

NON-OCCUPANCY TENANTS.—A class of tenant, with few statutory rights, except in Oudh, beyond the terms in their leases or agreements.

NON-REGULATION.—A term formerly applied to certain Provinces to show that the regulations or full code of legislation was not in force in them.

NULLAH, NALA.—A ravine, watercourse, or drain.

OCCUPANCY TENANTS.—A class of tenants with special rights in Central Provinces, in United Provinces.

PADAUK.—A well-known Burmese tree (PTEROCARPUS sp.) from the behaviour of which the arrival of the monsoon is prognosticated.

PADDY.—Unhusked rice.

PAGA.—(Persian Paigah) troop of horses among the Marathas.

PAGI.—A tracker of thieves of strayed or stolen animals.

PAHAR.—A mountain.

PAIGAH.—A tenure in Hyderabad State. (Lit. Jagir for maintaining "Paigah," *i.e.*, mounted troops.)

PAIK.—(1) A foot soldier; (2) in Assam formerly applied to every free male above sixteen years.

PAILI.—A grain measure.

PAILWAN, PAHLWAN.—Professional Wrestler.

PAIREE.—The name of the second best variety of Bombay mango, distinguishable from the APHUS (*q. v.*) by its pointed tip, and by the colour being less yellow and more green and red.

PAKKA, PUCCA.—Ripe, mature, complete.

PALAS.—See DHAK.

PALKI.—A palanquin or litter.

PAN.—The betel vine, PIPE BETEL.

PANCHAMA.—Low caste, Southern India.

PANCHAYAT.—(1) A committee for management of the affairs of a caste, village, or town; (2) arbitrators. Theoretically the panchayat has five (panch) members.

PANDA.—A Hindu priest, especially at holy places.

PANDIT.—A Hindu title, strictly speaking applied to a person versed in the Hindu scriptures, but commonly used by Brahmans. In Assam applied to a grade of Inspectors of primary schools.

PANSUPARI.—Distribution of PAN and SUPARI (*q. v.*) as a form of ceremonial hospitality.

PAPAIYA.—Fruit-tree or its fruit Pawpaw. *Carica Papaiya.*

PARAB.—A public place for the distribution of water, maintained by charity.

PARABADI.—A platform with a smaller platform like a dovecot on a centre pole or pillar built and endowed or maintained by charity, where grain is put every day for animals and birds.

PARDA, purdah.—(1) A veil or curtain; (2) the practice of keeping women secluded; syn. gosha.

PARDANASHIN.—Women who observe purdah.

PARDESI.—Foreign. Used in Bombay especially of Hindu servants, syces, &c., from Northern India.

PARGANA.—Fiscal area or petty sub-division of a tahsil in Northern India.

PASHM.—The fine wool of the Tibetan goat, Hence Pashmina cloth.

PASHTO, PUSHTO.—Language of the Pathans.

PASO.—A waistcloth.

PAT, put.—A stretch of firm, hard clay. Desert.

PATEL.—A village headman, Central and Western India; syn. reddi, Southern India, gaonbura, Assam; padhan Northern and Eastern India Mukhi, Guzarat. (Patil in Maharashtra.)

PATIDAR.—A co-sharer in a village, Gujarat.

PATTAWALLA.—See CHAPRASI.

PATWARI.—A village accountant; syn. karnam, Madras; kulkarni, Bombay Deccan; talati, Gujarat; shanbhog, Mysore, Kanara and Coorg; mandal, Assam; tapedar, Sind.

PEON.—See CHAPRASI.

PESHKAR.—One who brings forward, submits papers, etc., personal clerk.

PESHKASH.—A tribute or offering to a superior.

PILAO (pulav).—A dish of rice and other ingredients, and by Anglo-Indians specifically used of chicken with rice and spices.

PHULKARI.—An embroidered sheet; lit. flower-work.

PICE, paisa.—A copper or bronze coin worth one farthing; also used as a generic term for money.

PICOTTAH.—A lever for raising water in a bucket for irrigation, Southern India; syn. dhenkul or dhenkuli, or dhikli, Northern India.

PIPAL.—Sacred fig-tree. *Ficus Religiosa.*

PIR.—A Mahomedan religious teacher or saint.

PLEADER.—A class of legal practitioner.

PONGYI.—A Buddhist monk or priest, Burma.

POSTIN, Postcen.—A coat or rug of sheepskin tanned with the wool on, Afghanistan.

PRABHAT PHERI.—Lit. "Morning round," of parties going round early in the morning singing political songs.

PRANT.—An administrative sub-division in Maratha States, corresponding to a British District (Baroda) or Division (Gwalior); also in Kathiawar.

PRANT OR PRANT SAHEB.—Sub-Divisional Officer (in Bombay Presidency).

PRESIDENCY.—A former Division of British India.

PRINCE.—Term used in English courtesy for "Shahzada," but specially conferred in the case of "Prince of Arcot" (called also "Armin i-Arcot").

PROTECTED.—Forests over which a considerable degree of supervision is exercised, but less than in the case of 'reserved' forests.

PROVINCE.—One of the large Divisions of British India.

PUJA.—Worship, Hindu.

PUJARI.—The priest attached to a temple.

PUNDIT.—See Pandit.

PURANA.—Lit. 'old' Sanskrit (1) applied to certain Hindu religious books, (2) to a geological 'group'; (3) also to 'punch-marked' coins.

PURNA SWARAJ.—Complete independence.

PUROHIT—A domestic chaplain or spiritual guide, Hindu.

PWE.—An entertainment, Burma.

PYALIS—Bands of revellers who accompany the Muharram processions.

QILLA.—A Fort.

RABI.—Any crop sown after the main South-West monsoon.

RAG, RAGINI.—Mode in Indian music.

RAGI (*Eleusine corocana*).—A small millet used as a food-grain in Western and Southern India; syn. marua, Nagli Nachni.

RAIL-GARI.—Railway train.

RAIYAT OR RYOT.—Farmer.

RAJA.—A Hindu Prince of exalted rank, but inferior to "Maharaja". The feminine is *Rani* (Princess or Queen), and it has the variations *Raj, Rana, Rao, Rai, Rawal, Rawat, Raikwar, Raikbar* and *Raikat*. The form *Rai* is common in Bengal, *Rao* in S. & W. India.

RAJ KUMAR—Son of a Raja.

RAJ RAJESHWAR.—King of Kings.

RAMOSHI.—A caste whose work is to watch and ward in the village lands and hence used for any chaukidar (*q. v.*) Actually a criminal tribe in Maharashtra.

RANA.—A title borne by some Rajput chiefs, equivalent to that of Raja.

RANI.—The wife or widow of a Raja.

RANN OR RUNN.—Flat land flooded in the monsoon and incrusted with salt when dry, *e.g.*, the Rann of Cutch.

RANZA.—Mausoleum, shrine.

RAO.—A title borne by Hindus, either equivalent to, or ranking below, that of Raja.

REGAR.—Name for a black soil in Central and Southern India, which is very retentive of moisture, and suitable for growing cotton.

REGULATION.—A term formerly applied to certain provinces to show that the Regulations or full code of legislation applied to them.

REH.—Saline or alkaline efflorescences on the surface of the soil, Northern India.

RESERVED.—Forests intended to be maintained permanently.

RICKSHAW.—A one or two seat vehicle on two wheels drawn by coolies, used in the hills.

RISALDAR.—Commander of a troop of horses.

ROHI, ROZ.—Nilgai.

ROHU.—A kind of fish, LABEO ROHITA.

ROTI.—Bread.

ROZA.—Muslim fast during Ramazan. Also Mausoleum (corruption of "rauza.")

RYOTWARI.—The system of tenure in which land revenue is imposed on the actual occupants of holdings.

SABHA.—Assembly, Meeting, Council, Congress.

SADHU.—A Hindu ascetic.

SADR, sudder.—Chief (adjective). Hence the headquarters of a District; formerly applied to the Appellate Courts.

SAFA JANG—A long-handled battleaxe carried by Jat Sikhs.

SAFFLOWER.—A thistle which yields a yellow dye from its petals and oil from its seeds (CARTHAMUS TINCTORIUS), ver. kardai, kushanti.

SAHEB.—The native Hindu term used to or of a European ("Mr. Smith" would be mentioned as "Smith Saheb," and his wife "Smith Mem-Saheb," but in addressing it would be "Saheb," fem. "Saheba," without the name); occasionally appended to a title in the same way as "Bahadur," but inferior (=master.)

SAHIBZADA.—Son of a person of consequence.

SAID, SAYID, SAIYID, SIDI, SYED, SYUD.—Various forms for a title adopted by those who claim direct male descent from Mohammed's grandson Husain.

SAL.—A useful timber tree in Northern India, SHOREA ROBUSTA.

SAMBAR.—A deer, CERVUS UNICOLOR; syn. sarau.

SAMITI.—Association, Union, Assembly.

SAN.—Bombay hemp, CROTALARIA JUNCEA.

SANAD—(1) A charter or grant, giving its name to a class of States in Central India held under a sanad, (2) any kind of deed of grants.

SANGATHAN.—Literally tying together. A movement which aims at unity and the knowledge of the art of self-defence among Hindus. A movement to unify the Hindu Community against non-Hindu aggression. The Hindu counterpart of the Musalman "Tanzim" q. v.

SANGRAM SAMITI.—War Council in the present Civil Disobedience movement.

SANNYASI.—A Hindu mendicant.

SARI.—A long piece of cloth worn by women.

SARANJAM.—Land held revenue free or on a reduced quit-rent in consideration of political services rendered by the holder's ancestors originally feudal tenure land for maintaining troops.

SARDAR (corrupted to SIRDAR).—A leading Government official, either civil or military. Even a Grand Vizier. Nearly all the Punjab Barons bear this title. It and "Diwan" are like in value and used by both Hindus and Mohammedans. But Mohammedans only are "Wali," "Sultan," "Amir," "Mir," "Mirza," "Mian," and "Khan."

SARKAR.—(1) The Government; (2) a tract of territory under Muhammadan rule, corresponding roughly to a Division under British administration.

SARSUBAH.—An officer in charge of a Division of the Baroda State corresponding to Commissioner of British territories.

SATI.—Suicide by a widow, especially on the funeral pyre of her husband.

SAHUKAR, SAUKAR, SOWKAR.—Banker, dealer in money, exchange, etc.; money lender.

SATYAGRAHA.—(lit. Insistence on truth), passive resistance.

SATYAGRAHI—A passive resister, one who will follow the truth wherever it may lead.

SATTA.—Speculation.

SAUDAGAR.—Merchant.

SAWAI.—A Hindu title implying a slight distinction (lit. one-fourth better than others).

SAWBWA.—A title borne by chiefs in the Shan States, Burma.

SEMAL or cotton tree.—A large forest tree with crimson flowers and pods containing a quantity of floss, BOMBAX MALABARICUM.

SEROW, sarau.—A goat antelope, NEMORHEDUS BUBALINUS.

SETH, SHETH.—Merchant, banker.

SETTLEMENT.—(1) The preparation of a cadastral record and the fixing of the Government revenue from land; (2) the local inquiry to be before Forest Reserves are created; (3) the financial arrangement between the Government of India and Local Governments.

SHAHID.—A Musalman martyr.

SHAHZADA.—Son of a King.

SHAIKH or SHEIKH (Arabic)—A chief.

SHAMS-UL-ULAMA.—A Mohammedan title meaning "learned."

SHAMSHER-JANG.—"Sword of Battle" (a title of the Maharaja of Travancore.)

SHANBHOG.—See PATWARI.

SHASTRAS.—The religious law-books of the Hindus.

SHEGADI, seggaree, Shigri.—A pan on 3 feet with live charcoal in it.

SHER.—Tiger.

SHER, ser, seer—A weight, or measure varying much in size in different parts of the country. The Railway seer is about 2 lbs.

SHETH, shethia.—A Hindu or Jain merchant.

SHIAS.—Musalmans who accept Ali as the lawful Khalif and successor of the prophet and deny the Khalifate of the first three Khalifs.

SHIGHRAM.—See TONGA.

SHISHAM or sissu.—Blackwood. A valuable timber tree. DALBERGIA SISSOO.

SHRADDHA.—Annual Hindu ceremony of propitiating the manes.

SHRUTI.—Literally "heard". Vedas revealed to inspired Rishis.

SHROFF.—Banker.

SHUDDHI.—Literally purification. A movement started in Rajputana and Northern India for the reconversion to Hinduism of those, like the Malakana Rajputs, who, though Mahomedans for some generations, have retained many Hindu practices.

SIDI.—A variation of "Said." Generic name for negroes domiciled in the Bombay Presidency. Also applied by the French to the negroes in their Army.

SILLADAR.—A native trooper who furnishes his own horse and equipment.

SINDHIA.—See under "Gaekwar."

SMRITI.—Unrevealed Laws, as opposed to Shruti, revealed Vedas.

SOLA.—A water-plant with a valuable pith. AESCHYNOMENE ASPERA.

SONI, SONAR.—Goldsmith.

SOWAR.—A mounted soldier or constable.

SOWKAR.—Merchant.

SWADESHI.—Lit. Swa=one's own; deshi=of country. There is actually a shade of difference between the two, the "Swa" emphasising the preference against everything "par," foreign.

SRI OR SHRI.—Lit. fortune, beauty, a Sanskrit term used by Hindus in speaking of a person much respected (never addressed *to* him; nearly="Esquire"); used also of divinities. The two forms of spelling are occasioned by the intermediate sound of the *s* (that of *s* in the German *Stadt*).

SRIJUT, SRIYUT.—Modern Hindu equivalent of "Mr."

STUPA or tope.—A Buddhist tumulus, usually of brick or stone, and more or less hemispherical, containing relics.

SUBAH.—(1) A province under Mahomedan rule; (2) the officer in charge of a large tract in Baroda, corresponding to the Collector of a British District; (3) a group of Districts or Division, Hyderabad.

SUBAHDAR.—(1) The governor of a province under Mahomedan rule; (2) a native infantry officer in the Indian Army; (3) an official in Hyderabad corresponding to the Commissioner in British territory.

SUB-DIVISION.—A portion of a District in charge of a junior officer of the Indian Civil Service or a Deputy Collector.

SULTAN.—A King.

SUNNAT.—Traditional law followed by Sunnis.

SUNNIS.—Musalmans who accept the first four Khalifs as lawful successors of the Prophet.

SUPARI.—The fruit of the betel palm, ARECA CATECHU.

SUPERINTENDENT.—(1) The chief police officer in a District; (2) the official in charge of a hill station; (3) the official, usually of the Indian Medical Service, in charge of a Central Jail.

SURAJ, SURYA.—Sun.

SURTI.—Native of Surat, specially used of persons of the dhed caste who work as house servants of Europeans, and whose house speech is Gujarati. Also called "Lala" or "Lalla."

SWAMI.—A Hindu religious ascetic. Also applied to Shankaracharyas, Mahants of Math, etc.

SYCE, sais.—A groom.

SYED, SYUD.—More variations of "Said."

TABLIGH.—The Mahomedan conversion movement.

TABUT.—See TAZIAH.

TAHSIL.—A revenue sub-division of a District syn. taluka, Bombay; taluka, Madras and Mysore; township, Burma.

TAHSILDAR.—The officer in charge of a tahsil; syn. Mamlatdar, Bombay; township officer, or myo-ok, Burma; Mukhtiarkar, Sind; Vahivatdar, Baroda. His duties are both executive and magisterial.

TAKAVI.—Loans made to agriculturists for seed, bullocks, or agricultural improvements; syn. tagai. Also "Tagavi" (M. "Tagai"). Bombay.

TAKLI.—Small distaff for spinning yarn brought into fashion by Mr. Gandhi.

TAL.—Lake; Musical time.

TALAK.—Mahomedan term for divorce

TALATI.—Village accountant.

TALAV, or talao.—A lake or tank.

TALUK, taluka.—The estate of a talukdar in Oudh, Gujarat and Kathiawar. A revenue sub-division of a District, in Bombay, Madras and Mysore; syn. tashil.

TALUKDAR.—A landholder with peculiar tenures in different parts of India. (1) An official in the Hyderabad State, corresponding to the Magistrate and Collector (First Talukdar) or Deputy Magistrates and Collectors (Second and Third Talukdars); (2) a landholder with a peculiar form of tenure in Gujarat.

TALPUR.—The name of a dynasty in Sind.

TAMAKHU, TAMBAKU.—Tobacco.

TAMASHA.—Entertainment, gala. In sarcastic sense, exhibition.

TAMBU.—Tent in the Bombay Presidency.

TAMTAM, tumtum.—A North Indian name for light trap or cart.

TANK.—In Southern, Western, and Central India, a lake formed by damming up a valley, in Northern India, an excavation holding water

TANZIM.—Literally "organization." A movement among the Mahomedans which aims at securing better education and a closer approach to unity among Mahomedans in India.

TAPEDAR.—See PATWARI.

TARAI.—A moist swampy tract; the term especially applied to the tract along the foot of the Himalayas.

TARI, toddy—The sap of the date, palmyra, or cocoanut palm, used as a drink, either fresh or after fermentation. In Northern India the juice of the date is called Sendhi.

TASAR, tussore.—Wild silkworms, ANTHERAEA PAPHIA; also applied to the cloth made from their silk.

TATTI.—Brush woodfence or hurdle.

TAZIA.—Lath and paper models of the tombs of Hasan and Husain, carried in procession at the Muharram festival; syn. tabut, Marathi, dola.

TEAK.—A valuable timber tree in Southern and Western India and Burma, TECTONA GRANDIS.

TELEGRAPHIC TRANSFERS.—See Council bills.

THAGI, thuggee.—Robbery after strangulation of the victim.

THAKUR.—(1) The modern equivalent of the caste name Kshattriya in some parts of Northern India; (2) a title of respect applied to Brahmans; (3) a petty chief; (4) a hill tribe in the Western Ghats.

THAMIN.—The brow-antlered deer, Burma CERVUS ELDI.

THANA.—Military or Police-Station hence the circle attached to it.

TID or TIR.—Locust.

TIKA.—(1) Ceremonial anointing on the forehead; (2) vaccination.

TIKA SAHEB.—Heir-apparent in several North Indian States.

TIKAM.—The English pickaxe (of which "pikass" is the common corruption. "Tikam" is derived in dictionaries from Tikshna=Sharp).

TIL.—An oilseed, SESAMUM INDICUM; also known as gingelly in Madras.

TILAK.—(Short a) the caste mark on the forehead among Hindus.

TINDAL, tandel.—A foreman, subordinate officer of a ship.

TIPAI, Teapoy.—A table with 3 legs, and hence used of any small European style table.

TITAR.—Partridge.

TOLA.—A weight equivalent to 180 grains (troy).

TONGA.—A one or two horsed vehicle with a covered top; syn. SHIGHRAM.

TOTE.—The word invariably used by South Indian planters to describe their estates. It is derived from the Kanarese *thota* and similar words in Tamil and Malayalam meaning an estate.

TSINE.—Wild cattle found in Burma and to te southward, BOS SONDAICUS · syn. hsaing hnd banteng.

TUMANDAR.—A Persian word denoting some Office.

ULEMA, (Plural of Alim).—Mahomedan learned men.

UMARA.—Term implying the Nobles collectively. Plural of "Amir."

UMBAR.—A wild fig—(FICUS GLOMERATA).

UMEDWAR.—A hopeful person; one who works, without pay in the hope of gaining a situation; candidate.

UNIT.—A term in famine administration denoting one person relieved for one day.

URDU.—Hindustani language as spoken and written by Musalmans opposed to Hindi, spoken and written by Hindus.

URIAL.—A wild sheep in North-Western India, OVIS VIGNEI.

URID, UDID.—A pulse, 'black grain' (PHASEOLUS MUNGO).

URUS.—Mahomedan fete held in connexion with celebration at the tomb of a saint.

USAR.—Soil made barren by saline efflorescence, Northern India.

USTAD.—Master teacher, one skilled in any art or science.

UTHAMNA.—Among Hindus, consolation visit paid on second or third day after the death of a person. Among Parsis, a religious ceremony held on the third day after the death of a person.

VAHIVATDAR.—Officer in charge of a revenue sub-division, with both executive and magisterial functions, Baroda; syn. tahsildar.

VAID or Baidya (Is also a caste in Bengal).—A native doctor practising the Hindu system of medicine.

VAKIL.—(1) A class of legal practitioners; (2) an agent generally.

VEDA.—Revealed sacred books of Hindus.

VEDANTA.—The philosophy of the Upanishads.

VIHARA.—A Buddhist monastery.

VILLAGE.—Usually applied to a certain area demarcated by survey, corresponding roughly to the English parish.

VILLAGE UNION.—An area in which local affaire are administered by a small committee.

WAAZ.—Mahomedan sermon.

WADA or WADI.—(1) An enclosure with houses built round facing a centre yard; (2) private closed land near a village.

WAKF.—A Muhammadan religious or charitable endowment.

WALI.—Like "Sardar." The Governor of Khelat is so termed, whilst the Chiefs of Kabul are both "Wali" and "Mir."

WAO.—A step well.

WATAN.—A word of many senses. In Bombay Presidency used mostly of the land or cash allowance enjoyed by the person who performs some service useful for Government or to the village community.

WAZIR.—The chief minister at a Mahomedan court.

WET RATE.—The rate of revenue for land assured of irrigation.

WRITER.—South Indian equivalent of *babu*.

YAMA.—Hindu god of death.

YOGA.—A system of Hindu philosophy. Practice of breath control, etc., said to give supernatural powers.

YOGI.—A Hindu ascetic who follows the Yoga system, a cardinal part of which is that it confers complete control over bodily functions.

YUNANI.—Lit. Greek; the system of medicine practised by Mahomedans.

ZABARDAST.—Lit. "Upper hand," hence strong, oppressive.

ZABARDASTI.—Oppression.

ZAMINDAR.—A landholder.

ZAMINDARI.—(1) An estate; (2) the rights of a landholder, zamindar; (3) the system of tenure in which land revenue is imposed on an individual or community occupying the position of a landlord.

ZANANA.—Of women. Women's apartment, harem.

ZIARAT.—Pilgrimage. Ziarat-gah, any shrine or tomb to which people go in pilgrimage.

ZIKR.—Commemorative prayer said at the tomb of the prophet or a Mahomedan saint.

ZILA.—A District.

ZOR-TALABI.—Tribute paid to Junagadh Darbar by numerous Kathiawar States.

ZULM, ZULUM.—Tyranny, Oppression.

Manners and Customs.

Next to the complexion of the people, which varies from fair to black, the tourist's attention in India is drawn by their dress and personal decoration. In its simplest form a Hindu's dress consists of a piece of cloth round the loins. Many an ascetic, who regards dress as a luxury, wears nothing more, and he would dispense with even so much if the police allowed him to. The Mahomedan always covers his legs, generally with trousers, sometimes with a piece of cloth tied round the waist and reaching to the ankles. Hill men and women, who at one time wore a few leaves before and behind and were totally innocent of clothing, do not appear to-day within the precincts of civilisation and will not meet the tourist's eye. Children, either absolutely nude or with a piece of metal hanging from the waist in front, may be seen in the streets in the most advanced cities, and in the homes of the rich. The child Krishna, with all the jewels on his person, is nude in his pictures and images.

Dress.—The next stage in the evolution of the Hindu dress brings the loincloth nearly down to the feet. On the Malabar coast, as in Burma, the ends are left loose in front. In the greater part of India, they are tucked up behind—a fashion which is supposed to befit the warrior, or one end is gathered up in folds before and the other tucked up behind. The simplest dress for the trunk is a scarf thrown over the left shoulder, or round both the shoulders like a Roman toga. Under this garment is often worn a coat or a shirt. When an Indian appears in his full indigenous dress, he wears a long robe, reaching at least down to the calves: the sleeves may be wide, or long and sometimes puckered from the wrist to the elbow. Before Europeans introduced buttons, a coat was fastened by ribbons, and the fashion is not obsolete. The Mahomedan prefers to button his coat to the left, the Hindu to the right. A shawl is tied round the waist over the long coat, and serves as a belt, in which one may carry money or a weapon, if allowed. The greatest variety is shown in the headdress. More than seventy shapes of caps, hats, and turbans, may be seen in the city of Bombay. In the Punjab and the United Provinces, in Bengal, in Burma and in Madras other varieties prevail. Cones and cylinders, domes and truncated pyramids, high and low, with sides at different angles: folded brims, projecting brims: long strips of cloth wound round the head or the cap in all possible ways, ingenuity culminating perhaps in the "parrot's beak" of the Maratha turban—all these fashions have been evolved by different communities and in different places, so that a trained eye can tell from the head-covering whether the wearer is a Hindu, Mahomedan or Parsi, and whether he hails from Poona or Dharwar, Ahmedabad or Bhavnagar.

Fashion Variations.—Fashions often vary with climate and occupation. The Bombay fisherman may wear a short coat and a cap, and may carry a watch in his pocket; yet, as he must work for long hours in water, he would not cover his legs, but suspend only a coloured kerchief from his waist in front. The Pathan of the cold north-west affects loose baggy trousers, a tall head-dress befitting his stature and covers his ears with its folds as if to keep off cold. The poorer people in Bengal and Madras do not cover their heads, except when they work in the sun or must appear respectable. Many well-to-do Indians wear European dress at the present day, or a compromise between the Indian and European costumes; notably the Indian Christians and Parsis. Most Parsis however have retained their own headdress, and many have not borrowed the European collar and cuffs. The majority of the people do not use shoes: those who can afford them wear sandals, slippers and shoes, and a few cover their feet with stockings and boots after the European fashion in public.

Women's Costumes.—The usual dress of a woman consists of a long piece of cloth tied round the waist, with folds in front, and one end brought over the shoulder or the head. The folds are sometimes drawn in and tucked up behind. In the greater part of India women wear a bodice: on the Malabar coast many do not, but merely throw a piece of cloth over the breast. In some communities petticoats, or drawers, or both are worn. Many Mussalman ladies wear gowns and scarfs over them. The vast majority of Mahomedan women are *gosha* and their dress and persons are hidden by a veil when they appear in public: a few converts from Hinduism have not borrowed the custom. In Northern India Hindu women have generally adopted the Mussalman practice of seclusion. In the Dekhan and in Southern India they have not.

As a rule the hair is daily oiled, combed, parted in the middle of the head, plaited and rolled into a chignon, by most women. Among high caste Hindu widows sometimes shave their heads in imitation of certain ascetics, or monks and nuns. Hindu men do not, as a rule, completely shave their heads, Mahomedans in most cases do. The former generally remove the hair from a part of the head in front, over the temples, and near the neck, and grow it in the centre, the quantity grown depending upon the fancy of the individual. Nowadays many keep the hair cropped in the European fashion, which is also followed by Parsis and Indian Christians. Most Mussalmans grow beards, most Hindus do not, except in Bengal and elsewhere where the Mahomedan influence was paramount in the past. Parsis and Christians follow their individual inclinations. Hindu ascetics, known as Sadhus or Bairagis as distinguished from Sanyasis, do not clip their hair, and generally coil the uncombed hair of the head into a crest, in imitation of the god Shiva.

Hindu women wear more ornaments than others of the corresponding grade in society. Ornaments bedeck the head, the ears, the nose, the neck, the arms, wrists, fingers, the waist

until motherhood is attained, and by some even later—and the toes. Children wear anklets. Each community affects its peculiar ornaments, though imitation is not uncommon. Serpents with several heads, and flowers, like the lotus, the rose, and the champaka, are among the most popular object of representation is gold or silver.

Caste Marks.—Caste marks constitute a mode of personal decoration peculiar to Hindus, especially of the higher castes. The simplest mark is a round spot on the forehead. It represents prosperity or joy, and is omitted in mourning and on fast-days. It may be red, or yellowish as when it is made with ground sandalwood paste. The worshippers of Vishnu draw a vertical line across the spot, and as Lakshmi is the goddess of prosperity, it is said to represent her. A more elaborate mark on the forehead has the shape of U or V, generally with the central line, sometimes without it, and represents Vishnu's foot. The worshippers of Shiva adopt horizontal lines, made with sandalwood paste or ashes. Some Vaishnavas stamp their temples, near the corners of the eyes, with figures of Vishnu's conch and disc. Other parts of the body are also similarly marked. The material used is a kind of yellowish clay. To smear the arms and the chest with sandalwood paste is a favourite kind of toilet, especially in the hot season. Beads of Tulsi or sacred Basil, and berries of Rudraksha *elæocarpus ganitrus*, strung together are worn round their necks by Vaishnavas and Shaivas, respectively. The Lingayats, a Shaiva sect, suspend from their necks a metallic casket containing the Linga or phallus of their god. Bairagis, ascetics, besides wearing Rudraksha rosaries round their necks and matted hair, smear their bodies with ashes. Religious mendicants suspend from their necks figures of the gods in whose name they beg. Strings of cowries may also be seen round their necks. Muslim dervishes sometimes carry peacock's feathers.

Hindu women mark their foreheads with a red spot or horizontal line. High caste widows are forbidden to exhibit this sign of happiness, as also to deck themselves with flowers or ornaments. Flowers are worn in the chignon. Hindu women smear their faces, arms, and feet sometimes with a paste of turmeric, so that they may shine like gold. The choice of the same colour for different purposes cannot always be explained in the same way. The red liquid with which the evil eye is averted may be a substitute for the blood of the animal slaughtered for the purpose in former times. In many other cases this colour has no such associations. The Muslim dervish affects green, the Sikh Akali is fond of blue, the Sanyasi adopts orange for his robe, and no reason can be assigned with any degree of certainty.

Shiva.—India is a land of temples, mosques and shrines, and the Hindu finds at every turn some supernatural power to be appeased. Shiva has the largest number of worshippers. He has three eyes, one in his forehead, a moon's crescent in his matted hair, and at the top of the coil a woman's face representing the river Ganges. His abode is the Mount Kailas in the Himalayas, from which the river takes its source. Round his neck and about his ears and limbs are serpents, and he also wears a necklace of skulls. In his hands are several weapons, especially a trident, a bow, and a thunderbolt, and also a drum which he sounds while dancing for he is very fond of this exercise. He sits on a tiger's skin, and his vehicle is a white bull. His wife Parvati and his son Ganesha sit on his thighs. An esoteric meaning is attached to every part of his physical personality. The three eyes denote an insight into the past, present and future: the moon, the serpents, and the skulls denote months, years and cycles, for Shiva is a personification of time, the great destroyer. He is also worshipped as a Linga or phallus which represents creative energy.

Ganpati.—Ganesh or Ganpati, the controller of all powers of evil subject to Shiva, is worshipped by all sects throughout India. Every undertaking is begun with a prayer to him. He has the head of an elephant, a large abdomen, serpents about his waist and wrists, several weapons in his hands, and a piece of his tusk in one hand. He is said to have broken it off when he wanted to attack the moon for ridiculing him. The different parts of his body are also esoterically explained. His vehicle is a rat.

Parvati.—Parvati, the female energy of Shiva, is worshipped under various names and forms. She is at the head of all female supernatural powers, many of whom are her own manifestations. Some are benign and beautiful, others terrible and ugly. Kali, the tutelary deity of Kalighat or Calcutta, is one of her fierce manifestations. In this form she is black: a tongue smeared with blood projects from her gaping mouth: besides her weapons, she carries corpses in her hands, and round her neck are skulls. Bombay also takes its name from a goddess, Mumbadevi. Gouri, to whom offerings are made in Indian homes at an annual festival, is benign. On the other hand the epidemic diseases like the plague and small-pox are caused by certain goddesses or "mothers."

Vishnu, the second member of the Hindu trinity, is the most popular deity next to Shiva. He is worshipped through his several incarnations as well as his original personality. His home is the ocean of milk, where he reclines on the coils of a huge, many-headed serpent. At his feet sits Lakshmi, shampooing his legs. From his navel issues a lotus, on which is seated Brahma, the third member of the trinity. In his hands are the conch, which he blows on the battlefield, and the disc, with which the heads of his enemies are severed. Round his neck are garlands of leaves and flowers, and on his breast are shining jewels. As Shiva represents destruction, Vishnu represents protection, and his son is the god of love. To carry on the work of protection, he incarnates himself from time to time, and more temples are dedicated nowadays to his most popular incarnations, Rama and Krishna, than to his original personality. Rama is a human figure, with a bow in one of his hands. He is always accompanied by his wife Sita, often by his brother Lakshmana, and at his feet, or standing before him with joined hands, is Hanuman, the monkey

chieftain, who assisted him in his expedition against Ravana, the abductor of his wife. Krishna is also a human figure, generally represented as playing on a flute, with which he charmed the damsels of his city, esoterically explained to mean his devotees.

Brahma is seldom worshipped: only a couple of temples dedicated to him have yet been discovered in all India.

Minor Deities.—The minor gods and goddesses and the deified heroes and heroines who fill the Hindu pantheon, and to whom shrines are erected and worship is offered, constitute a legion. Many of them enjoy a local reputation, are unknown to sacred literature, and are worshipped chiefly by the lower classes. Some of them, though not mentioned in ancient literature, are celebrated in the works of modern saints.

The **Jains** in their temples, adore the sacred personages who founded and developed their sect, and venerate some of the deities common to Hinduism. But their view of Divinity is different from the Hindu conception, and in the opinion of Hindu theologians they are atheists. So also the **Buddhists** of Burma pay almost the same veneration to Prince Siddhartha as if he was a god, and indeed elevate him above the Hindu gods, but from the Hindu standpoint they are also atheists.

Images.—Besides invisible powers and deified persons, the Hindus venerate certain animals, trees and inanimate objects. This veneration must have originated in gratitude, fear, wonder, and belief in spirits as the cause of all good or harm. Some of the animals are vehicles of certain gods and goddesses—the eagle of Vishnu: the swan of Brahma: the peacock of Saraswati: Hanuman, the monkey of Rama: one serpent upholds the earth, another makes Vishnu's bed: elephants support the ends of the universe, besides one such animal being Indra's vehicle: the goddess Durga or Kali rides on a tiger: one of Vishnu's incarnations was partly man and partly lion. The cow is a useful animal: to the Brahman vegetarian her milk is indispensable, and he treats her as his mother. So did the Rishi of old, who often subsisted on milk and fruits and roots. To the agriculturist cattle are indispensable. The snake excites fear. Stones, on which the image of a serpent is carved, may be seen under many trees by the roadside. The principal trees and plants worshipped are the Sacred Fig or Pipal, the Banyan, the Sacred Basil, the Bilva or Wood Apple, the Asoka, and the Acacia. They are in one way or another associated with some deity. The sun, the moon, and certain planets are among the heavenly bodies venerated. The ocean and certain great rivers are held sacred. Certain mountains, perhaps because they are the abodes of gods and Rishis, are holy. Pebbles from the Gandaki and the Narmada, which have curious lines upon them, are worshipped in many households and temples.

Worship.—Without going into a temple, one can get a fair idea of image worship by seeing how a serpent-stone is treated under a tree. It is washed, smeared with sandal, decorated with flowers: food in a vessel is placed before it, lamps are waved, and the worshipper goes round it, and bows down his head, or prostrates himself before the image. In a temple larger bells are used than the small ones that are brought to such a place: jewels are placed on the idol: and the offerings are on a larger scale. Idols are carried in public procession in palanquins or cars. The lower classes sacrifice animals before their gods and goddesses.

Domestic Life.—Of the daily domestic life of the people a tourist cannot see much. He may see a marriage or funeral procession. In the former he may notice how a bridegroom or bride is decorated: the latter may shock him for a Hindu dead body is generally carried on a few pieces of bamboo lashed together: a thin cloth is thrown over it and the body is tied to the frame. The Mahomedan bier is more decent, and resembles the Christian coffin. Some Hindus, however, carry the dead to the burial ground in a palanquin with great pomp. The higher castes cremate the dead: others bury them. Burial is also the custom of the Muslims, and the Parsis expose the dead in Towers of Silence.

Indian Names.

The personal name of most Hindus denotes a material object, colour, or quality, an animal, a relationship, or a deity. The uneducated man, who cannot correctly pronounce long Sanskrit words, is content to call his child, father, brother, uncle, or mother, or sister, as the case may be. This practice survives among the higher classes as well. Appa Saheb, Anna Rao, Babaji, Bapu Lal, Bhai Shankar, Tatacharya, Jijibhai, are names of this description, with honorific titles added. It is possible that in early society the belief in the re-birth of departed kinsmen lent popularity to this practice. Nothing could be more natural than to call a man white, black, or red: gold or silver: gem, diamond, suby, pearl, or merely a stone: small or tall, weak or strong: a lion, a snake, a parrot, or a dog: and to name a woman after a flower or a creeper. Thus, to take a few names from the epics, Pandu means white, and so does Arjuna: Krishna black: Bhima terrible: Nakula a mongoose: Shunaka a dog: Shuka a parrot: Shringa a horn. Among the names prevalent at the present day Hira is a diamond: Ratna or Ratan a jewel: Sonu or Chinna gold: Velli or Belli, in the Dravidian languages, means white metal or silver. Men are often called after the days of the week on which they were born, and hence they bear the names of the seven heavenly bodies concerned. When they begin to assume the names of the Hindu deities, they practically

enter upon a new stage of civilisation. It is doubtful whether the Animists ever venture to assume the names of the dreaded spirits worshipped by them. To pronounce the name of a devil is to invite him to do harm. If the spirits sometimes bear the names of human beings, the reason seems to be that they were originally human.

High-caste practices.—The high caste Hindu, on the other hand, believes that the more often the name of a deity is on his lips, the more merit he earns. Therefore he deliberately names his children after his gods and goddesses, so that he may have the opportunity of pronouncing the holy names as frequently as possible. These are also sonorous and picturesque. Shiva is happy: Vishnu is a pervader: Govinda is the cowherd Krishna: Keshava has fine hair: Rama is a delighter: Lakshmana is lucky: Narayana produced the first living being on the primeval waters: Ganesha is the Lord of Shiva's hosts: Dinakara is the luminary that makes the day: Subrahmanya is a brother of Ganesha. Sita is a furrow: Savitri a ray of light: Tara a star: Radha prosperity: Rukmini is she of golden ornaments: Bhama of the glowing heart. Shiva and Vishnu has each got at least a thousand names, and they may be freely drawn upon and paraphrased in naming one's children; and the whole Hindu pantheon is as crowded as it is large. When a mother loses several children, she begins to suspect that some evil spirit has conspired against her and in order to make her off-spring unattractive to the powers of darkness, she gives them ugly names, such as Keru, rubbish, or Ukirda, dunghill, or Martoba, the mortal. Women are named after rivers, as Sarasvati, Ganga, Bhagirathi, Godavari, or Kaveri, just as men are sometimes called after mountains. Manu counsels young men not to choose a wife with such a name, perhaps because a river is an emblem of deviousness and inconstancy, as a hill is an emblem of stability. But the names of rivers have not been discarded. The Burmans have a curious custom: if a child is born on a Monday, its name must begin with a guttural, on Tuesday with a palatal, on Thursday with a labial, on Saturday with a dental.

Family names.—When a person rises in importance, he adds to his personal name a family or caste name. It was once the rule that the title Sharma might be added to a Brahman's name, Varma to a Kshatriya's, Gupta to a Vaishyas, and Dasa to a Shudra's. This rule is fairly well observed in the case of the first two titles, but the meaning of the other two has changed. Dasa means a slave or servant, and the proudest Brahman cannot disdain to call himself the servant of some god. Thus, although Kalidas, the famous poet, was a Shudra, Ramadas, the famous guru of Shivaji, was a Brahmin. The Vaishnavas have made this fashion of calling oneself a servant of some god exceedingly popular, and in Western India high caste Hindus of this sect very commonly add Das to their names. The Brahmans of Southern India add Aiyer or Aiyangar to their names. Shastri, Acharya, Bhat, Bhattacharya, Upadhyaya, Mukhopadhyaya, changed in Bengal into Mukerji, are among the titles indicative of the Brahmanical profession of studying and teaching the sacred books. Among warlike classes, like the Rajputs and Sikhs, the title Singh (lion) has become more popular than the ancient Varma. The Sindhi Mal, as in Gidumal, means brave and has the same force. Raja changed into Raya, Rao and Rai was a political title, and is not confined to any caste. The Bengali family names, like Bose and Ghose, Dutt and Mitra, Sen and Guha, enable one to identify the caste of their bearers, because the caste of a family or clan cannot be changed. Shet, chief of a guild or a town, becomes Chetty, a Vaishya title, in Southern India. Mudaliyar and Nayudu, meaning leaders, are titles which were assumed by castes of political importance under native rulers. Nayar and Menon are the titles of important castes in Malabar. Ram, Lal, Nand, Chand, are among the additions made to personal names in Northern India. Suffixes like Ji, as in Ramji or Jamshedji, the Kanarese Appa, the Telugu Garu, the feminine Bai or Devi, are honorific. Prefixes like Babu, Baba, Lala, Sodhi, Pandit, Raja, and the Burmese Maung are also honorific.

Professional names.—Family names sometimes denote a profession: in some cases they might have been conferred by the old rulers. Mehta, Kulkarni, Deshpande, Chitnavis, Mahalnavis are the names of offices held in former times. One family name may mean a flour seller, another a cane-seller, and a third a liquor-seller. To insert the father's name between one's personal and the family name is a common practice in Western India. It is rare elsewhere. When a family comes from a certain place, the suffix 'kar' or 'wallah' is added to the name of the place and it makes a family surname in Western India. Thus we may have Chiplunkars and Suratwallahs, or without these affixes we may have Bhavnagris, Malabaris and Bilimorias, as among Parsis. Thus Vasudev Pandurang, Chiplunkar would be a Hindu, whose personal name is Vasudev, his father's name Pandurang, and family name derived from the village of Chiplun, is Chiplunkar. In Southern India the village name precedes the personal name. The evolution of Musalman names follows the same lines as Hindu names. But Muslims have no god or goddesses, and their names are derived from their religious and secular history. These names and titles are often as long and picturesque as Hindu appellations. The agnomens Baksh, Din, Ghulam, Khwaje, Fakir, Kazi, Munshi, Sheikh, Syed, Begum, Bibi and others, as well as honorific additions like Khan have meanings which throw light on Muslim customs and institutions. The Parsis also have no gods and goddesses, and their personal names are generally borrowed from their sacred and secular history. Their surnames frequently indicate a profession or a place, as in the case of Hindus in Western India. Bathiwallah, Readymoney, Contractor, Saklatwallah, Adenwallah and others like them are tell-tale names.

Indian Art.

In India there has never been so marked a separation between what are now known as the Fine Arts, and those applied to industry as was the case in Europe during the nineteenth century. As, however, Industrial art forms the subject of a special article in this book, the term Indian Art will here be confined to Architecture, Sculpture and Painting.

Historical.—The degree of proficiency attained in art by Indians prior to B. C. 250, can only be conjectured by their advancement in literature; and by the indirect evidences of indebtedness shown by the works of the historic period, to those which preceded them; or direct records of artistic work of an earlier date than B. C. 250 do not exist. The chief historic schools of architecture are as follows:—

Name.	Dates.	Locality of the best Examples.
Buddhist	B.C.250—A.D.750.	Ellora, Ajanta, Kali, Sanchi.
Jaina	A.D.1000—1300.	Ellora, Mount Abu, Palitana.
Brahminical	A.D. 500 to the present day.	Ellora, Elephanta, Orissa, Bhuvaneswar, Dharwar.
Chalukyan	A.D.1000—1200.	Umber, Somnathpur, Ballur.
Dravidian	A.D.1350—1750.	Ellora, Tanjore, Madura, Tinnevelly.
Pathan	A.D.1200—1550.	Delhi, Mandu, Jaunpore.
Indo-Saracenic	A.D.1520—1760.	Lahore, Delhi, Agra, Amber, Bijapur.

Buddhist Architecture is mainly exemplified by the rock-cut temples and monasteries found in Western India and in the *Topes* or sacred mounds. The interior decorations, and external facades of the former, and the rails and gates surrounding the latter point unmistakably to their being derived from wooden structures of an earlier period. The characteristic features of these temples are horse-shoe openings in the facades to admit light, and colonnades of pillars with richly ornamented caps in the interior halls. Jaina Architecture is found in its most highly developed form in the Dilwara temples at Mount Abu. The ground plan consists of a shrine for the god or saint; a porch, and an arcaded courtyard with niches for images. The characteristic of the style is grace and lightness, with decorative carving covering the whole interior, executed with great elaboration and detail. Constructional methods suggest that original types in wood have been copied in marble.

Brahminical, Chalukyan and Dravidian styles differ little in essential plan, all having a shrine for the god, preceded by pillared porches. The outer forms vary. The northern Brahminical temples have a curved pyramidal roof to the shrines, which in the southern or Dravidian style are crowned by a horizontal system of storied towers, and each story, decreasing in size, is ornamental with a central cell and figures in high relief. The Chalukyan style is affected by its northern and southern neighbours, taking features from each without losing its own special characteristics of which the star-shaped plan of the shrine, with the five-fold bands of external ornament, is the principal feature. Pathan Architecture was introduced into India by the Mahomedan invasion of the thirteenth century. At old Delhi are fine examples in the Kutub Mosque and Minar. The characteristics of the style are severity of outline, which is sometimes combined with elaborate decoration due, it is stated, to the employment of Hindu craftsmen. The mosques and tombs at Ahmedabad already show Hindu influence; but purer examples are to be found at Jaunpore and Mandu. Indo-Saracenic Architecture reached the climax of its development during the reigns of the Moghul Emperors. Akbar, Jehangir and Shah Jahan. It eclipsed in richness of material and refinement of taste the building efforts of previous periods, its crowning example being the Taj Mahal at Agra. The buildings erected during the Adil Shahi dynasty at Bijapur at a slightly later date, exhibit a certain Turkish influence, especially in the great tomb of Mahmoud. Though less refined and lacking the attraction of precious materials in their decoration, these splendid edifices are held in higher esteem by some critics than those of the Moghals, on account of their simplicity, grandeur and fine proportions. The era of great civil architecture in India was revived by the Mahomedan powers. Splendid palaces and fortresses were built at Madras, Delhi, Agra, Fattehpore-Sikri and Bijapur, and the example thus set was copied by the Hindu princes at Jaipur, Udaipur and elsewhere in India. The application of great architectural treatment, unequalled in extent elsewhere, is to be seen in the Ghauts or steps enclosing lakes and on the banks of rivers. The most notable constructional contribution of the Mahomedans to Indian architecture was the introduction of the true arch and dome.

Sculpture.—The use of sculpture and painting in isolated works of art was practically non-existent in India until modern times. One or two reliefs and certain gigantic figures may be quoted as exceptions, but taken generally it may be stated that these arts were employed as the decorative adjuncts of architecture. No civil statuary, such as is now understood by the term, was executed; for no contemporary portrait figures, or busts in marble, or bronze, have come down to us from the ruins of ancient India, as they have from those of Egypt, Greece and Rome. Sculpture has been used exclusively as the handmaid of religion, and to this fact may be attributed the stereotyped forms to which it became bound. The lavish use of sculpture on Indian temples often exceeds good taste, and mars the symmetry

and dignity of their mass and outline ; but for exuberance of imagination, industrious elaboration and vivid expression of movement, Indian sculpture is perhaps without its equal elsewhere in the world. The most impressive specimens are the earliest, found in the Buddhist and Brahminical cave temples of Ellora, Ajanta and Elephanta. The great Trimurthi in the last named of these temples ranks for mystery and expressive grandeur with the greatest masterpieces of art. The outstanding characteristics of Hindu sculpture are the power displayed in suggesting movement; the fine sense of decorative arrangements of line and mass ; and an overpowering ingenuity in intricate design. Mahomedan sculpture in India, though not exclusively confined to geometric forms as is that of the more severe Arabian school, is very restrained as compared with that of the Hindus. Floral motifs are often used in the ornaments to tombs and palaces, but rarely in those of mosques. Their geometric ornament shows great ingenuity and invention ; and wonderful decorative use is made of Persian, Arabic and Urdu lettering in panels, and their borders. The representation of human or animal figures is rarely to be met with. Sculptured and modelled relief is, as a rule, kept very low ; and is mainly confined to the decoration of mouldings, architraves, lintels, or the bands of ornament which relieve large exterior wall spaces. Buildings of purely Mahomedan design and workmanship show greater restraint than those upon which Hindu workmen have been employed and are more satisfactory ; but at Ahmedabad the two celebrated windows are striking examples of a happy combination of the two styles and Fattehpore Sikri is a magnificent example of the mixed style of Akbar.

Painting.—Much of the carved stonework upon ancient Indian buildings was as in ancient Greece and then decorated with colour, but the only paintings, in the modern acceptation of the term, now existing, which were executed prior to the Moghul period, are those upon the walls of the cave temples at Ajanta, Bagh, and in Ceylon. These remarkable works were produced at intervals during the first 600 years of the Christian era. They exhibit all the finer characteristic of the best Indian sculpture, but with an added freedom of expression due to the more tractable vehicle employed. The Ajanta Caves remained hidden in the Deccan jungles for nearly twelve hundred years, until accidentally discovered in 1816. They are painted in a species of tempora ; and when first brought to light were well preserved but they have greatly deteriorated owing to the well meant, but misguided action of copyists, and the neglect of the authorities. The Nizam's Government have in recent years done a great deal towards the preservation and study of these mural paintings. The second period of Indian painting owed its origin to the introduction of Persian artists by the Moghul Emperor Akbar; and the establishment of the indigenous Moghul school was due to the encouragement and fostering care of his successors, Jehangir and Shah Jahar. Unlike the works of the Ajanta painters, which were designed upon a large scale, the pictures of the Moghul school were miniatures. They were executed in a species of opaque water-colour upon paper or vellum, resembling to some extent the illuminated missals produced by the monks in Europe during the middle ages. Some of the finest of the earlier specimens in India are of a religious character; this phase of development being closely allied to the art of the caligraphist. As its range extended, a remarkable school of portrait painters arose notable for restrained but extremely accurate drawing, keen insight into character, harmonious colour, fine decorative feeling, and extraordinary delicacy and finish in the painting of detail. The artists of a Hindu off-shoot of this movement, known as the Rajput school, were less fully endowed with the technical and purely aesthetic qualities than were the Moghul painters; but they brought to their work poetry and sentiment which are not to be found in that of the Mahomedans. The pictures of both branches of the Moghul school, although highly decorative in character, were not intended for exhibition upon the walls of rooms, according to Western practice, and, when not used as illustrations or decorations to manuscript books, were preserved in portfolios. It is very significant that up to the best period of Mughal painting, the reign of Jehangir, European ideas in art, pictures, and prints were extensively patronised by the Emperor. This broad eclecticism of the Moghuls is in marked contrast to the opinions of Mr. Havell and his school of critics who have severely criticised the facilities of advanced training in Indian art schools which Bombay in particular has adopted with marked success.

Modern Painting.—As the reign of Shah Jahan exhibits the high tide of artistic development in India, so the reign of his successor Aurangzeb marks the period of its rapid decline. The causes of this are attributable to the absence of encouragement by this Emperor ; to his long periods of absence from the court at Delhi or Agra, entailed by the continuous wars he waged in his efforts to bring the whole of the Peninsula under his rule ; and partly to the fact of the school of Moghul Painting becoming stereotyped in its practice. Foreign designers, painters and craftsmen who had been attracted to India by the great works carried out by Akbar, Jehangir and Shah Jahan left the country, and their places were taken by no successors. The indigenous artists left to themselves in the isolated courts of small Indian princes, or collected in schools in remote districts, employed themselves mainly upon repeating the works of a previous age, instead of seeking new motifs for artistic treatment. At the time when the British East India Company ceased to be only a guild of merchants and became a great administrative power in 1757, very little vitality survived in the ancient art of the country. During the century of its administrative history between the battle of Plassey and the Indian Mutiny, the "Company" was too fully occupied in fighting for its existence, extending its borders and setting the internal economy of its ever increasing territories, to be able to give much attention to conserving any remnant of artistic practice which had survived. Without any deliberate intention of introducing western art into the country, Greek and its derivative style

of architecture were adopted for public and private buildings in Calcutta, Bombay and Madras because these were found to be more suitable for their purpose than buildings of indigenous pattern. The practical result was the same; for the Indian craftsmen employed upon their erection were confronted with styles affording no scope for the application of their traditional ornament and concerning which they had no knowledge or sympathy. As there were no sculptors in India capable of modelling or carving civil sculpture, the monuments to distinguish public servants were all imported from England; and the portraits, or other paintings which decorated the interior walls of the buildings, were furnished by European painters who visited India or by artists in England. Although a considerable amount of research work of a voluntary nature was done by Archæologists, no official interest was taken in artistic education until the Government of India was transferred to the British Crown in 1859. In England itself, the first fifty years of the nineteenth century was a period of gross commercialism and artistic degradation; but with the advent of the International Exhibition of 1851 the eyes of the nation were opened to the value of art as applied to industry.

The **Schools of Art** then instituted throughout England were imitated in a timid and tentative manner in India; and were attached to the educational system, which had been previously modelled upon a definitely European basis. The work of the Schools of Art in regard to industrial art is referred to elsewhere; and as several of them have confined their activities almost exclusively to this branch of the subject it is sufficient to mention only the work of the Schools at Calcutta and Bombay in the present article. The Calcutta school, except for occasional experiments in the application of the graphic arts to lithography, engraving and stained glass, has become a school of painting and drawing. That at Bombay covers a wider field; for in addition to classes for modelling, painting and design it possesses a special school of architecture; and a range of technical workshops, in which instruction is given in the applied arts. It is in the principles underlying the instruction in painting that the schools at Calcutta and Bombay have taken almost diametrically opposite roads to reach the end they both have in view, namely, the revival of the art of painting in India by means of an indigenous school of Indian painters. Mr. Havell, who several years ago was the Principal of the Calcutta School, (he left India in 1907) banished from within its walls every vestige of European art; and claimed that the traditional art of India, in its old forms, is not dead, but merely sleeping or smothered by the blanket of European culture laid upon it for the last 150 years, and needed but to be released from this incubus to regain its pristine vigour. Well equipped with literary ability; backed by intense enthusiasm for the views he held, he imposed upon his students an exclusive and severe study of the Moghul and Rajput schools of painting. He was fortunate in finding a willing and equally enthusiastic friend in Mr. Abindranath Tagore, an artist of imagination and fancy, combined with a serious devotion to his art. He with other Bengal painters, inspired by Mr. Havell's precepts, founded, about thirty years ago, what has since become known as the Calcutta School of painting. In their early work the painters of this school closely adhered to the conventions of Moghul and Rajput artists, whom they took as their models; and these early examples made a great impression upon all European critics who saw them. They were welcomed as the first sign of a genuine revival of Indian painting, based upon traditional lines, and it was confidently hoped that the movement would meet with the support it merited from Indians of all classes. Interesting as many individual works of the school undoubtedly are the anticipations which greeted its inception have scarcely been fulfilled by the Calcutta school. The painters themselves have never reached the high technical standard of the artists who produced the best works of the Moghul or Rajput schools, and, as time has passed, their outlook appears to have shifted, and, while stemming the flood of western influence, they appear to have drifted into a backwater of Japanese conventions. The Indian public has failed to give the school the support it was hoped they would afford and the movement has had to depend for encouragement mainly upon Europeans in England and India.

Bombay School of Art.—The attitude towards the development of art in modern India taken by its successive Principals Messrs. Lockwood Kipling, Griffiths, Greenwood, and Cecil Burns, was on wider lines than that favoured by Mr. Havell. In general the view this School of Art has taken is that with European literature dominating the system under which the educated classes in India are trained and with European ideas, and science permeating the professional commercial, industrial, and political life of the country, it is not possible for modern Indians now to recapture the spirit which alone gave vitality to the great works of the past; that without this spirit, the conventions the ancient artists adopted are mere dead husks: and that to copy these would be as unprofitable as it would be for the artists of Europe to harness themselves to the conventions of the Greek and Roman sculptors or to those of the mediæval painters; that with European pictures, often of inferior quality illustrating every educational text book, and sold in the shops of every large city, it is essential for the proper education of art students that they should have before them the masterpieces of European art; and that, with the wide adoption of European styles of architecture in India, it is necessary for a school of art to possess the best examples of ornament applicable to the great historic styles, for the purpose of study and reference. There are certain basic principles common to the technique of all great art, such as fine and accurate drawing in its widest sense, composition and design, and the science of colour harmony.

Among the developments during Mr. Burns administration were the founding of the Architectural School, the extension of drawing classes in the Government Schools, and the appointment of an Inspector of Drawing to inspect and report on the drawing classes in the schools. A Pottery Department was also started and

was abolished in 1926. Mr. Burns retired in 1918 and was succeeded in 1919 by the present Principal, Mr. W. E. Gladstone Solomon, R.B.C.

The guiding principle with Mr. Solomon has been to teach the students to draw and to paint what they see; and further to encourage by all possible means their natural progress in the decorative direction towards which their inherent instinct most obviously urges them. He has always maintained that theory in regard to the training of Indian Art students is in itself unproductive and can only be proven by practice; and as Mr. Solomon has now held the post of Principal for many years it is possible to gauge the results achieved by his system of training.

The Life Classes which were organised at the end of 1919 have been pronounced by competent judges as well up to the level of the Life Classes of the European Schools of Art. But proficiency in technique forms only one side of the present system of training; for even in Europe, too much of the study from Life is quite capable of negativing its own object. In India, where the decorative instinct is inherent, and where the possibilities of freehand drawing are still understood, the danger of overdoing the Life Class is even more palpable. So side by side with these realistic aids to study, and at the same period, a class of Indian Decorative Painting was inaugurated in the Bombay School of Art under the patronage of the Governor of Bombay (Lord Lloyd). As this class specialises in **Mural Painting** it has long been popularly known as the Class of Mural Painting. This class has executed the decorations for many public and private buildings, and painted the ceiling and panels of a specially constructed Indian Room which was exhibited at Wembley in 1924. A great deal of controversy, which has been characterised by its academic rather than its practical note, has centred round these new movements in art training in India; but the Bombay School of Art has retained the patronage and support of the public and the increase in the number of its students (who now number over 600 in all sections of the School) has been continuous since it took its present line. It is significant that the widespread revival of public interest in Art in Western India has synchronised with these activities.

The School of Art has of late years enjoyed the patronage of successive Governors of Bombay and, largely due to the efforts of Sir Leslie Wilson, the Government of India inaugurated a competition of Indian Artists in 1927 for the decoration of wall spaces in the new buildings at New Delhi. The result of the Competition was notified in October 1928, when five artists of Bombay, and the students of the Bombay and Lahore Schools of Art were commissioned to paint Mural Decorations in the new Secretariat buildings. The Bombay School undertook the decoration of Committee Room "A" (in the North Block) and the paintings, which were executed in oils on canvas, were finished, and successfully placed in position on the dome and walls by the middle of September 1929. These decorations were original compositions of life size figures, symbolising the main periods of Indian Art, and the different branches of the Fine and Applied Arts. In April 1929, the Government of Bombay converted the Bombay School into a Department independent of the Director of Public Instruction, the Principal (Mr. W. E. Gladstone Solomon) being made Director. In October 1930 the latter organised an exhibition of the work of all Departments of this School of Art in India House, London. The Exhibition was very well patronised by the public and extremely well received by the art critics and the Press. Her Majesty the Queen Empress graciously patronised the exhibition and selected several of the paintings displayed.

While the Bombay School was engaged upon the work of mural decoration at New Delhi in 1928-1929, which is referred to above, a public competition for the selection of four Indian artists to proceed to England was announced by the Government of India. The successful candidates were to study for a year at the Royal College of Art, South Kensington; after which they were to be employed on the mural decoration of the interior of India House, Aldwych. The Bombay School was unable to compete, owing to its preoccupation with the New Delhi decorations; and four artists from Bengal were selected by a Committee appointed by the Government of India, which, though it included two representatives from Bombay (who were not artists) has been criticised on the ground that several of the Bengal representatives were professional artists, that the Bombay School's inability to take part was not brought to the notice of the Committee, and that therefore the result of the competition could not be representative of all the Indian Provinces. The four elected artists finished the decorative work which they had been engaged to execute at India House and returned to India in 1932. But in 1933 two of them were re-engaged to decorate the entrance hall of the building; in consequence of this considerable controversy has arisen on the whole subject of the India House mural paintings and their claim to be representative of India as a whole. This episode has thrown into stronger relief the differences on the subject of art in India between the Western and Eastern districts of the country; a noticeable diminution of the exclusionists' art propaganda, and a tendency towards aligning art in Bengal with the position which Bombay has occupied in this matter for the last two generations, is one of the salient symptoms of the present situation (1934). Another cause of public controversy, which was more local in character, had occurred near the end of 1932, when the Bombay Reorganisation Committee which had been appointed by the Bombay Government for purposes of retrenchment, advocated the closing down of the Bombay School of Art, the abolition of its buildings and the utilisation of the compound of the school for a hospital. The Architectural School was to be moved elsewhere. These draconian recommendations created a great deal of public dissatisfaction, which expressed itself in public agitation, processions and a crowded meeting of protest. After full examination of this vexed question, the Governor of Bombay, Sir Frederick Sykes, who had taken keen interest during his administration, in the welfare of the School, personally announced in a speech delivered at the School of Art on November 24, 1933, that the institution was to be maintained upon its present basis.

Indian Architecture.

The architecture of India has proceeded on lines of its own, and its monuments are unique among those of the nations of the world. An ancient civilization, a natural bent on the part of the people towards religious fervour of the contemplative rather than of the fanatical sort, combined with the richness of the country in the sterner building materials—these are a few of the factors that contributed to making it what it was, while a stirring history gave it both variety and glamour. Indian architecture is a subject which at the best has been studied only imperfectly, and a really comprehensive treatise on it has yet to be written. The subject is a vast and varied one, and it may be such a treatise never will be written in the form of one work at any rate. The spirit of Indian art is foreign to the European and few can entirely understand it, while art criticism and analysis is a branch of study that the Indian has not as yet developed to its full extent. Hitherto the best authority on the subject has been Fergusson, whose compendious work is that which will find most ready acceptance by the general reader. But Fergusson attempted the nearly impossible task of covering the ground in one volume of moderate dimensions, and it is sometimes held that he was a man of too purely European a culture, albeit wide and eclectic, to admit of sufficient depth of insight in this particular direction. Fergusson's classification by races and religions is, however, the one that has been generally accepted hitherto. He asserts that there is no stone architecture in India of an earlier date than two and a half centuries before the Christian era, and that "India owes the introduction of the use of stone for architectural purposes, as she does that of Buddhism as a state religion, to the great Asoka, who reigned B.C. 272 to 236."

Buddhist Work.

Fergusson's first architectural period is then the Buddhist, of which the great tope at Sanchi with its famous Northern gateway is perhaps the most noted example. Then we have the Gandharan topes and monasteries. Perhaps the examples of Buddhist architecture of greatest interest and most ready access to the general student are to be found in the Chaitya halls or rock-cut caves of Karli, Ajanta, Nasik, Ellora, and Kanheri. A point with relation to the Gandhara work may be alluded to in passing. This is the strong European tendency, variously recognized as Roman, Byzantine but most frequently as Greek, to be observed in the details. The foliage seen in the capitals of columns bears strong resemblance to the Greek acanthus, while the sculptures have a distinct trace of Greek influence, particularly in the treatment of drapery, but also of hair and facial expression. From this it has been a fairly common assumption amongst some authorities that Indian art owed much of its best to European influence, an assumption that is strenuously combated by others as will be pointed out later.

The architecture of the Jains comes next in order. Of this rich and beautiful style the most noted examples are perhaps the Dilwara temples near Mount Abu, and the unique "Tower of Victory" at Chittore.

Other Hindu Styles.

The Dravidian style is the generic title usually applied to the characteristic work of the Madras Presidency and the South of India. It is seen in many rock-cut temples as at Ellora, where the remarkable "Kylas" is an instance of a temple cut out of the solid rock, complete, not only with respect to its interior (as in the case of mere caves) but also as to its exterior. It is, as it were, a life-size model of a complete building or group of buildings, several hundred feet in length, not built, but sculptured in solid stone, an undertaking of vast and, to our modern ideas, unprofitable industry. The Pagoda of Tanjore, the temples at Srirangam, Chidambaram, Vellore, Vijayanagar, &c., and the palaces at Madura and Tanjore are among the best known examples of the style.

The writer finds some difficulty in following Fergusson's two next divisions of classification, the "Chalukyan" of South-central India, and the "Northern or Indo-Aryan style." The differences and the similarities are apparently so intermixed and confusing that he is fain to fall back on the broad generic title of "Hindu"—however unscientific he may thereby stand confessed. Amongst a vast number of Hindu temples the following may be mentioned as particularly worthy of study:—Those at Mukteswara and Bhuvaneswar in Orissa, at Khajuraho, Bindrabun, Udaipur, Benares, Gwalior, &c. The palace of the Hindu Raja Man Singh at Gwalior is among the most beautiful architectural examples in India. So also are the palaces of Amber, Datiya, Urcha, Dig and Udaipur.

Indo-Saracenic.

Among all the periods and styles in India the characteristics of none are more easily recognizable than those of what is generally called the "Indo-Saracenic" which developed after the Mahomedan conquest. Under the new influences now brought to bear on it the architecture of India took on a fresh lease of activity and underwent remarkable modifications. The dome, not entirely an unknown feature hitherto, became a special object of development, while the arch, at no time a favourite constructional form of the Hindu builders, was now forced on their attention by the predilections of the ruling class. The minaret also became a distinctive feature. The requirements of the new religion,—the mosque with its wide spaces to meet the needs of organized congregational acts of worship—gave opportunities for broad and spacious treatments that had hitherto been to some extent denied. The Moslem hatred of idolatry set a tabu on the use of sculptured representations of animate objects in the adornment of the buildings, and led to the development of other decorative forms. Great ingenuity came to be displayed in the use of pattern and of geometrical and foliated ornament. This Moslem trait further turned the attention of the builders to a greater extent than before to proportion, scale and mass as means of giving beauty, mere richness of sculptured surface and the æsthetic and symbolic interest of detail being no longer to be depended on to the same degree.

Foreign Influence.

There would appear to be a conflict between archæologists as to the extent of the effect on Indian art produced by foreign influence under the Mahomedans. The extreme view on the one hand is to regard all the best of the art as having been due to foreign importation. The Gandharan sculptures with their Greek tendency, the development of new forms and modes of treatment to which allusion has been made, the similarities to be found between the Mahomedan buildings of India and those of North Africa and Europe, the introduction of the minaret and, above all, the historical evidences that exist of the presence in India of Europeans during Mogul times, are cited in support of the theory. On the other hand those of the opposite school hold the foregoing view to be due to the prevailing European preconception that all light and leading must come by way of Europe, and the best things in art by way of Greece. To them the Gandharan sculpture, instead of being the best, is the worst in India even because of its Greek tincture. They find in the truly indigenous work beauties and significances not to be seen in the Greco-Bactrian sculptures, and point to those of Borobuder in Java, the work of Buddhist colonists from India, wonderfully preserved by reason of an immunity from destructive influences given by the insular position, as showing the best examples of the art extant. It is probable that a just estimate of the merits of the controversy, with respect to sculpture at any rate, cannot be formed till time has obliterated some of the differences of taste that exist between East and West.

To the adherents of the newer school the undisputed similarities between Indo-Mahomedan and Hindu buildings outweigh those between Indian and Western Mahomedan work, especially in the light of the dis-similarities between the latter. They admit the changes produced by the advent of Islam but contend that the art, though modified, yet remained in its essence what it had always been; indigenous Indian. The minaret, the dome, the arch, they contended, though developed under the Moslem influence, were yet, so far as their detailed treatment and craftsmanship are concerned, rendered in a manner distinctively Indian. Fergusson is usually regarded as the leader of the former school while the latter and comparatively recent school has at present found an eager champion in Mr. E. B. Havell, whose works, on the subject are recommended for study side by side with those of the former writer. Mr. Havell practically discards Fergusson's racial method of classification into styles in favour of a chronological review of what he regards to a greater extent than did his famous precursor as being one continuous homogeneous Indian mode of architectural expression, though subject to variations from the influences brought to bear upon it and from the varied purposes to which it was applied.

Agra and Delhi.

Agra and Delhi may be regarded as the principal centres of the Indo-Saracenic style—the former for the renowned Taj Mahal, for Akbar's deserted capital of Fatehpur Sikri, his tomb at Secundra, the Moti Musjid and palace buildings at the Agra fort. At Delhi we have the great Jumma Musjid, the Fort, the tombs of Humayon, Sufdar Jung, &c., and the unique Qutb Minar. Two other great centres may be mentioned, because in each there appeared certain strongly marked individualities that differentiated the varieties of the style there found from the variety seen at Delhi and Agra, as well as that of one from that to the other. These are Ahmedabad in Gujarat and Bijapur on the Dekhan, both in the Bombay Presidency.

Ahmedabad.

At Ahmedabad with its neighbours Sirkhej and Champanir there seems to be less of a departure from the older Hindu forms, a tendency to adhere to the lintel and bracket rather than to have recourse to the arch, while the dome though constantly employed, was there never developed to its full extent as elsewhere, or carried to its logical structural conclusion. The Ahmedabad work is probably most famous for the extraordinary beauty of its stone "jali"—or pierced lattice-work, as in the palm tree windows of the Sidi Sayyid Musjid.

Bijapur.

The characteristics of the Bijapur variety of the style are equally striking. They are perhaps more distinctively Mahomedan than those of the Ahmedabad buildings in that here the dome is developed to a remarkable degree, indeed the tomb of Mahmud—the well-known "Gol Gumbaz"—is cited as shewing the greatest space of floor in any building in the world roofed by a single dome, not even excepting the Pantheon. The lintel also was here practically discarded in favour of the arch. The Bijapur style shews a bold masculine quality and a largeness of structural conception that is unequalled elsewhere in India though in richness and delicacy it does not attempt to rival the work of the further North. In this we recognize among other influences that of the prevailing material, the hard uncompromising Dekhan basalt. In a similar manner the characteristics of the Ahmedabad work with its greater richness of ornamentation are bound up with the nature of the Gujarat freestone, while at Delhi and Agra the freer choice of materials available—the local red and white sandstones, combined with access to marble and other more costly materials—was no doubt largely responsible for the many easily recognizable characteristics of the architecture of these centres.

II. MODERN.

The modern architectural work of India divides itself sharply into two classes. There is first that of the indigenous Indian "Master-builder" to be found chiefly in the Native States, particularly those in Rajputana. Second there is that of British India, or of all those parts of the peninsula wherever Western ideas and methods have most strongly spread their influence, chiefly, in the case of architecture, through the medium of the Department of Public Works. The work of that department has been much animadverted upon as being all that building should not be, but, considering it has been produced by men

of whom it was admittedly not the *metier*, and who were necessarily contending with lack of expert training on the one hand and with departmental methods on the other, it must be conceded that it can shew many notable buildings. Of recent years there has been a tendency on the part of professional architects to turn their attention to India, and a number of these has even been drafted into the service of Government as the result of a policy initiated in Lord Curzon's Viceroyalty. In time, therefore, and with the growth of the influence of these men, such of the reproach against the building of the British in India as was just and was not merely thoughtlessly maintained as a corollary to the popular jape against everything official, may gradually be removed. If this is so as to Government work progress should be even more assured in the freer atmosphere outside of official life. Already in certain of the greater cities, where the trained modern architect has established himself, in private practice, there are signs that his influence is beginning to be felt. He still complains, however, that the general public of India needs much educating up to a recognition of his value, both in a pecuniary sense and otherwise.

To the work of the indigenous "master-builder" public attention has of recent years been drawn with some insistence, and the suggestion has been pressed that efforts should be directed towards devising means for the preservation of what is pointed out—and now universally acknowledged—to be a remarkable survival—almost the only one left in the world—of "living art," but which is threatened with gradual extinction by reason of the spread of Western ideals and fashions. The matter assumed some years ago the form of a mild controversy centring round the question of the then much discussed project of the Government of India's new capital at Delhi. It was urged that this project should be utilised to give the required impetus to Indian art rather than that it should be made a means of fostering European art which needed no such encouragement at India's expense. The advocates of this view appear for the most part to have been adherents of the "indigenous Indian" school of archæologists already mentioned, and to have based their ideas on their own reading of the past. They still muster a considerable following not only amongst the artistic public of England and India, but even within the Government services. Their opponents, holding what appears to be the more official view both as to archæology and art, have pointed to the "death" of all the arts of the past in other countries as an indication of a natural law, and deprecate as waste of energy all efforts to resist this law, or to institute what they have termed "another futile revival"! The British in India, they contend, should do as did the ancient Romans in every country on which they planted their conquering foot. As those were wont to replace indigenous art with that of Rome, so should we set our seal of conquest permanently on India by the erection of examples of the best of British art. This is the view which, as we have indicated, appears to have obtained for the moment the more influential hearing, and the task of designing and directing the construction of the principal buildings in the new Capital was accordingly entrusted jointly to two famous British architects, neither of whom can be unduly influenced by either past or recent architectural practice so far as India is concerned. The building of New Delhi is perhaps too recent an event for the passing of a definite verdict. The work of Sir Edwin Lutyens and Sir Herbert Baker abides the judgment of posterity. If that work has had its severe critics, it has also received the commendation of many. The cream domes set on tall bases, rise from the centre of the Secretariat buildings, and surmounted by cupolas have reminded some of Bramarte's work in Rome, or the Pantheon, or Wren's dome of St. Paul's. Below there are the semi-circular entrances resembling Moghul doorways; the rows of comparatively small windows, some filled with pierced sandstone screens somewhat distract the eye, and seem to mar the effect of sturdiness prevailing throughout. The Secretariats were meant no doubt to usher the visitor to New Delhi to the "piece de resistance" of the architectural composition, the Viceroy's House. Standing where it does, this building is intended to dominate and necessarily arrests the gaze of the visitor, while its massive end bays, with stepped entablature capped by saucered fountains are said to give the architectural eye a feeling of safety against spreading. This feeling of security continues as the spectator's gaze travels down the unusual design of the metalled dome to the solid projecting bays that contain the statues of King George V and Queen Mary, which complete the composition. Some think that the colour scheme avoids the "glaring disunity" in Moghul buildings when the white luminous marble was used with similar red sandstone; for here, the two sandstones, red and cream are blended and co-ordinated. With regard to the interior decorations of New Delhi, strenuous efforts were made by those who believed in the enterprise as a point of focus for the revival of Indian art to obtain for the Indian art schools and artists commissions to carry out the Mural paintings required in the new buildings. After a great deal of public agitation on this subject in Bombay some commissions of this kind were given by the Government of India, based on the results of a public competition. But in spite of the indubitable success of many of the paintings, and the proof furnished thereby of the Indian artist's capacities for this kind of work, nothing further has been accomplished in the matter since the end of 1929.

The controversy of East and West, however vital to the interests of the country's architecture, is too purely technical for its merits to be estimated by the general reader or discussed here. Its chief claim on our attention lies in the fact that it affords an added interest to the tourist, who may see the fruits of both schools of thought in the modern buildings of British India as well as examples of the "master builders" work in nearly every native town and bazaar. The town of Lashkar in Gwalior State may be cited as peculiarly rich in instances of picturesque modern Indian street architecture, while at Jaipur, Udaipur, Benares, etc., this class of work may be studied in many different forms both civil and religious.

Industrial Arts.

The ancient industrial arts of India formed two distinct groups. The first included those allied to, and dependent upon, architecture; the second comprise those applied to articles devoted to religious ritual; military weapons and trappings, domestic accessories; and to personal adornment.

The articles of the first group were intended for some fixed and definite position, and the style of their design and the character of their workmanship were dictated by that of the building with which they were incorporated. Those of the second group were movable, and the range of their design was less constricted and their workmanship was more varied. Examples of work in both groups are so numerous, and the arts comprise such a diversity of application, that only a cursory survey can be attempted within the limits of a short review. Although the design and treatment differ in the two groups, the materials used were often the same. These materials cover a very wide range but space only permits of reference to work applied to the four materials upon which the Indian craftsman's skill has been most extensively displayed. These are stone, wood, metal and textiles.

Before dealing separately with each of these materials a few words upon the principal Indian styles are necessary. The two distinctive styles are Hindu and Mahomedan. The former may be termed Indigenous, dating as it does from remote antiquity; the latter was a variation of the great Arabian style, which was brought into India in the fourteenth century, and has since developed features essentially Indian in character. The art of both Hindus and Mahomedans is based upon religion and the requirements of religious ritual. The obvious expression of this is shown in the different motifs used for their ornament. In Hindu art all natural forms are accepted and employed for decorative purposes; but in that of the Mahomedans, nearly all natural forms are rejected and forbidden. The basis of Mahomedan decoration is therefore mainly geometrical. In each of them, racial characteristics are strikingly exhibited. The keynote of Hindu work is exuberance, imagination and poetry; that of Mahomedan, reticence, intellect and good taste. The Hindus are lavish, and often undiscriminating in their employment of ornament; the Mahomedans use more restraint. In fact the two styles may be compared, without straining the analogy, to the Gothic and classic styles in Europe. In both styles the fecundity of ideas and invention in design are marvellous, and the craftsmanship often reaches a very high standard. Hindu art had been subjected throughout the ages to many foreign influences, but the artistic instincts of the people have proved so conservative that, whether these alien ideas came from the east or the west, they have often been absorbed, and are now stamped with a definite Indian character. Recognition of this fact should relieve the anxiety of those critics who fear that the penetration of Western art and culture into India at the present time will eventually rob Indian art of its national character.

Stone Work.—Carved stone work is the principal form of decoration employed in Hindu temples. In variety and scope it ranges from the massive figures in the Buddhist and Brahminical Cave Temples, and the detached sculpture of the temples of Southern India, to the delicately incised reliefs and elaborately fretted ornament of the Jain temples at Mount Abu. A curious fact in relation to Hindu work is that priority of date appears to have no relation to artistic development. It is not possible to trace, as in the case of Greek, Roman and Mediæval craftwork, the regular progressive steps from art in its primitive state to its culminating point and its subsequent decay. Styles in India seem to spring into existence fully developed; the earlier examples often exhibiting finer craftsmanship than those of a later date. There can be little doubt that stone carving in India was simply the application of the wood carvers' art to another material. The treatment of stone by the Hindu craftsmen, even in the constructive principles of their buildings, bears a closer resemblance to the practice of the wood-worker than to that of the stone mason. The earlier wooden examples from which the stone buildings and their decorations were derived have long since disappeared, but their influence is apparent. The keynote of Hindu design is rhythmic rather than symmetrical; that of their craftsmanship, vigour rather than refinement. In the carving of the human figure and of animals great power of expressing action is shown, and this spontaneous feeling is preserved despite the greatest elaboration and detail. The industry displayed is amazing, no amount of labour appears to have daunted the Hindu craftsmen in carrying out their huge and intricate schemes of decoration.

The stone carving on Mahomedan buildings except where Hindu carvers have been allowed a free hand, is much more restrained than that on Hindu temples. The fact that geometrical forms were almost exclusively used, dictated lower relief and greater refinement in the carving; while the innate good taste of the designers prompted them to concentrate the ornament upon certain prominent features, where its effect was heightened by the simplicity of the rest of the building. The invention displayed in working out geometrical patterns for work screens, inlay, and other ornamental details appears to be inexhaustible; while wonderful decorative use has been made of Arabic and Persian lettering in panels and their framing. To obtain a rich effect the Hindus relied upon the play of light and shade upon broken surfaces, the Mahomedans to attain the same end used precious materials; veneering the surfaces of their buildings with polished marble which they decorated with patterns of mosaic composed of jade, agate, onyx and other costly stones. Although the art of inlaying and working in hard stones was of Italian origin, it proved to be one eminently suited to the genius of the Indian craftsman; and many wonderful examples of their skill in the form of book rests, tables, thrones, footstools, vases and sword handles are extant to show the height of proficiency they attained. The treatment of precious

stones by Indian jewellers may here be referred to. Sir George Birdwood states that "the Indian jeweller thinks of producing the sumptuous, imposing effect of dazzling variety of rich and brilliant colours and nothing of the purity of his gems." This is true in a general sense and "full many a gem of purest ray serene" was utterly ruined by crude cutting and piercing. But although as early as the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries diamonds and precious stones from the Indian mines were taken to Europe to be cut, many of the finest jewels found their way back to the treasure houses of Indian princes. Sir G. Watt has divided Indian stone work into three great stages or types, *viz.* (1) from the excavation of Cave Temples and the construction of Buddhist topes; (2) the building of Hindu Chalakyan and Jain Temples; (3) the Pathan and Moghul Mosques, tombs and palaces. It is interesting to note that the Schools of Art in India have given attention to this industry. For instance the Bombay School of Art has to its credit a number of public buildings adorned by means of its student stone-cutters.

Wood Work.—With a fine range of timbers suitable for the purpose, wood has played a great part in the construction and decoration of Indian buildings. Unfortunately, much of the ancient wood work has been destroyed by the action of the climate and the teeming insectivorous life of India; and that which escaped these enemies was wiped out by fire and the sword. It is therefore only possible to conjecture the height of artistic development these buildings and their decorations displayed by the copies in stone which have been preserved. Few if any examples of a date earlier than the sixteenth century are to be found. Many of these, and specimens of a later date to be seen in towns and cities throughout the country, are masterpieces of design and craftsmanship. The carved timber fronts and inner courtyards of houses in Ahmedabad, Nasik, and other parts of Western India are notable for their picturesqueness and beauty the structural beams, the overhanging balconies, with their screens and supporting brackets, being carved in a manner which unites richness of effect with good taste and propriety. Of furniture, as the term is now understood, few examples were in use in India before Europeans introduced their own fashions. These were confined to small tables and stools, book rests, clothes chests and screens, the designs of which conformed somewhat closely to the architectural style of the period. Many of these were decorated with inlays of coloured woods, ivory and metal; while in some cases the wooden basis was entirely plated with copper, brass or silver. In Southern India, where close grained sandalwood is grown, jewel cases and boxes are enriched with carving executed with the attention to detail and the finish generally associated with the carving of ivory. Coloured lac was freely used to decorate many articles of furniture, especially those turned on the lathe; and rich colour effects were obtained in this, perhaps the most distinctive and typically Indian development of decoration as applied to wood work. Teak, shisham, deodhar, sandalwood, ebony, walnut, jun, nim and Madras red wood are among the chief woods used in India for ornamental work.

Metal Work.—With the exception of weaving, the metal working industry employed and still employs the greatest number of artistic craftsmen in India. Copper and brass have always been the two metals most widely used for domestic purposes by Mahomedans and Hindus. The shapes of many of these humble vessels are among the most beautiful to be found in the country. They exhibit that sense of variety and touch of personality which are only given by the work of the human hand; and the shapes are those which grow naturally from the working of the material with the simplest implements. In the technical treatment of brass and copper Indian craftsmen have shown a taste and skill unsurpassed by those of other nations, except in the department of fine casting. In this, and in the working of gold and silver, a higher standard of technical and constructive exactness has been reached by the metal workers of Europe and Japan. It may be taken as an axiom that the more beautiful the shape of an article is, and this especially applies to metal work, the less need exists for the decoration of its surface. It is equally true that the highest test of craftsmanship is the production of a perfect article without any decoration. The reason being that the slightest technical fault is apparent on a plain surface, but can be hidden or disguised of one which is covered with ornament. The goldsmiths and silversmiths of India were extremely skilful and industrious, but judged by this test their works often exhibit a lack of care and exactness in the structural portion and a completely satisfactory example of perfectly plain work from the hands of the gold and silversmiths of India is rarely to be met with. Much of the excessive and often inappropriate ornamentation of the articles that they produced owed its application as much to the necessity of hiding defective construction as it did to any purely decorative purpose. For many generations, ornaments of gold and silver were regarded in the light of portable wealth, a practice which naturally made for massiveness. These solid ornaments are most effective and picturesque; and, despite an enormous output of elaborate and delicate work from their hands, the most valuable contribution of the Indian metal workers to the sum total of man's artistic use of the precious metals will probably be found to lie in a certain barbaric note which distinguishes these pieces—a note not present in the craft work of other countries. In the design of Hindu gold and silver ornaments, religious symbols have been extensively used. The ornaments which bedeck the early sculptured figures, and those depicted in the paintings at the Cave Temples of Ajanta are precisely the same in design and use as similar articles made at the present time, thus affording a striking evidence of the inherent conservatism of the Hindu people and its effect upon an industrial art that makes a closer personal appeal than any other.

Textiles.—The textile industry is the widest in extent in India and is that in which her craftsmen have shown their highest achievements. Other countries, east and west of India have produced work equal at least in stone, wood, and metal; but none has ever matched that of her weavers in cotton and wool, or excelled them in the weaving of silken

fabrics. Some of the products of the looms of Bengal are marvels of technical skill and perfect taste, while the plum bloom quality of the old Cashmere shawls is an artistic achievement which places them in a class by themselves. Weaving being essentially a process of repetition, was the first to which machinery was applied, and modern science has brought power loom weaving to such a state of perfection that filaments of a substance finer even than those of Dacca, which astonished our ancestors, are now produced in the mills of Lancashire. But for beauty of surface and variety of texture no machine-made fabrics have ever equalled the finest handiwork of the weavers of India. Many of the most beautiful varieties of Indian textile work have disappeared, killed by the competition of the power loom. In other branches of art as applied to textiles India does not hold so pre-eminent a position as in that of weaving. The printed silks and calicoes of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries deservedly held a high place in the estimation of Western nations, whose craftsmen learnt many valuable lessons from the technical skill, and artistic taste they display. Nothing approaching the tapestries made in Europe in the middle ages has been produced in India. The nearest approach to these is in carpets and rugs. This art was introduced from Persia; but Indian craftsmen have never succeeded in equalling the finest work of their instructors either in colour or design.

Modern Conditions.—In the foregoing sketch of the ancient industrial art of India, as applied to the four principal materials employed only a general indication of its more striking characteristics has been possible. A volume would be required to give a detailed description of any one of them, and would leave many other minor arts to be considered. All these branches of art came into existence, were developed and flourished in India when social and economic conditions were vastly different from those of the present day. Like similar artistic crafts carried on in Europe up to the end of the eighteenth century, they were executed by hand labour. The processes involved had not been discovered by scientific inquiry, such as is now understood by the phrase: but were the outcome of generations of slowly built up experience. We now come to the effect upon them of the changed conditions which have revolutionised industrial art in Europe during the last century.

The invention of the steam engine, and the application of mechanical power and scientific research to industry in Europe, mark the dividing line between ancient and modern industrial art. Not only on its technical side is this so, but the effect of these changes has been to alter the character of the work itself and the spirit which animated the craftsmen. In place of the ancient ideal of variety in design and treatment, which meant a limited output, the modern one of uniformity and unlimited output has been substituted. The capitalist has displaced the master craftsman: the organised factory, the small workshop; specialisation and division of labour have taken the place of general proficiency among the artisans; the function of the designer has been separated from that of the craftsman; local markets have been extended to serve the whole world; and the skilled handicraftsman has, in a great measure, become a machine-minder. It took about one hundred years of gradual change for the craftsmen of Europe fully to adjust themselves to these altered conditions; and during the greater portion of that period India protected by the difficulties of transport, continued its immemorial practice. Fifty years ago this protective barrier was removed by the opening of the Suez Canal, and the craftsmen of India have since been struggling to avoid the same fate which overtook those of Europe half a century before. With less time to adapt themselves to the changed conditions the Indian craftsmen have had to meet the competition of European rivals already fully equipped with new and unknown tools. Even before this period of intense competition, observers interested in Indian craftwork had noticed evidences of its deterioration. The falling off, both in design and workmanship was attributed to the conservative practice of the craftsmen: to the gradual loss of foreign markets, and to the long period of internal disorder which had deprived them of both the patronage of the rulers of an earlier age and the stimulating contact with foreign craftsmen who had previously been attracted to the splendid courts at Delhi and Agra. During the same period, an even greater degradation in design had overtaken the craftwork of Europe. This was due to entirely different causes namely, to the introduction of machinery. Attention had been so concentrated upon speedy production, mechanical accuracy and commercial organisation that beauty of design had been almost entirely neglected. This was so forcibly demonstrated at the International Exhibition of 1851 that efforts were at once made to bring art and industry together once more. Schools of Art and Museums were founded throughout England and the same system was copied in a tentative and timid fashion in India. The function of these institutions was accurately estimated in England, where the artistic industries were already highly organised and were commercially successful, and whose products were to be found in every market of the world. Their business was to assist these industries by training a body of efficient designers capable of furnishing the factories with suitable designs, new or old, and in any style, to satisfy the requirements of customers in any country. It was never supposed for an instant that a School of Art could lead an industry. In India their function was as completely misunderstood as were the causes of the depression in Indian craftwork. The schools were not only expected to lead the industries which were living, but to revive those which were moribund, and resurrect those which were dead. In the report of the Indian Industrial Commission the need for some State-aided system of industrial and commercial organisation of the industrial arts with an expanded scheme of technical and artistic instruction for the craftsmen has been recognised. If, assistance and encouragement are given by the Imperial and Local Governments to the Indian craftsmen industrial art in India will quickly emerge from the cloud of depression, which has hung over it for a century past into the sunlight of prosperity.

Archæology.

The ancient monuments of India are as varied as they are numerous. Until a few years ago, the earliest known were the brick and stone erections of the Maurya period, a group of mounds at Lauriya Nandangarh, illustrative of the Vedic funeral customs and assignable roughly to the 7th or 8th century B.C., and some rough stone walls at the ancient city of Rajagriha of about the same period. The absence of structures of an earlier period was then supposed to be due to the fact that all previous architecture had been of wood and had completely perished. The recent excavations, however, at Mohenjo-daro, in Sind and at Harappa in the Punjab, have completely revolutionised ideas on this subject and proved that as far back as the 3rd or 4th millennium B.C. and probably much earlier still, India was in possession of a highly developed civilization with large and populous cities, well built houses, temples and public buildings of brick and many other amenities enjoyed at that period by the peoples of Mesopotamia and Egypt. Both at Mohenjo-daro and Harappa there are the remains of some 5 or 6 cities superimposed one upon the ruins of another.

The structures that have so far been exposed at Mohenjo-daro belong to the three latest cities on the site. Those of the third or earliest are the best in style; those of the first the poorest. Most of the structures are dwelling houses or shops, but there are others which appear to have been temples and one—of particularly massive proportions—is a large bath, surrounded by fenestrated galleries and halls. All were built of well burnt brick and most of them were of two or more storeys with staircases giving access to the upper rooms. In and around the ruins have been found many minor antiquities including gold and silver jewellery, engraved seals of stone and ivory and paste copper implements and vessels, terracotta figurines and toys, shell ornaments and potteries both painted and plain.

These discoveries establish the existence in Sind and the Punjab during the 4th and 3rd millennia B.C. of a highly developed city life; and the presence, in many of the houses, of wells and bathrooms as well as an elaborate drainage system betoken a social condition of the citizens at least equal to that found in Sumer and superior to that prevailing in contemporary Babylonia and Egypt. The inhabitants of these cities lived largely no doubt by agriculture and it is a point of interest that the specimens of wheat found at Mohenjo-daro resemble the common variety grown in the Punjab to-day. Besides bread, their food appears to have included beef, mutton, and pork, the flesh of tortoises, turtles and gharial, fresh fish from the Indus and dried fish from the sea coast. Among their domesticated animals were the humped Indian bull, the buffalo, a short horned bull, the sheep, pig, dog and elephant. Besides gold and silver they used copper, tin, bronze and lead; they were familiar with the arts of spinning and weaving and with the cultivation of cotton and had attained a high degree of proficiency in the jeweller's and potter's arts.

That they possessed a well developed system of writing is evidenced by the discovery of over a thousand tablets engraved with well-executed animal devices and pictographic legends in an unknown script. The method of disposal of the dead at Mohenjo-daro is uncertain but at Harappa two types of burial have been met with, namely, complete burials along with funerary pottery, and "pot burials." Only 27 of the latter have been examined and these were found to contain skulls and human bones and are seemingly fractional burials.

This Indus Valley culture has now been traced as far as Rupar in the Ambala District, relatively close to the watershed of the Sutlej and Jumna and it is therefore highly improbable that this civilization was confined to the Indus Valley and there can hardly be any reasonable doubt that future researches will trace it into the valley of the Ganges. Of the long period of more than 2,000 years that separates the pre-historic monuments referred to above from the historic period of India, little or nothing is yet known but there is every hope that this gap in our knowledge may be filled in by further excavations. From the time of the Mauryas, *i.e.*, 3rd century B.C., the history of architecture and the formative arts of India is clear and can be traced with relative precision.

Monumental Pillars.—The monuments which have come down to us from the Maurya period, include, besides the caves to be referred to below, the wooden palisade (4th century B.C.) which surrounded the ancient city of Pataliputra (modern Patna), and of which a large section has been exposed, the rock and pillar edicts of Asoka (*Circa* 250 B.C.), the remains of a large pillared hall constructed by the same emperor at Pataliputra, a number of brick stupas and a monolithic rail which originally surmounted an Asoka *stupa* at Sarnath near Benares. Altogether thirteen pillars of Asoka are known besides the Elephant capital of a 14th at Sankisa and a fragment of a 15th at Benares. Ten of them bear his inscriptions. Of these the Lauriya-Nandangarh column in the Champaran District, Tirhut, is practically uninjured. The capital of each column, like the shaft, was monolithic, and comprised three members, viz., a Persepolitan bell, abacus, and crowning sculpture in the round. By far the best capital of Asoka's time was that exhumed at Sarnath near Benares. The four lions standing back to back on the abacus are carved with extraordinary precision and accuracy, and originally supported a wheel symbolizing the law of piety preached by the Buddha. Several pieces of this wheel were found and are now preserved in the Archæological Museum at Sarnath. Of the post-Asokan period one pillar (B.C. 150) stands to the north-east of Besnagar in the Gwalior State, another in front of the cave of Karli (A.D. 70), and a third at Eran in Central Provinces belonging to the 5th Century A.D. All these are of stone; but there is one of iron also. It is near the Qutb Minar at Delhi, and an inscription on it speaks of its having been erected by a king called Chandra identified with Chandragupta II. (A.D. 375,

413) of the Gupta dynasty. It is wonderful "to find the Hindus at that age forging a bar of iron larger than any that have been forged even in Europe to a very late date, and not frequently even now." Pillars of later style are found all over the country, especially in the Madras Presidency. No less than twenty exist in the South Kanara District. A particularly elegant example faces a Jaina temple at Mudabidri, not far from Mangalore.

Topes.—*Stupas*, known as *dagabas* in Ceylon and commonly called Topes in North India, were constructed either for the safe custody of relics hidden in a chamber often near the base or to mark the scene of notable events in Buddhist or Jaina legends. Though we know that the ancient Jainas built *stupas*, no specimen of Jaina *stupas* is now extant. A notable structure of this kind which existed until recent times, was the Jaina *stupa* which stood on the Kankali Tila site at Muttra and yielded a large number of Jaina sculptures now deposited in the Provincial Museum at Lucknow. Of those belonging to the Buddhists, the great Tope of Sanchi in Bhopal is the most intact and entire of its class. It consists of a low circular drum supporting a hemispherical dome of less diameter. Round the drum is an open passage for circumambulation, and the whole is enclosed by a massive stone railing with lofty gates facing the cardinal points. The gates are essentially wooden in character, and are carved inside and out, with elaborate sculptures. The original *stupa*, which was of brick and not more than half the present dimensions, was apparently erected by Asoka at the same time as his lion-crowned pillar near the south gate, but as Sir John Marshall's recent explorations have conclusively shown, its outer casing of stone, the railing and the gateways were at least 150 and 200 years later, respectively. Other famous Buddhist *stupas* that have been found are those of Sarnath, Bharhut between Allahabad and Jubbulpore, Amravati in the Madras Presidency, and Piprahwa on the Nepalese frontier. The tope proper at Bharhut has entirely disappeared, having been utilised for building villages, and what remained of the rail has been removed to the Calcutta Museum. The bas-reliefs on this rail which contain short inscriptions and thus enable one to identify the scenes sculptured with the *Jatakas* or Birth Stories of the Buddha give it a unique value. The *stupa* at Amravati also no longer exists, and portions of its rail, which is unsurpassed in point of elaboration and artistic merit, are now in the British and Madras Museums. The *stupa* at Piprahwa was opened by Mr. W. C. Peppe in 1898, and a steatite or soap-stone reliquary with an inscription on it was unearthed. The inscription, according to many scholars, speaks of the relics being of the Buddha himself and enshrined by his kinsmen, the Sakyas. If this interpretation is correct, we have here one of the *stupas* that were erected over the ashes of Buddha immediately after his demise.

Caves.—Of the rock excavations which are one of the wonders of India, nine-tenths belong to Western India. The most important groups of caves are situated in Bhaja, Bedsa, Karli, Kanheri, Junnar, and Nasik in the Bombay Presidency, Ellora and Ajanta in Nizam's Dominions, Barabar and Nagarjuni 16 miles north of Gaya, and Udayagiri and Khandagir 20 miles from Cuttack in Orissa. The caves belong to the three principal sects into which ancient India was divided, *viz.*, the Buddhists, Hindus and Jainas. The earliest caves so far discovered are those of Barabar and Nagarjuni which were excavated by Asoka and his grandson Dasaratha, and dedicated to Ajivikas, a naked sect founded by Mankhali putta Gosala. The next earliest caves are those of Bhaja, Pitalkhora and cave No. 9 at Ajanta and No. 19 at Nasik. They have been assigned to 200 B.C. by Fergusson and Dr. Burgess. But there is good reason to suppose from Sir John Marshall's recent researches and from epigraphic considerations that they are considerably more modern. The Buddhist caves are of two types—the *chaityas* or chapel caves and *viharas* or monasteries for the residence of monks. The first are with vaulted roofs and horse-shoe shaped windows over the entrance and have interiors consisting of a nave and side aisles with a small *stupa* at the inner circular end. They are thus remarkably similar to Christian basilicas. The second class consist of a hall surrounded by a number of cells. In the later *viharas* there was a sanctum in the centre of the back wall containing a large image of Buddha. Hardly a *chaitya* is found without one or more *viharas* adjoining it. Of the Hindu cave temples that at Elephanta near Bombay is perhaps the most frequented. It is dedicated to Siva and is not earlier than the 7th century A.D. But by far the most renowned cave-temple of the Hindus is that known as Kailasa at Ellora. It is on the model of a complete structural temple but carved out of solid rock. It also is dedicated to Siva and was excavated by the Rashtrakuta king, Krishna I, (A. D. 768), who may still be seen in the paintings in the ceilings of the upper porch of the main shrine. Of the Jaina caves the earliest are at Khandagiri and Udayagiri; those of the mediæval type, in Indra Sabha at Ellora; and those of the latest period, at Ankai in Nasik. The ceilings of many of these caves were once adorned with fresco paintings. Perhaps, the best preserved among these are those at Ajanta, which were executed at various periods between 350-650 A.D. and have elicited high praise as works of art. Copies were first made by Major Gill, but most of them perished by fire at the Crystal Palace in 1866. The lost ones were again copied by John Griffiths of the Arts School, Bombay, half of whose work was similarly destroyed by a fire at South Kensington. They were last copied by Lady Herringham during 1909-11. Her pictures, which are in full scale, are at present exhibited at the Indian Section of the Victoria and Albert Museum, South Kensington, and have been reproduced in a volume brought out by the India Society. Another group of caves where equally interesting though less well preserved paintings exist is found at Bagh in Gwalior State. These caves form the subject of a monograph issued by the India Society.

Gandhara Monuments.—On the north-west frontier of India, anciently known as Gandhara, are found a class of remains, ruined monasteries and buried *stupas*, among which we notice for the first time representations of Buddha and the Buddhist pantheon. The free use of Corinthian capitals, friezes of nude Erotes bearing a long

garland, winged Atlantes without number, and a host of individual motifs clearly establish the influence of Hellenistic art. The mound at Peshawar, locally known as Shah-ji-ki-Dheri, which was explored in 1909, brought to light several interesting sculptures of this school together with a reliquary casket, the most remarkable bronze object of the Gandhara period. The inscription on the casket left no doubt as to the mound being the *stupa* raised over a portion of the body relics of Buddha by the Indo Scythian king Kanishka. They were presented by Lord Minto's Government to the Buddhists of Burma and are now enshrined at Mandalay. To about the same age belong the *stupas* at Manikyala in the Punjab opened by Ranjit Singh's French Generals, Ventura and Court, in 1830. Some of them contained coins of Kanishka.

Structural Temples.—Of this class the earliest examples are the Varaha temple at Deogarh, District Jhansi, another temple at Sanchi, the brick temples at Bhitargaon in the district of Cawnpore, and the temples at Tigowa, Nachna, Eran and Bhumara all of which belong to the Gupta period and a later one at Tigowa in the Central Provinces. In South India we have two more examples, *viz.*, Lad Khan and Durga temples at Aihole in Bijapur, the latter of which cannot be later than the eighth century A.D. The only common characteristic is flat roofs without spires of any kind. In other respects they are entirely different and already here we mark the beginning of the two styles, Indo-Aryan and Dravidian, whose differences become more and more pronounced from the 7th century onwards. In the Indo-Aryan style, the most prominent ones tend to the perpendicular, and in the Dravidian to the horizontal. The salient feature of the former again is the curvilinear steeple, and of the latter, the pyramidal tower. The most notable examples of the first kind are to be found among the temples of Bhubaneswar in Orissa, Khajuraho in Bundelkhand, Osia in Jodhpur, and Dilwara on Mount Abu. One of the best known groups in the Dravidian style is that of the Mamallapuram Raths, or 'Seven Pagodas,' on the seashore to the south of Madras. They are each hewn out of a block of granite, and are rather models of temples than *raths*. They are the earliest examples of typical Dravidian architecture, and belong to the 7th century. To the same age has to be assigned the temple of Kailasanath at Conjeeveram, and to the following century some of the temples at Aihole and Pattadkal of the Bijapur District, Bombay Presidency, and the monolithic temple of Kailasa at Ellora, referred to above. Of the later Dravidian style the great temple at Tanjore and the Srirangam temple near Trichinopoly are the best examples.

Intermediate between these two main styles comes the architecture of the Deccan, called Chalukyan by Fergusson. In this style the plan becomes polygonal and star-shaped instead of quadrangular; and the high-storeyed spire is converted into a low pyramid in which the horizontal treatment of the Dravidian is combined with the perpendicular of the Indo-Aryan. Some fine examples of this type exist at Dambal, Rattihali, Tilliwalli and Hangal in Dharwar, Bombay Presidency, and at Ittagi and Warangal in Nizam's Dominions. But it is in Mysore among the temples at Hallebid Belur, and Somnathpur that the style is found in its full perfection.

Inscriptions.—We now come to inscriptions, of which numbers have been brought to light in India. They have been engraved on varieties of materials, but principally on stone and copper. The earliest of these are found incised in two distinct kinds of alphabet, known as Brahmi and Kharoshthi, the latter being confined to the north-west of India. The Brahmi was read from left to right, and from it have been evolved all the modern vernacular scripts of India. The Kharoshthi was written from right to left, and was a modified form of the ancient Aramaic alphabet introduced into the Punjab during the period of the Persian domination in the 5th century B.C. It was prevalent up to the 4th century A.D., and was supplanted by the Brahmi. The earliest dateable inscriptions are the celebrated edicts of Asoka to which a reference has been made above. One group of these has been engraved on rocks, and another on pillars. They have been found from Shahbazgarhi 40 miles north-east of Peshawar to Nigliva in the Nepal Tarai, from Girnar in Kathiawar to Dhauli in Orissa, from Kalsi in the Lower Himalayas to Siddapur in Mysore, showing by the way the vast extent of territory held by him. The reference in his Rock Edicts to the five contemporary Greek Princes, Antiochus II. of Syria, Ptolemy Philadelphus, and so forth is exceedingly interesting, and fixes B.C. 269 as the date of his coronation. His Rummindei pillar inscription, again, discovered in Nepal Tarai, now settles, beyond all doubt, the birth-place of Buddha which was for long disputed. Another noteworthy record is the inscription of the Besnagar pillar. The pillar had been known for a long time, but Sir John Marshall was the first to notice the inscription on it. It records the erection of this column, which was a Garuda pillar, in honour of the god Vasudeva by one Heliodoros, son of Dion, who is described as an envoy of King Antialkidas of Taxila. Heliodoros is herein called a *Bhagavata*, which shows that though a Greek he had become a Hindu and presumably a Vaishnava. Another inscription worth noticing and especially in this connection is that of Cave No. 10 at Nasik. The donor of this cave, Ushavadata, who calls himself a Saka and was thus an Indo-Scythian, is therein spoken of as having granted three hundred thousand kine and sixteen villages to gods and Brahmans and as having annually fed one hundred thousand Brahmans. Here is another instance of a foreigner having embraced Hinduism. Thus for the political, social, economical and religious history of India at the different periods the inscriptions are invaluable records, and are the only light but for which we are 'forlorn and blind.'

Saracenic Architecture.—This begins in India with the 13th century after the permanent occupation of the Muhammadans. Their first mosques were constructed of the materials of Hindu and Jaina temples, and sometimes with comparatively slight alterations. The mosque called *Arhai-din-ka-jhompra* at Ajmer and that near the Qutb Minar are instances of this kind. The Muhammadan architecture of India varied at different periods and under the various dynasties, imperial and local. The

early Pathan architecture of Delhi was massive and at the same time was characterised by elaborate richness of ornamentation. The Qutb Minar and tombs of Altamsh and Ala-ud-din Khilji are typical examples. Of the Sharqi style we have three mosques in Jaunpur with several tombs. At Mandu in the Dhar State, a third form of Saracenic architecture sprang up, and we have here the Jami Masjid, Hoshang's tomb, Jahaz Mahal and Hindola Mahal as the most notable instances of the secular and ecclesiastical styles of the Malwa Pathans. The Muhammadans of Bengal again developed their own style, and Pandua, Malda, and Gaur teem with the ruins of the buildings of this type, the important of which are the Adina Masjid of Sikandar Shak, the Eklakhi mosque, Kadam Rasul Masjid, and so forth. The Bahmani dynasty of Gulbarga and Bidar were also great builders, and adorned their capitals with important buildings. The most striking of these is the great mosque of Gulbarga, which differs from all mosques in India in having the whole central area covered over so that what in others would be an open court is here roofed by sixty-three small domes. "Of the various forms which the Saracenic architecture assumed," says Fergusson, "that of Ahmedabad may probably be considered to be the most elegant." It is notable for its carved stone work; and the work of the perforated stone windows in Sidi Sayyid's mosque, the carved niches of the minars of many other mosques, the sculptured *Mihrabs* and domed and panelled roofs is so exquisite that it will rival anything of the sort executed elsewhere at any period. No other style is so essentially Hindu. In complete contrast with this was the form of architecture employed by the Adil Shahi dynasty of Bijapur. There is here relatively little trace of Hindu forms or details. The principal buildings now left at Bijapur are the Jami Masjid, Gagan Mahal, Mihtar Mahal, Ibrahim Rauza and mosque and the Gol Gumbaz. Like their predecessors, the Pathans of Delhi, the Moghuls were a great building race. Their style first began to evolve itself during the reign of Akbar in a combination of Hindu and Muhammadan features. Noteworthy among the emperor's buildings are the tomb of Humayun, and the palaces at Fatehpur Sikri and Agra. Of Jehangir's time his mosque at Lahore and the tomb of Itimad-ud-daula are the most typical structures. "The force and originality of the style gave way under Shah Jahan to a delicate elegance and refinement of detail." And it was during his reign that the most splendid of the Moghul tombs, the Taj Mahal at Agra, the tomb of his wife Mumtaz Mahal, was constructed. The Moti Masjid in Agra Fort is another surpassingly pure and elegant monument of his time.

Archæological Department.—As the archæological monuments of India must attract the attention of all intelligent visitors, they would naturally feel desirous to know something of the Archæological Department. The work of this Department is primarily two-fold, conservation, and research and exploration. None but spasmodic efforts appear to have been made by Government in these directions till 1870 when they established the Archæological Survey of India and entrusted it to General (afterwards Sir) Alexander Cunningham, who was also the first Director-General of Archæology. The next advance was the initiation of the local Surveys in Bombay and Madras three years after. The work of these Surveys, however, was restricted to antiquarian research and description of monuments, and the task of conserving old buildings was left to the fitful efforts of the local Governments, often without expert guidance or control. It was only in 1878 that the Government of India under Lord Lytton awoke to this deplorable condition, and sanctioned a sum of 3½ lakhs to the repair of monuments in United Provinces, and soon after appointed a conservator, Major Cole, who did useful work for three years. Then a reaction set in, and his post and that of the Director-General were abolished. The first systematic step towards recognising official responsibility in conservation matters was taken by Lord Curzon's Government, who established seven of the eight Archæological Circles that now obtain, placed them on a permanent footing and united them together under the control of a Director-General, provision being also made for subsidising local Governments out of imperial funds, when necessary. The Ancient Monuments Preservation Act was passed for the protection of historic monuments and relics especially in private possession and also for State control over the excavation of ancient sites and traffic in antiquities. Under the direction of Sir John Marshall, Kt., C.I.E., late Director-General of Archæology, a comprehensive and systematic campaign of repair and excavation has been prosecuted, and the result of it is manifest in the present altered conditions of many old and historic buildings and in the scientific excavation of buried sites such as Taxila, Pataliputra, Sanchi in the Bhopal State, Sarnath near Benares, Nalanda in Bihar, Pharapur in Bengal and Nagarjunikonda in Madras and in the Indus Valley at Harappa in the Punjab and Mohenjo-daro in Sind. Of all these works those of most general interest are the Mohenjo-daro excavations, for here the Archæological Department have unearthed remains of prehistoric cities dating back to 3000 B.C. and further. The Archæological Survey has devoted considerable attention to the organization and development of museums as centres of research and education. It maintains the archæological section of the Indian Museum at Calcutta, small museums at the Taj, and at the Forts at Agra, Delhi and Lahore, the Central Asian Antiquities Museum at New Delhi and has erected local museums at the excavated sites of Taxila, Sarnath, Nalanda, Mohanjo-daro and Harappa with the object of keeping the small movable antiquities recovered at these sites in close association with the structural remains to which they belong, so that they may be studied amid their natural surroundings and not lose focus and meaning by being transported to some distant place.

The epigraphical material dealt with by the Archæological Survey has enabled the history and chronology of the various dynasties of India to be established on a firmer basis and in greater detail. The "Epigraphia Indica" is now in the 21st volume, a revised edition of the Asoka inscriptions has been recently published while the companion volume of post Asokan Brahmi inscriptions is under preparation. A volume of non-Asokan Kharoshthi inscriptions was published two years ago.

Indian Time.

For many years Indian time was in a state of chaotic confusion. What was called Madras or Railway time was kept on all the railways: and each great centre of population kept its own local time, which was not based on any common scientific principle and was divorced from the standards of all other countries. It was with a view to remedying this confusion that the Government of India took the matter up in 1904, and addressed to the Local Governments, and through them to all local bodies, a long letter which reviewed the situation and made suggestions for the future. The essential points in this letter are indicated below:

"In India we have already a standard time, which is very generally, though by no means universally, recognised. It is the Madras local time, which is kept on all railway and telegraph lines throughout India and which is 5h. 21m. 10s. in advance of Greenwich. Similarly, Rangoon local time is used upon the railways and telegraphs of Burma, and is 6h. 24m. 47s. ahead of Greenwich. But neither of these standards bears a simple and easily remembered relation to Greenwich time.

"The Government of India have several times been addressed by Scientific Societies, both in India and in England, and urged to fall into line with the rest of the civilised world. And now the Royal Society has once more returned to the attack. The Committee of that Society which advises the Government of India upon matters connected with its observatories, writes:—'The Committee think that a change from Madras time to that corresponding to a longitude exactly 5½ hours east of Greenwich would be an improvement upon the existing arrangements; but that for international scientific purposes the hourly zone system, making the time 5 hours in advance of Greenwich in the west, and 6 hours in advance in the east of India would be preferable.'

"Now if India were connected with Europe by a continuous series of civilised nations with their continuous railway systems all of which had adopted the European hour-zone system, it would be imperative upon India to conform and to adopt the second suggestion. But as she is not, and as she is as much isolated by uncivilised States as Cape Colony is by the ocean, it is open to her to follow the example of that and some other similarly situated colonies and to adopt the first suggestion.

"It is believed that this will be the better solution. There are obvious objections to drawing an arbitrary line right across the richest and most populous portions of India, and so as to bisect all the main lines of communication, and keeping times differing by an hour on opposite sides of that line. India has become accustomed to a uniform standard in the Madras time of the railways; and the substitution for it of a double standard would appear to be a retrograde step; while it would, in all probability, be strongly opposed by the railway authorities. Moreover, it is very desirable that whatever system is adopted should be followed by all Europeans and Indians alike; and it is certain that the double standard would puzzle the latter greatly; while by emphasising the fact that railway differed from local time, it might postpone or even altogether prevent the acceptance of the former instead of the latter by people generally over a large part of India. The one great advantage which the second possesses over the first alternative is, that under the former, the difference between local and standard time can never exceed half an hour: whereas under the latter it will even exceed an hour in the extreme cases of Karachi and Quetta. But this inconvenience is believed to be smaller than that of keeping two different times on the Indian system of railways and telegraphs.

"It is proposed, therefore, to put on all the railway and telegraph clocks in India by 8m. 50s. They would then represent a time 5½ hours faster than that of Greenwich, which would be known as **Indian Standard Time**: and the difference between standard and local time at the places mentioned below would be approximately as follows, the figures representing minutes, and F. and S. meaning that the standard time is in advance of or behind local time respectively:—Dibrugarh 51 S., Shillong 38 S., Calcutta 24 S., Allahabad 2 F., Madras 9 F., Lahore 33 F., Bombay 39 F., Peshawar 44 F., Karachi 62 F., Quetta 62 F.

"This standard time would be as much as 54 and 55 minutes behind local time at Mandalay and Rangoon, respectively; and since the railway system of Burma is not connected with that of India, and already keeps a time of its own, namely, Rangoon local time, it is not suggested that Indian Standard Time should be adopted in Burma. It is proposed, however, that instead of using Rangoon Standard Time as at present, which is 6h. 24m. 47s. in advance of Greenwich, a Burma Standard Time should be adopted on all the Burmese railways and telegraphs, which would be one hour in advance of Indian Standard Time, or 6½ hours ahead of Greenwich time, and would correspond with 97° 30′ E. longitude. The change would bring Burma time into simple relation both with European and with Indian time, and would (among other things) simplify telegraphic communication with other countries.

"Standard time will thus have been fixed for railways and telegraphs for the whole of the Indian Empire. Its general adoption for all purposes, while eminently advisable, is a matter which must be left to the local community in each case."

It is difficult to recall, without a sense of bewilderment, the reception of this proposal by various local bodies. To read now the fears that were entertained if Standard Time was adopted is a study in the possibilities of human

error. The Government scheme left local bodies to decide whether or not they would adopt it. Calcutta decided to retain its own local time, and to-day Calcutta time is still twenty-four minutes in advance of Standard Time. In Bombay the first reception of the proposal was hostile; but on reconsideration the Chamber of Commerce decided in favour of it and so did the Municipality. Subsequently the opposing element in the Municipality brought in a side resolution, by which the Municipal clocks were put at Bombay time which is thirty-nine minutes behind Standard Time. On the 1st January 1906 all the railway and telegraph clocks in India were put at Indian Standard Time; in Burma the Burma Standard Time became universal. Calcutta retains its former Calcutta time; but in Bombay local time is retained only in the clocks which are maintained by the Municipality and in the establishments of some orthodox Hindus. Elsewhere Standard Time is universal.

TIDAL CONSTANTS.

The approximate standard time of High Water may be found by adding to, or subtracting from, the time of High Water at London Bridge, given in the calendar, the corrections given as below:—

		H.	M.
Gibraltar	*sub.*	0	32
Malta	*add*	1	34
Karachi	*sub.*	2	33
Bombay	„	1	44
Goa	„	2	44
Point de Galle	*add*	0	12
Madras	*sub.*	5	6
Calcutta	„	0	19
Rangoon Town	*add*	2	41
Rangoon River Entrance	*add*	1	25
Penang	*sub*	1	39
Singapore	;;	3	25
Hongkong	;;	4	27
Shanghai	;;	0	24
Yokohama	*add*	3	6
Valparaiso	*sub.*	4	40
Buenos Ayres	*add*	4	9
Monte Video	„	0	32

PROVING OF WILLS.

In British India if a person has been appointed executor of the will of a deceased person, it is always advisable to prove the will as early as possible. If the will is in a vernacular it has to be officially translated into English. A petition is then prepared praying for the grant of probate of the will. All the property left by the deceased has to be disclosed in a schedule to be annexed to the petition. The values of immovable properties are usually assessed at 16⅔ years purchase on the nett Municipal assessment. For estate under Rs. 1,000 no probate duty is payable; up to Rs. 9,000 in excess of first Rs. 1,000 the duty is at 2%, between Rs. 10,000 and Rs. 50,000 the duty payable is at 3 % and between Rs. 50,000 and 1,00,000 the duty payable is at 4% and over Rs. 1,00,000 the duty payable is @ 5%. In determining the amount of the value of the estate for the purposes of probate duty the following items are allowed to be deducted:

1. Debts left by the deceased including mortgage encumbrances.
2. The amount of funeral expenses.
3. Property held by the deceased in trust and not beneficially or with general power to confer a beneficial interest.

The particulars of all these items have to be stated in a separate schedule. It is the practice of the High Court to send a copy of these schedules to the Revenue authorities and if the properties particularly immovable properties have not been properly valued, the Revenue department require the petition to be amended accordingly. In certain cases the Court then requires citations to be published and served on such persons as the Court thinks are interested in the question of the grant of probate. If no objection is lodged by any person so interested within 14 days after the publication or service of citation and if the will is shown to have been properly executed and the petitioner entitled to probate, probate is ordered to be granted.

Coinage, Weights and Measures.

As the currency of India is based upon the rupee, statements with regard to money are generally expressed in rupees, nor has it been found possible in all cases to add a conversion into sterling. Down to about 1873 the gold value of the rupee (containing 165 grains of pure silver) was approximately equal to 2s., or one-tenth of a £, and for that period it is easy to convert rupees into sterling by striking off the final cipher (Rs. 1,000=£100). But after 1873, owing to the depreciation of silver as compared with gold throughout the world, there came a serious and progressive fall in the exchange, until at one time the gold value of the rupee dropped as low as 1s. In order to provide a remedy for the heavy loss caused to the Government of India in respect of its gold payments to be made in England, and also to relieve foreign trade and finance from the inconvenience due to constant and unforeseen fluctuations in exchange, it was resolved in 1893 to close the mints to the free coinage of silver, and thus force up the value of the rupee by restricting the circulation. The intention was to raise the exchange value of the rupee to 1s. 4d., and then introduce a gold standard at the rate of Rs. 15=£1. From 1899 onwards the value of the rupee was maintained, with insignificant fluctuations, at the proposed rate of 1s. 4d. until February 1920 when the recommendation of the Committee appointed in the previous year that the rupee should be linked with gold and not with sterling at 2s. instead of 1s. 4d. was adopted. This was followed by great fluctuations. (See article on Currency System).

Notation.—Another matter in connection with the expression of money statements in terms of rupees requires to be explained. The method of numerical notation in India differs from that which prevails throughout Europe. Large numbers are not punctuated in hundreds of thousands and millions, but in lakhs and crores. A **lakh** is one hundred thousand (written out as 1,00,000), and a **crore** is one hundred lakhs or ten millions (written out as 1,00,00,000). Consequently, according to the exchange value of the rupee, a lakh of rupees (Rs. 1,00,000) may be read as the equivalent of £10,000 before 1873, and as the equivalent of (about) £6,667 after 1899, while a crore of rupees (Rs. 1,00,00,000) may similarly be read as the equivalent of £1,000,000 before 1873, and as the equivalent of (about) £666,667 after 1899. With the rupee at 1s. 6d. a lakh is equivalent to £7,500 and a crore is equivalent to £750,000.

Coinage.—Finally, it should be mentioned that the rupee is divided into 16 annas, a fraction commonly used for many purposes by both Indians and Europeans. The anna was formerly reckoned as 1½d., it may now be considered as exactly corresponding to 1d. The anna is again sub-divided into 12 pies.

Weights.—The various systems of weights used in India combine uniformity of scale with immense variations in the weight of units. The scale used generally throughout Northern India, and less commonly in Madras and Bombay, may be thus expressed one maund = 40 seers, one seer=16 chittaks or 80 tolas. The actual weight of a seer varies greatly from district to district, and even from village to village, but in the standard system the tola is 180 grains Troy (the exact weight of the rupee), and the seer thus weighs 2·057 lb., and the maund 82·28 lb. The standard is used in official reports.

Retail.—For calculating retail prices, the universal custom in India is to express them in terms of seers to the rupee. Thus, when prices change what varies is not the amount of money to be paid for the same quantity, but the quantity to be obtained for the same amount of money. In other words, prices in India are quantity prices, not money prices. When the figure of quantity goes up, this of course means that the price has gone down, which is at first sight perplexing to an English reader. It may, however, be mentioned that quantity prices are not altogether unknown in England, especially at small shops, where pennyworths of many groceries can be bought. Eggs, likewise, are commonly sold at a varying number for the shilling. If it be desired to convert quantity prices from Indian into English denominations without having recourse to money prices (which would often be misleading), the following scale may be adopted—based upon the assumption that a seer is exactly 2 lb., and that the value of the rupee remains constant at 1s. 4d., 1 seer per rupee=(about) 3 lb. for 2s., 2 seers per rupee=(about) 6 lb. for 2s., and so on.

The name of the unit for square measurement in India generally is the *bigha*, which varies greatly in different parts of the country But areas have been expressed in this work either in square miles or in acres.

Proposed Reforms.—Indian weights and measures have never been settled upon an organised basis suitable for commerce and trade characteristic of the modern age. They vary from town to town and village to village in a way that could only work satisfactorily so long as the dealings of towns and villages were self-contained and before roads and railways opened up trade between one and the other. It is pointed out that in England a hogshead of wine contains 63 gallons and a hogshead of beer only 54 gallons; that a bushel of corn weighs 46 lbs. in Sunderland and 240 lbs. in Cornwall; that the English stone weight represents 14 lbs. in popular estimation, but only 5 lbs., if we are weighing glass, and eight for meat, but 6 lbs. for cheese. Similar instances are multiplied in India by at least as many times as India is bigger than England. If we take, for instance, the maund denomination of weight common all over India, we shall find that in a given city there are nearly as many maunds as there are articles to weigh. If we consider the maund as between district and district the state of affairs is worse. Thus in the United Provinces alone, the maund of sugar weighs 48½ seers in

Cawnpore, 40 in Muttra, 72½ in Gorakhpur, 40 in Agra, 50 in Moradabad, 43¾ in Saharanpur, 50 in Bareilly, 46 in Fyzabad, 48¼ in Shahjehanpur, 51 in Goshangunze. The maund varies throughout all India from the Bengal or railway maund of 82-2/7 lbs. to the Factory maund of 74 lbs. 10 oz. 11 drs., the Bombay maund of 28 lbs., which apparently answers to the Forest Department maund in use at the Fuel Depot, and the Madras maund, which some authorities estimate at 25 lbs. and others at 24 lbs. and so on.

Committees of Inquiry.—These are merely typical instances which are multiplied indefinitely. There are variations of every detail of weights and measures in every part of India. The losses to trade arising from the confusion and the trouble which this state of things causes are heavy. Municipal and commercial bodies are continually returning to the problem with a view to devising a practical scheme of reform. The Supreme and Provincial Governments have made various attempts during 40 years past to solve the problem of universal units of weights and measures and commerce and trade have agitated about the question for the past century. The Indian railways and Government departments adopted a standard tola (180 grains), seer (80 tolas) and maund (40 seers) and it was hoped that this would act as a successful "lead" which would gradually be followed by trade throughout the empire, but the expectation has not been realised.

The Government of India considered the whole question in consultation with the provincial Governments in 1890-1894 and various special steps have at different times been taken in different parts of India. The Government of Bombay appointed a committee in 1911 to make proposals for reform for the Bombay Presidency. Their final report has not been published, but they presented in 1912 an *ad interim* report which has been issued for public discussion. In brief, it points out the practical impossibility of proceeding by compulsory measures affecting the whole of India. The Committee stated that over the greater part of the Bombay Presidency a standard of weights and measures would be heartily welcome by the people. They thought that legislation compulsorily applied over large areas subject to many diverse conditions of trade and social life would not result in bringing about the desired reform so successfully as a "lead" supplied by local legislation based on practical experience. The want of coherence, *savoir faire*, or the means of co-operation among the people at large pointed to this conclusion. The Committee pointed out that a good example of the results that will follow a good lead is apparent in the East Khandesh District of the Presidency, where the District Officer, Mr. Simcox, gradually, during the course of three years, induced the people to adopt throughout the district uniform weights and measures, the unit of weight in this case being a tola of 180 grains. But the committee abstained from recommending that the same weights and measures should be adopted over the whole Presidency, preferring that a new system started in any area should be as nearly as possible similar to the best system already prevailing there.

Committee of 1913.—The whole problem was again brought under special consideration by the Government of India in October, 1913, when the following committee was appointed to inquire into the entire subject anew:—

Mr. C. A. Silberrard (*President*).
Mr. A. Y. G. Campbell.
Mr. Rustomji Fardoonji.

This Committee reported, in August 1915, in favour of a uniform system of weights to be adopted in India based on the 180 grain tola. The report says:—Of all such systems there is no doubt that the most widespread and best known is that known as the Bengal or Indian Railway weights. The introduction of this system involves a more or less considerable change of system in parts of the United Provinces (Gorakhpur, Bareilly and neighbouring areas), practically the whole of Madras, parts of the Punjab (rural portions of Amritsar and neighbouring districts), of Bombay (South Bombay, Bombay city and Gujarat), and the North-West Frontier Province. Burma has at present a separate system of its own which the committee think it should be permitted to retain. The systems recommended are:—

FOR INDIA.

8 khaskhas	= 1 chawal
8 chawals	= 1 ratti
8 rattis	= 1 masha
12 mashes or 4 tanks	= 1 tola
5 tolas	= 1 chatak
16 chataks	= 1 seer
40 seers	= 1 maund

FOR BURMA.

2 small ywes	= 1 large ywe
4 large ywes	= 1 pe
2 pes	= 1 mu
5 pes or 2½ mus	= 1 mat
1 mat	= 1 ngamu
2 ngamus	= 1 tikal [viss.
100 tikals	= 1 peiktha or

The tola is the tola of 180 grains, equal to the rupee weight. The viss has recently been fixed at 3·60 lbs. or 140 tolas.

Government Action.—The Government of India at first approved the principles of the Report and left the Provincial Governments to take action, but they passed more detailed orders in January, 1922. In these they again, for the present and subject to the restrictions imposed by the Government of India Act and the devolution rules, left it entirely to local Governments to take such action as they think advisable to standardise dry and liquid measures of capacity within their provinces. Similarly, they announced their decision not to adopt all-India standards of length or area.

As regards weights they decided in favour of the standard mentioned under the heading "Weights", near the commencement of this article, this having been recommended by a majority of the Weights and Measures Committee and having received the unanimous support of the Local Governments. At the same time they provisionally undertook to assist provincial legislation or standardisation and stated that "if subsequently, opinion develops strongly in favour of the Imperial standardisation of weights, the Government of India will be prepared to undertake such legislation, but at present they consider that any such step would be premature.

The History of India in Outline.

No history of India can be proportionate and the briefest summary must suffer from the same defect. Even a wholesale acceptance as history of mythology, tradition, and folklore will not make good, though it makes picturesque; the many gaps that exist in the early history of India: and, though the labours of modern geographers and archæologists have been amazingly fruitful, it cannot be expected that these gaps will ever be filled to any appreciable extent. Approximate accuracy in chronology and an outline of dynastic facts are all that the student can look for up to the time of Alexander, though the briefest excursion into the by-ways of history will reveal to him many alluring and mysterious fields for speculation. There are, for example, to this day castes that believe they sprang originally from the loins of a being who landed "from an impossible boat on the shores of a highly improbable sea"; and the great epic poems contain plentiful statements equally difficult of reconciliation with modern notions of history as a science. But from the Jataka stories and the Puranas, much valuable information is to be obtained, and, for the benefit of those unable to go to these and other original sources, it has been distilled by a number of writers.

The orthodox Hindu begins the political history of India more than 3,000 years before Christ, with the war waged on the banks of the Jumna between the sons of Kuru and the sons of Pandu. Recent excavations by the Archæological Department in the Indus Valley at Harappa in the Punjab, but more particularly at Mohenjc Daro in Sind, carry us back even further. They have uncovered sites of cities bearing the marks and containing the relics of a high civilisation stated by the Department to be Sumerian. The excavations are proceeding under special direction and have excited the greatest interest in scientific circles throughout the world, but the general critic omits several of those remote centuries and takes 600 B.C., or thereabouts as his starting point. At that time much of the country was covered with forest, but the Aryan races, who had entered India from the north, had established in parts a form of civilization far superior to that of the aboriginal savages and to this day there survive cities, like Benares, founded by those invaders. In like manner the Dravidian invaders from an unknown land, who overran the Deccan and the Southern part of the Peninsula, crushed the aborigines, and at a much later period, were themselves subdued by the Aryans. Of these two civilizing forces, the Aryan is the better known, and of the Aryan kingdoms the first of which there is authentic record is that of Magadha, or Bihar, on the Ganges. It was in, or near, this powerful kingdom that Jainism and Buddhism had their origin, and the fifth King of Magadha, Bimbisara by name, was the friend and patron of Gautama Buddha. The King mentioned was a contemporary of Darius, autocrat of Persia (521 to 485 B.C.) who annexed the Indus valley and formed from his conquest an Indian satrapy which paid as tribute the equivalent of about one million sterling. Detailed history, however, does not become possible until the invasion of Alexander in 326 B.C.

Alexander the Great.

That great soldier had crossed the Hindu Kush in the previous year and had captured Aornos, on the Upper Indus. In the spring of 326 he crossed the river at Ohind, received the submission of the King of Taxila, and marched against Porus who ruled the fertile country between the rivers Hydaspes (Jhelum) and Akesines (Chenab). The Macedonian carried all before him, defeating Porus at the battle of the Hydaspes, and crossing the Chenab and Ravi. But at the River Hyphasis (Bias) his weary troops mutinied, and Alexander was forced to turn back and retire to the Jhelum where a fleet to sail down the rivers to the sea was nearly ready. The wonderful story of Alexander's march through Mekran and Persia to Babylon, and of the voyage of Nearchus up the Persian Gulf is the climax to the narrative of the invasion but is not part of the history of India. Alexander had stayed nineteen months in India and left behind him officers to carry on the Government of the kingdoms he had conquered: but his death at Babylon, in 323, destroyed the fruits of what has to be regarded as nothing but a brilliant raid, and within two years his successors were obliged to leave the Indian provinces, heavily scarred by war but not hellenized.

The leader of the revolt against Alexander's generals was a young Hindu, Chandragupta, who was an illegitimate member of the Royal Family of Magadha. He dethroned the ruler of that kingdom, and became so powerful that he is said to have been able to place 600,000 troops in the field against Seleucus, to whom Babylon had passed on the death of Alexander. This was too formidable an opposition to be faced, and a treaty of peace was concluded between the Syrian and Indian monarchs which left the latter the first paramount Sovereign of India (321 B.C.) with his capital at Pataliputra, the modern Patna and Bankipore. Of Chandragupta's court and administration a very full account is preserved in the fragments that remain of the history compiled by Megasthenes, the ambassador sent to India by Seleucus. His memorable reign ended in 297 B.C. when he was succeeded by his son Bindusara, who in his turn was succeeded by Asoka (269—231 B.C.) who recorded the events of his reign in numerous inscriptions. This king, in an unusually bloody war, added to his dominions the kingdom of Kalinga (the Northern Circars) and then becoming a convert to Buddhism, resolved for the future to abstain from conquest by force of arms. The consequences of the conversion of Asoka were amazing. He was not intolerant of other religions, and did not endeavour to force his creed on his "children". But he initiated measures for the propagation of his doctrine with the result that "Buddhism" which had hitherto been a merely local sect in the valley of the Ganges, was transformed into one of the greatest religions of the world—the greatest, probably, it measured by the number of adherents. This is Asoka's claim to be remembered; this it is which makes his reign an epoch, not only in the history of India, but

in that of the world." The wording of his edicts reveal him as a great king as well as a great missionary, and it is to be hoped that the excavations now being carried on in the ruins of his palace may throw yet more light on his character and times. On his death the Maurya kingdom fell to pieces. Even during his reign there had been signs of new forces at work on the borderland of India; where the independent kingdoms of Bactria and Parthia had been formed, and subsequent to it there were frequent Greek raids into India. The Greeks in Bactria, however, could not withstand the overwhelming force of the westward migration of the Yueh-chi horde, which, in the first century A.D., also ousted the Indo-Parthian kings from Afghanistan and North-Western India.

The first of these Yueh-chi kings to annex a part of India was Kadphises II (A.D. 85—125), who had been defeated in a war with China, but crossed the Indus and consolidated his power eastward as far as Benares. His son Kanishka (whose date is much disputed) left a name which to Buddhists stands second only to that of Asoka. He greatly extended the boundaries of his empire in the North, and made Peshawar his capital. Under him the power of the Kushan clan of the Yueh-chi reached its zenith and did not begin to decay until the end of the second century, concurrently with the rise in middle India of the Andhra dynasty which constructed the Amaravati stupa, "one of the most elaborate and precious monuments of piety ever raised by man."

The Gupta Dynasty.

Early in the fourth century there arose, at Pataliputra, the Gupta dynasty which proved of great importance. Its founder was a local chief, his son Samudragupta, who ruled for some fifty years from A.D. 326, was a king of the greatest distinction. His aim of subduing all India was not indeed fulfilled but he was able to exact tribute from the kingdoms of the South and even from Ceylon, and, in addition to being a warrior, he was a patron of the arts and of Sanskrit literature. The rule of his son, Chandragupta, was equally distinguished and is commemorated in an inscription on the famous iron pillar near Delhi, as well as in the writings of the Chinese pilgrim Fa-hien who pays a great tribute to the equitable administration of the country. It was not until the middle of the fifth century that the fortunes of the Gupta dynasty began to wane—in face of the onset of the White Huns from Central Asia—and by 480 the dynasty had disappeared. The following century all over India was one of great confusion, apparently marked only by the rise and fall of petty kingdoms, until a monarch arose, in A. D. 606, capable of consolidating an Empire. This was the Emperor Harsha who, from Thanasar near Ambala, conquered Northern India and extended his territory South to the Nerbudda. Imitating Asoka in many ways, this Emperor yet "felt no embarrassment in paying adoration in turn to Siva, the Sun, and Buddha at a great public ceremonial." Of his times a graphic picture has been handed down in the work of a Chinese "Master of the Law," Hiuen Tsiang by name. Harsha was the last native paramount sovereign of Northern India; on his death in 648 his throne was usurped by a Minister, whose treacherous conduct towards an embassy from China was quickly avenged and the kingdom so laboriously established lapsed into a state of internecine strife which lasted for a century and a half.

The Andhras and Rajputs.

In the meantime in Southern India the Andhras had attained to great prosperity and carried on a considerable trade with Greece, Egypt and Rome, as well as with the East. Their domination ended in the fifth century A.D. and a number of new dynasties, of which the Pallavas were the most important, began to appear. The Pallavas made way in turn for the Chalukyas, who for two centuries remained the most important Deccan dynasty, one branch uniting with the Cholas. But the fortunes of the Southern dynasties are so involved, and in many cases so little known, that to recount them briefly is impossible. Few names of note stand out from the record except those of Vikramaditya (11th century) and a few of the later Hindu rulers who made a stand against the growing power of Islam; of the rise of which an account is given below. In fact the history of mediæval India is singularly devoid of unity. Northern India was in a state of chaos from about 650 to 950 A.D. not unlike that which prevailed in Europe of that time, and materials for the history of these centuries are very scanty. In the absence of any powerful rulers the jungle began to gain back what had been wrested from it: ancient capitals fell into ruins from which in some cases they have not even yet been disturbed, and the aborigines and various foreign tribes began to assert themselves so successfully that the Aryan element was chiefly confined to the Doab and the Eastern Punjab. It is not therefore so much for the political as for the religious and social history of this anarchical period that one must look. And the greatest event—if a slow process may be called an event—of the middle ages was the transition from tribe to caste, the final disappearance of the old four-fold division of Brahmans; Kshattriyas, Vaisyas, and Sudras, and the formation of the new division of pure and impure largely resting upon a classification of occupations. But this social change was only a part of the development of the Hindu religion into a form which would include in its embrace the many barbarians and foreigners in the country who were outside it. The great political event of the period was the rise of the Rajputs as warriors in the place of the Kshattriyas. Their origin is obscure but they appeared in the 8th century and spread, from their two original homes in Rajputana and Oudh, into the Punjab, Kashmir, and the Central Himalayas, assimilating a number of fighting clans and binding them together with a common code. At this time Kashmir was a small kingdom which exercised an influence on India wholly disproportionate to its size. The only other kingdom of importance was that of Kanauj—in the Doab and Southern Oudh—which still retained some of the power to which it had reached in the days of Harsha, and of which the renown extended to China and Arabia.

With the end of the period of anarchy, the political history of India centres round the Rajputs. One clan founded the kingdom of Gujarat, another held Malwa, another (the Chauhans) founded a kingdom of which Ajmer was the capital, and so on. Kanauj fell into the hands of the Rathors (circ 1040 A.D.) and the dynasty then founded by that branch of the Gaharwars of Benares became one of the most famous in India. Later in the same century the Chauhans were united, and by 1163 one of them could boast that he had conquered all the country from the Vindhyas to the Himalayas, including Delhi already a fortress a hundred years old. The son of this conqueror was Prithwi Raj, the champion of the Hindus against the Mahomedans. With his death in battle (1192) ends the golden age of the new civilization that had been evolved out of chaos; and of the greatness of that age there is a splendid memorial in the temples and forts of the Rajput states and in the two great philosophical systems of Sankaracharya (ninth century) and Ramanuja (twelfth century). The triumph of Hinduism had been achieved, it must be added, at the expense of Buddhism, which survived only in Magadha at the time of the Mahomedan conquest and speedily disappeared there before the new faith.

Mahomedan India.

The wave of Mahomedan invaders that eventually swept over the country first touched India, in Sind, less than a hundred years after the death of the Prophet in 632. But the first real contact was in the tenth century when a Turkish slave of a Persian ruler founded a kingdom at Ghazni, between Kabul and Kandahar. A descendant of his, Mahmud (967-1030) made repeated raids into the heart of India, capturing places so far apart as Multan, Kanauj, Gwalior, and Somnath in Kathiawar, but permanently occupying only a part of the Punjab. Enduring Mahomedan rule was not established until the end of the twelfth century, by which time, from the little territory of Ghor, there had arisen one Mahomed Ghori capable of carving out a kingdom stretching from Peshawar to the Bay of Bengal. Prithwi Raj, the Chauhan ruler of Delhi and Ajmer, made a brave stand against, and once defeated, one of the armies of this ruler, but was himself defeated in the following year. Mahomed Ghori was murdered at Lahore (1206) and his vast kingdom, which had been governed by satraps, was split up into what were practically independent sovereignties. Of these satraps, Qutb-ud-din, the slave ruler of Delhi and Lahore, was the most famous, and is remembered by the great mosque he built near the modern Delhi. Between his rule and that of the Mughals, which began in 1526, only a few of the many Kings who governed and fought and built beautiful buildings, stand out with distinction. One of these was Ala-ud-din (1296-1316), whose many expeditions to the south much weakened the Hindu Kings, and who proved himself to be a capable administrator. Another was Firoz Shah, of the house of Tughlaq, whose administration was in many respects admirable, but which ended, on his abdication, in confusion. In the reign of his successor, Mahmud (1398-1413), the kingdom of Delhi went to pieces and India was for seven months at the mercy of the Turkish conqueror Taimur. It was the end of the fifteenth century before the kingdom, under Sikandar Lodi, began to recover. His son, Ibrahim, still further extended the kingdom that had been recreated, but was defeated by Babar, King of Kabul, at Panipat, near Delhi, in 1526, and there was then established in India the Mughal dynasty.

The Mahomedan dynasties that had ruled in capital other than Delhi up to this date were of comparative unimportance, though some great men appeared among them. In Gujarat, for example, Ahmad Shah, the founder of Ahmedabad, showed himself a good ruler and builder as well as a good soldier, though his grandson, Mahmud Shah Begara, was a greater ruler—acquiring fame at sea as well as on land. In the South various kings of the Bahmani dynasty made names for themselves especially in the long wars they waged on the new Hindu kingdom that had arisen which had its capital at Vijayanagar. Of importance also was Adil Khan, a Turk, who founded (1490) the Bijapur dynasty of Adil Shahis. It was one of his successors who crushed the Vijayanagar dynasty, and built the great mosque for which Bijapur is famous.

The Mughal Empire.

As one draws near to modern times it becomes impossible to present anything like a coherent and consecutive account of the growth of India as a whole. Detached threads in the story have to be picked up one by one and followed to their ending, and although the sixteenth century saw the first European settlements in India, it will be convenient here to continue the narrative of Mahomedan India almost to the end of the Mughal Empire. How Babar gained Delhi has already been told. His son, Humayun, greatly extended his kingdom, but was eventually defeated (1540) and driven into exile by Sher Khan, an Afghan of great capabilities, whose short reign ended in 1545. The Sur dynasty thus founded by Sher Khan lasted another ten years when Humayun having snatched Kabul from one of his brothers, was strong enough to win back part of his old kingdom. When Humayun died (1556) his eldest son, Akbar, was only 13 years old and was confronted by many rivals. Nor was Akbar well served, but his career of conquest was almost uninterrupted and by 1594 the whole of India North of the Nerbudda had bowed to his authority and he subsequently entered the Deccan and captured Ahmednagar. This great ruler, who was as remarkable for his religious tolerance as for his military prowess, died in 1605, leaving behind him a record that has been surpassed by few. His son, Jehangir, who married the Persian lady Nur Jahan; ruled until 1627, bequeathing to an admiring posterity some notable buildings—the tomb of his father at Sikandra, part of the palace of Agra, and the palace and fortress of Lahore. His son, Shahjahan, was for many years occupied with wars in the Deccan, but found time to make his court of incredible magnificence and to build the most famous and beautiful of all tombs, the Taj Mahal, as well as the fort, palace and Juma Masjid at Delhi. The quarrels of his sons led to the deposition of

Shahjahan by one of them, Aurangzeb, in 1658. This Emperor's rule was one of constant intrigue and fighting in every direction, the most important of his wars being a twenty-five years' struggle against the Marathas of the Deccan who, under the leadership of Shivaji, became a very powerful faction in Indian politics. His bigoted attitude towards Hinduism made Aurangzeb all the more anxious to establish his Empire on a firm basis in the south, but he was unable to hold his many conquests, and on his death (1707) the Empire; for which his three sons were fighting could not be held together. Internal disorder and Maratha encroachments continued during the reigns of his successors, and in 1739 a fresh danger appeared in the person of Nadir Shah, the Persian conqueror, who carried all before him. On his withdrawal, leaving Mahomed Shah on the throne, the old intrigues recommenced and the Marathas began to make the most of the opportunity offered to them by puppet rulers at Delhi and by almost universal discord throughout what had been the Mughal Empire. There is little to add to the history of Mahomedan India. Emperors continued to reign in name at Delhi up to the middle of the 19th century, but their territory and power had long since disappeared, being swallowed up either by the Marathas or by the British.

European Settlements.

The voyage of Vasco da Gama to India in 1498 was what turned the thoughts of the Portuguese to the formation of a great Empire in the East. That idea was soon realized, for from 1500 onwards, constant expeditions were sent to India and the first two Viceroys in India—Almeida and Albuquerque—laid the foundations of a great Empire and of a great trade monopoly. Goa, taken in 1510, became the capital of Portuguese India and remains to this day in the hands of its captors, and the countless ruins of churches and forts on the shores of Western India, as also farther East at Malacca, testify to the zeal with which the Portuguese endeavoured to propagate their religion and to the care they took to defend their settlements. There were great soldiers and great missionaries among them—Albuquerque, da Cunha, da Castro in the former class, St. Francis Xavier in the latter. But the glory of Empire loses something of its lustre when it has to be paid for, and the constant drain of men and money from Portugal, necessitated by the attacks made on their possessions in India and Malaya, was found most intolerable. The junction of Portugal with Spain, which lasted from 1580 to 1640, also tended to the downfall of the Eastern Empire and when Portugal became independent again, it was unequal to the task of competing in the East with the Dutch and English. The Dutch had little difficulty in wresting the greater part of their territory from the Portuguese, but the seventeenth century naval wars with England forced them to relax their hold upon the coast of India, and during the French wars between 1795 and 1811 England took all Holland's Eastern possessions, and the Dutch have left in India but few traces of their civilisation and of the once powerful East India Company of the Netherlands.

The first English attempts to reach India date from 1496 when Cabot tried to find the North-West passage, and these attempts were repeated all through the sixteenth century. The first Englishman to land in India is said to have been one Thomas Stephens (1579) who was followed by a number of merchant adventurers, but trade between the two countries really dates from 1600 when Elizabeth incorporated the East India Company which had been formed in London. Factories in India were founded only after Portuguese and Dutch position had been overcome, notably in the sea fight off Swally (Suvali) in 1612. The first factory, at Surat, was for many years the most important English foothold in the East. Its establishment was followed by others, including Fort St. George, Madras, (1640) and Hughli (1651). In the history of these early years of British enterprise in India the cession of Bombay (1661) as part of the dower of Catherine of Braganza stands out as a land-mark; it also illustrates the weakness of the Portuguese at that date, since in return the King of England undertook to protect the Portuguese in India against their foes—the Marathas and the Dutch. Cromwell, by his treaty of 1654, had already obtained from the Portuguese an acknowledgment of England's right to trade in the East; and that right was now threatened, not by the Portuguese, but by Sivaji and by the general disorder prevalent in India. Accordingly, in 1686, the Company turned its attention to acquiring territorial power, and announced its intention to establish such a policy of civil and military power, and create and secure such a large revenue.....as may be the foundation of a large, well-grounded, sure English dominion in India for all time to come. Not much came of this announcement for some time, and no stand could be made in Bengal against the depredations of Aurangzeb. The foundations of Calcutta (1690) could not be laid by Job Charnock until after a humiliating peace had been concluded with that Emperor, and, owing to the difficulties in which the Company found itself in England, there was little chance of any immediate change for the better. The union of the old East India Company with the new one which had been formed in rivalry to it took place in 1708, and for some years peaceful development followed; though Bombay was always exposed by sea to attacks from the pirates, who had many strongholds within easy reach of that port, and on land to attacks from the Marathas. The latter danger was felt also in Calcutta. Internal dangers were numerous and still more to be feared. More than one mutiny took place among the troops sent out from England, and rebellions like that led by Keigwin in Bombay threatened to stifle the infant settlements. The public health was bad and the rate of mortality was at times appalling. To cope with such conditions strong men were needed, and the Company was in this respect peculiarly fortunate; the long list of its servants, from Oxenden and Aungier to Hastings and Raffles, contains many names of men who proved themselves good rulers and far-sighted statesmen, the finest Empire-builders the world has known.

Attempts to compete with the English were made of course. But the schemes of the Emperor Charles VI to secure a share of the Indian trade were not much more successful than those made by Scotland, Denmark, Sweden, and Russia. By the French, who founded Pondicherry and Chandernagore towards the end of the 17th century, much more was achieved, as will be seen from the following outline of the development of British rule.

The French Wars.

When war broke out between England and France in 1744, the French had acquired a strong position in Southern India, which had become independent of Delhi and was divided into three large States—Hyderabad, Tanjore, and Mysore—and a number of petty states under local chieftains. In the affairs of these States Dupleix, when Governor of Pondicherry, had intervened with success, and when Madras was captured by a French squadron, under La Bourdonnais (1746) Dupleix wished to hand it over to the Nawab of Arcot—a deputy of the Nizam's who ruled in the Carnatic. The French, however, kept Madras, repelling an attack by the disappointed Nawab as well as the British attempts to recapture it. The treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle restored Madras to the English. The fighting had shown the Indian powers the value of European troops, and this was again shown in the next French war (1750-54) when Clive achieved enduring fame by his capture and subsequent defence of Arcot. This war arose from Dupleix supporting candidates for the disputed successions at Arcot and Hyderabad while the English at Madras put forward their own nominees. One of Dupleix's officers, the Marquis de Bussy, persuaded the Nizam to take into his pay the army which had established his power, and in return the Northern Circars, between Orissa and Madras, was granted to the French. This territory, however, was captured by the English in the seven years' war (1756-63). Dupleix had by then been recalled to France. Lally, who had been sent to drive the English out of India, captured Fort St. David and invested Madras. But the victory which Colonel (Sir Eyre) Coote won at Wandiwash (1760) and the surrender of Pondicherry and Gingee put an end to the French ambitions of Empire in Southern India. Pondicherry passed more than once from the one nation to the other before settling down to its present existence as a French colony in miniature.

Battle of Plassey.

While the English were fighting the third French war in the South they became involved in grave difficulties in Bengal, where Siraj-ud-Daula had acceded to power. The headquarters of the English at Calcutta were threatened by that ruler who demanded they should surrender a refugee and should cease building fortifications. They refused and he marched against them with a large army. Some of the English took to their ships and made off down the river, the rest surrendered and were cast into the jail known as the "Black Hole." From this small and stifling room 23 persons, out of 146, came out alive the next day. Clive who was at Madras, immediately sailed for Calcutta with Admiral Watson's squadron; recaptured the town (1757), and, as war with the French had been proclaimed, proceeded to take Chandernagore. The Nawab Siraj-ud-Daula then took the side of the French, and Clive, putting forward Mir Jafar as candidate for the Nawab's throne, marched out with an army consisting of 900 Europeans, 2,000 sepoys and 8 pieces of artillery against the Nawab's host of over 50,000. The result was the historic battle of Plassey (June 23) in which Clive, after hesitating on the course to be pursued, routed the Nawab. Mir Jafar was put on the throne at Murshidabad, and the price of this honour was put at £2,340,000 in addition to the grant to the Company of the land round Calcutta now known as the District of the twenty-four Parganas. In the year after Plassey, Clive was appointed Governor of Bengal and in that capacity sent troops against the French in Madras and in person led a force against the Oudh army that was threatening Mir Jafar, in each case with success. From 1760 to 1765 Clive was in England. During his absence the Council at Calcutta deposed Mir Jafar and, for a price, put Mir Kasim in his place. This ruler moved his capital to Monghyr, organized an army, and began to intrigue with the Nawab Wazir of Oudh. He soon found, in a dispute over customs dues, an opportunity of quarrelling with the English and the first shots fired by his followers were the signal for a general rising in Bengal. About 200 Englishmen and a number of sepoys were massacred, but his trained regiments were defeated at Gheria and Oodeynullah, and Mir Kasim sought protection from the Nawab of Oudh. But in 1764, after quelling a sepoy mutiny in his own camp by blowing 24 ringleaders from the guns, Major (Sir Hector) Munro defeated the joint forces of Shah Alam, the Mughal Emperor, and the Nawab of Oudh in the battle of Buxar. In 1765 Clive (now Baron Clive of Plassey) returned as Governor; "Two landmarks stand out in his policy. First, he sought the substance, although not the name, of territorial power, under the fiction of a grant from the Mughal Emperor. Second, he desired to purify the Company's service, by prohibiting illicit gains, and by guaranteeing a reasonable pay from honest sources. In neither respect were his plans carried out by his immediate successors. But our efforts towards a sound administration date from this second Governorship of Clive as our military supremacy dates from his victory at Plassey." Before Clive left India; in 1767, he had readjusted the divisions of Northern India and had set up a system of Government in Bengal by which the English received the revenues and maintained the army while the criminal jurisdiction was vested in the Nawab. The performance of his second task, the purification of the Company's service, was hotly opposed but carried out. He died in 1774 by his own hand, the House of Commons having in the previous year censured him, though admitting that he did render "great and meritorious services to his country."

Warren Hastings.

The dual system of government that Clive had set up proved a failure and Warren Hastings was appointed Governor, in 1772, to carry out the reforms settled by the Court of Directors

which were to give them the entire care and administration of the revenues. Thus Hastings had to undertake the administrative organization of India, and, in spite of the factious attitude of Philip Francis, with whom he fought a duel and of other members of his Council, he reorganized the civil service, reformed the system of revenue collection, greatly improved the financial position of the Company, and created courts of justice and some semblance of a police force. From 1772 to 1774 he was Governor of Bengal, and from 1774 to 1775 he was the first Governor-General, nominated under an Act of Parliament passed in the previous year. His financial reforms, and the forced contributions he enacted from the rebellious Chet Singh and the Begam of Oudh, were interpreted in England as acts of oppression and formed, together with his action in the trial of Nuncomar for forgery, the basis of his seven years' trial before the House of Lords which ended in a verdict of not guilty on all the charges. But there is much more for which his administration is justly famous. The recovery of the Marathas from their defeat at Panipat was the cardinal factor that influenced his policy towards the native states. One frontier was closed against Maratha invasion by the loan of a British brigade to the Nawab Wazir of Oudh, for his war against the Rohillas, who were intriguing with the Marathas. In Western India he found himself committed to the two Maratha wars (1775-82) owing to the ambition of the Bombay Government to place its own nominee on the throne of the Peshwa at Poona, and the Bengal troops that he sent over made amends, by the conquest of Gujrat and the capture of Gwalior, for the disgrace of Wadgaon where the Marathas overpowered a Bombay army. In the South—where interference from Madras had already led (1769) to what is known as the first Mysore war, a disastrous campaign against Hyder Ali and the Nizam—he found the Madras Government again in conflict with those two potentates. The Nizam he won over by diplomacy, but against Hyder Ali he had to despatch a Bengal army under Sir Eyre Coote. Hyder Ali died in 1782 and two years later a treaty was made with his son Tipu. It was in these acts of intervention in distant provinces that Hastings showed to best advantage as a great and courageous man, cautious, but swift in action when required. He was succeeded after an interregnum, by Lord Cornwallis (1786-93) who built on the foundations of civil administration laid by Hastings, by entrusting criminal jurisdiction to Europeans and establishing an Appellate Court of Criminal Judicature at Calcutta. In the Civil Service he separated the functions of the District Collector and Judge and organized the "writers" and "merchants" of the Company into an administrative Civil Service. This system was subsequently extended to Madras and Bombay. Lord Cornwallis is better known for his introduction, on orders from England, of the Permanent Settlement in Bengal. (See article on Land Revenue). A third Mysore war was waged during his tenure of office which ended with the submission of Tipu Sultan. Sir John Shore (Lord Teignmouth), an experienced Civil Servant, succeeded Lord Cornwallis, and, in 1798, was followed by Lord Wellesley, the friend of Pitt, whose projects were to change the map of India.

Lord Wellesley's Policy.

The French in general, and "the Corsican" in particular, were the enemy most to be dreaded for a few years before Lord Wellesley took up his duties in India, and he formed the scheme of definitively ending French schemes in Asia by placing himself at the head of a great Indian confederacy. He started by obtaining from the Nawab of Oudh the cession of large tracts of territory in lieu of payment; overdue as subsidies for British troops, he then won over the Nizam to the British side, and, after exposing the intrigues of Tipu Sultan with the French, embarked on the fourth Mysore war which ended (1799) in the fall of Seringapatam and the gallant death of Tipu. Part of Mysore, the Carnatic, and Tanjore roughly constituting the Madras Presidency of to-day then passed to British rule. The five Maratha powers—the Peshwa of Poona; the Gaekwar of Baroda, Sindhia of Gwalior; Holkar of Indore and the Raja of Nagpur—had still to be brought into the British net. The Peshwa, after being defeated by Holkar, fled to British territory and signed the Treaty of Bassein which led to the third Maratha war (1802-04) as it was regarded by Sindhia and the Raja of Nagpur at a betrayal of Maratha independence. In this the most successful of British campaigns in India; Sir Arthur Wellesley (the Duke of Wellington) and General (Lord) Lake carries all before them, the one by his victories of Assaye and Argaum and the other at Aligad, and Laswari. Later operations, such as Colonel Monson's retreat through Central India, were less fortunate. The great acquisitions of territory made under Lord Wellesley proved so expensive that the Court of Directors, becoming impatient, sent out Lord Cornwallis a second time to make peace at any price. He, however, died soon after his arrival in India; and Sir George Barlow carried on the government (1805-7) until the arrival of a stronger ruler, Lord Minto. He managed to keep the peace in India for six years, and to add to British dominions by the conquest of Java and Mauritius. His foreign policy was marked by another new departure, inasmuch as he opened relations with the Punjab, Persia, and Afghanistan, and concluded a treaty with Ranjit Singh, at Lahore, which made that Sikh ruler the loyal ally of the British for life.

The successor of Lord Minto was Lord Moira who found himself obliged almost at once to declare war on the Gurkhas of Nepal, who had been encroaching on British territory. After initial reverses, the English, under General Ochterlony, were successful and the Treaty of Sagauli (1816) was drawn up which defines British relations with Nepal to the present day. For this success Lord Moira was made Marquis of Hastings. In the same year he made preparations for the last Maratha war (1817-18) which was made necessary by the lawless conduct of the Pindaris, gangs of Pathan or Rohilla origin, whose chief patrons were the rulers of Native States. The large number of 120,000 that he collected for this purpose destroyed the Pin-

daris, annexed the dominions of the rebellious Peshwa of Poona, protected the Rajput States, made Sindhia enter upon a new treaty, and compelled Holkar to give up part of his territory. Thus Lord Hastings established the British power more firmly than ever, and when he resigned, in 1823, all the Native States outside the Punjab had become parts of the political system and British interests were permanently secured from the Persian Gulf to Singapore. Lord Amherst followed Lord Hastings, and his five years' rule (1823-28) are memorable for the first Burmese war and the capture of Bharatpur. The former operation was undertaken owing to the insolent demands and raids of the Burmese, and resulted in the Burmese ceding Assam, Aracan, and the coast of Martaban and their claims to the lower provinces. The capture of Bharatpur by Lord Combermere (1826) wiped out the repulse which General Lake had received there twenty years earlier. A disputed succession on this occasion led to the British intervention.

Social Reform.

A former Governor of Madras, Lord William Bentinck, was the next Governor-General. His epitaph by Macaulay, says: "He abolished cruel rites; he effaced humiliating distinctions; he gave liberty to the expression of public opinion; his constant study was to elevate the intellectual and moral character of the nations committed to his charge."

Some of his financial reforms, forced on him from England, and his widening of the gates by which educated Indians could enter the service of the Company, were most unpopular at the time, but were eclipsed by the acts he took for the abolition of *Sati*, or widow-burning, and the suppression—with the help of Captain Sleeman—of the professional hereditary assassins known as *Thags*. In 1832 he annexed Cachar, and, two years later, Coorg. The incompetence of the ruler of Mysore forced him to take that State also under British administration—where it remained until 1881. His rule was marked in other ways by the despatch of the first steamship that made the passage from Bombay to Suez, and by his settlement of the long educational controversy in favour of the advocates of instruction in English and the vernaculars. Lord William Bentinck left India (1835) with his programme of reforms unfinished. The new Charter Act of 1833 had brought to a close the commercial business of the Company and emphasized their position as rulers of an Indian Empire in trust for the Crown. By it the whole administration, as well as the legislation of the country, was placed in the hands of the Governor-General in Council, and authority was given to create a Presidency of Agra. Before his retirement Bentinck assumed the statutory title of Governor-General of India (1834), thus marking the progress of consolidation since Warren Hastings in 1774 became the first Governor-General of Fort William. Sir Charles Metcalfe, being senior member of Council, succeeded Lord William Bentinck, and during his short tenure of office carried into execution his predecessor's measures for giving entire liberty to the press.

Afghan Wars.

With the appointment of Lord Auckland as Governor-General (1836-42) there began a new era of war and conquest. Before leaving London he announced that he looked with exultation to the prospect of "promoting education and knowledge, and of extending the blessings of good Government and happiness to millions in India;" but his administration was almost exclusively comprised in a fatal expedition to Afghanistan, which dragged in its train the annexation of Sind, the Sikh wars, and the inclusion of Baluchistan in the protectorate of India. The first Afghan war was undertaken partly to counter the Russian advance in Central Asia and partly to place on the throne at Kabul the dethroned ruler Shah Shuja in place of Dost Mahomed. The latter object was easily attained (1839) and for two years Afghanistan remained in the military occupation of the British. In 1841 Sir Alexander Burnes was assassinated in Kabul and Sir William Macnaghten suffered the same fate in an interview with the son of Dost Mahomed. The British Commander in Kabul, Gen. Elphinstone, was old and feeble, and after two months' delay he led his army of 4,500 and 12,000 camp followers back towards India in the depth of winter. Between Kabul and Jallalabad the whole force perished, either at the hands of the Afghans or from cold, and Dr. Brydon was the only survivor who reached the latter city. Lord Ellenborough succeeded Lord Auckland and was persuaded to send an army of retribution to relieve Jallalabad. One force under Gen. Pollock relieved Jallalabad and marched on Kabul, while Gen. Nott, advancing from Kandahar, captured Ghazni and joined Pollock at Kabul (1842). The bazaar at Kabul was blown up, the prisoners rescued, and the army returned to India leaving Dost Mahomed to take undisputed possession of his throne. The drama ended with a bombastic proclamation from Lord Ellenborough and the parade through the Punjab of the (spurious) gates of Somnath taken from the tomb of Mahmud of Ghazni.

Sikh Wars.

Lord Ellenborough's other wars—the conquest of Sind by Sir Charles Napier and the suppression of an outbreak in Gwalior—were followed by his recall, and the appointment of Sir Henry (1st Lord) Hardinge to be Governor-General. A soldier Governor-General was not unacceptable, for it was felt that a trial of strength was imminent between the British and the remaining Hindu power in India, the Sikhs. Ranjit Singh, the founder of the Sikh Kingdom, had died in 1839, loyal to the end to the treaty he had made with Metcalfe thirty years earlier. He left no son capable of ruling, and the *khalsa*, or central council of the Sikh army, was burning to measure its strength with the British sepoys. The intrigues of two men, Lal Singh and Fej Singh, to obtain the supreme power led to their crossing the Sutlej and invading British territory. Sir Hugh Gough, the Commander-in-Chief, and the Governor-General hurried to the frontier, and within three weeks four pitched battles were fought—at Mudki, Ferozeshah, Aliwal and Sobraon. The Sikhs were driven across the

Sutlej and Lahore surrendered to the British, but the province was not annexed. By the terms of peace the infant Dhuleep Singh was recognized as Rajah; Major Henry Lawrence was appointed Resident, to assist the Sikh Council of Regency, at Lahore; the Jullundur Doab was added to British territory; the Sikh army was limited; and a British force was sent to garrison the Punjab on behalf of the child Rajah. Lord Hardinge returned to England (1848) and was succeeded by Lord Dalhousie, the greatest of Indian proconsuls.

Dalhousie had only been in India a few months when the second Sikh war broke out. In the attack on the Sikh position at Chillianwala the British lost 2,400 officers and men besides four guns and the colours of three regiments: but before reinforcements could arrive from England, bringing Sir Charles Napier as Commander-in-Chief, Lord Gough had restored his reputation by the victory of Gujrat which absolutely destroyed the Sikh army. As a consequence the Punjab was annexed and became a British province (1849), its pacification being so well carried out, under the two Lawrences that on the outbreak of the Mutiny eight years later it remained not only quiet but loyal. In 1852 Lord Dalhousie had again to embark on war, this time in Burma, owing to the ill-treatment of British merchants in Rangoon. The lower valley of the Irawaddy was occupied from Rangoon to Prome and annexed, under the name of Pegu, to those provinces that had been acquired in the first Burmese war. British territories were enlarged in many other directions during Lord Dalhousie's tenure of office. His "doctrine of lapse" by which British rule was substituted for Indian in States where continued misrule on the failure of a dynasty made this change possible, came into practice in the cases of Satara, Jhansi, and Nagpur (which last-named State became the Central Provinces) where the rulers died without leaving male heirs. Oudh was annexed on account of its misrule. Dalhousie left many other marks on India. He reformed the administration from top to bottom, founded the Public Works Department, initiated the railways, telegraphs and postal system, and completed the great Ganges canal. He also detached the Government of Bengal from the charge of the Governor-General, and summoned representatives of the local Governments to the deliberations of the Government of India. Finally, in education he laid down the lines of a department of public instruction and initiated more practical measures than those devised by his predecessors. It was his misfortune that the mutiny, which so swiftly followed his resignation, was by many critics in England attributed to his passion for change.

Sepoy Mutiny.

Dalhousie was succeeded by Lord Canning in 1856, and in the following year the sepoys of the Bengal army mutinied and all the valley of the Ganges from Delhi to Patna rose in rebellion. The causes of this convulsion are difficult to estimate, but are probably to be found in the unrest which followed the progress of English civilisation; in the spreading of false rumours that the whole of India was to be subdued; in the confidence the sepoy troops had acquired in themselves under British leadership; and in the ambition of the educated classes to take a greater share in the government of the country. Added to this, there was in the deposed King of Delhi, Bahadur Shah, a centre of growing disaffection. Finally there was the story—not devoid of truth—that the cartridges for the new Enfield rifle were greased with fat that rendered them unclean for both Hindus and Mahomedans. And when the mutiny did break out it found the Army without many of its best officers who were employed in civil work, and the British troops reduced, in spite of Lord Dalhousie's warnings; below the number he considered essential for safety. On May 10 the sepoys at Meerut rose in mutiny, cut down a few Europeans, and, unchecked by the large European garrison, went off to Delhi where next morning the Mahomedans rose. From that centre the mutiny spread through the North-Western Provinces and Oudh into Lower Bengal. Risings in the Punjab were put down by Sir John Lawrence and his subordinates who armed the Sikhs, and with their help reduced the sepoys, and Lawrence was subsequently able to send a strong body of Sikhs to aid in the siege of Delhi. The native armies of Madras and Bombay remained for the most part true to their colours. In Central India, the contingents of some of the great chiefs joined the rebels, but Hyderabad was kept loyal by the influence of its minister, Sir Salar Jung.

The interest of the war centres round Delhi; Cawnpore and Lucknow, though in other places massacres and fighting occurred. The siege of Delhi began on June 8 when Sir Henry Barnard occupied the Ridge outside the town. Barnard died of cholera early in July, and Thomas Reed; who took his place, was obliged through illness to hand over the command to Archdale Wilson. In August Nicholson arrived with a reinforcement from the Punjab. In the meantime the rebel force in Delhi was constantly added to by the arrival of new bodies of mutineers, attacks were frequent and the losses heavy; cholera and sunstroke carried off many victims on the Ridge: and when the final assault was made in September the Delhi army could only parade 4,720 infantry, of whom 1,960 were Europeans. The arrival of siege guns made it possible to advance the batteries on September 8, and by the 13th a breach was made. On the following day three columns were led to the assault, a fourth being held in reserve. Over the ruins of the Kashmir Gate, blown in by Home and Salkeld, Col. Campbell led his men and Nicholson formed up his troops within the walls. By nightfall the British, with a loss of nearly 1,200 killed and wounded, had only secured a foothold in the city. Six days' street fighting followed and Delhi was won; but the gallant Nicholson was killed at the head of a storming party. Bahadur Shah was taken prisoner, and his two sons were shot by Captain Hudson.

Massacre at Cawnpore.

At Cawnpore the sepoys mutinied on June 27 and found in Nana Sahib, the heir of the last Peshwa, a willing leader in spite of his former professions of loyalty. There a European force of 240 with six guns had to protect 870

non-combatants, and held out for 22 days, surrendering only on the guarantee of the Nana that they should have a safe conduct as far as Allahabad. They were embarking on the boats on the Ganges when fire was opened on them, the men being shot or hacked to pieces before the eyes of their wives and children and the women being mutilated and murdered in Cawnpore to which place they were taken back. Their bodies were thrown down a well just before Havelock, having defeated the Nana's forces, arrived to the relief. In Lucknow a small garrison held out in the Residency from July 2 to September 25 against tremendous odds and enduring the most fearful hardships. The relieving force, under Havelock and Outram, was itself invested, and the garrison was not finally delivered until Sir Colin Campbell arrived in November. Fighting continued for 18 months in Oudh, which Sir Colin Campbell finally reduced, and in Central India, where Sir Hugh Rose waged a brilliant campaign against the disinherited Rani of Jhansi—who died at the head of her troops—and Tantia Topi.

Transfer to the Crown.

With the end of the mutiny there began a new era in India, strikingly marked at the outset by the Act for the Better Government of India (1858) which transferred the entire administration from the Company to the Crown. By that Act India was to be governed by, and in the name of, the Sovereign through a Secretary of State, assisted by a Council of fifteen members. At the same time the Governor-General received the title of Viceroy. The European troops of the Company, numbering about 24,000 officers and men were—greatly resenting the transfer—amalgamated with the Royal service, and the Indian Navy was abolished. On November 1, 1858, the Viceroy announced in Durbar at Allahabad that Queen Victoria had assumed the Government of India, and proclaimed a policy of justice and religious toleration. A principle already enunciated in the Charter Act of 1833 was reinforced, and all of every race or creed, were to be admitted as far as possible to those offices in the Queen's service for which they might be qualified. The aim of the Government was to be the benefit of all her subjects in India—"In their prosperity will be our strength, in their contentment our security, and in their gratitude our best reward." Peace was proclaimed in July 1859, and in the cold weather Lord Canning went on tour in the northern provinces, to receive the homage of loyal chiefs and to assure them that the "policy of lapse" was at an end. A number of other important reforms marked the closing years of Canning's Viceroyalty. The India Councils Act (1861) augmented the Governor-General's Council, and the Councils of Madras and Bombay by adding non-official members, European and Indian, for legislative purposes only. By another Act of the same year, High Courts of Judicature were constituted. To deal with the increased debt of India Mr. James Wilson was sent from England to be Financial Member of Council, and to him are due the customs system, income tax, license duty, and State paper currency. The cares of office had broken down the Viceroy's health. His successor, Lord Elgin, lived only a few months after his arrival in India, and was succeeded by Sir John (afterwards Lord) Lawrence, the "saviour of the Punjab."

Sir John Lawrence.

The chief task that fell to Sir John Lawrence was that of reorganising the Indian military system, and of reconstructing the Indian army. The latter task was carried out on the principle that in the Bengal army the proportion of Europeans to Indians in the infantry and cavalry should be one to two, and in the Madras and Bombay armies one to three: the artillery was to be almost wholly Europeans. The re-organisation was carried out in spite of financial difficulties and the saddling of Indian revenues with the cost of a war in Abyssinia with which India had no direct concern; but operations in Bhutan were all the drain made on the army in India while the re-organising process was being carried on. Two severe famines—in Orissa (1866) and Bundelkhand and Upper Hindustan (1868-9)—occurred, while Sir John Lawrence was Viceroy, and he laid down the principle for the first time in Indian history, that the officers of the Government would be held personally responsible for taking every possible means to avert death by starvation. He also created the Irrigation Department under Col. (Sir Richard) Strachey. Two commercial crises of the time have to be noted. One seriously threatened the tea industry in Bengal. The other was the consequence of the wild gambling in shares of every description that took place in Bombay during the years of prosperity for the Indian cotton industry caused by the American Civil War. The "Share Mania," however, did no permanent harm to the trade of Bombay, but was, on the other hand, largely responsible for the series of splendid buildings begun in that city during the Governorship of Sir Bartle Frere. Sir John Lawrence retired in 1869, having passed through every grade of the service, from an Assistant Magistracy to the Viceroyalty. Lord Mayo, who succeeded him, created an Agricultural Department and introduced the system of Provincial Finance, thus fostering the impulse to local self-government. He also laid the foundation for the reform of the salt duties, thereby enabling his successors to abolish the inter-provincial customs lines. Unhappily his vast schemes for the development of the country by extending communications of every kind were not carried out to the full by him, for he was murdered in the convict settlement of the Andaman Islands, in 1872. Lord Northbrook (Viceroy 1872-6) had to exercise his abilities chiefly in the province of finance. A severe famine which threatened Lower Bengal in 1874 was successfully warded off by the organization of State relief and the importation of rice from Burma. The following year was notable for the deposition of the Gaikwar of Baroda for mis-government, and for the tour through India of the Prince of Wales (the late King Edward VII). The visit of the Duke of Edinburgh to India when Lord Mayo was Viceroy had given great pleasure to those with whom he had come in touch, and had established a kind of personal link between India and the Crown. The Prince of Wales tour aroused unprecedented enthusiasm for and

loyalty to the British Raj, and further encouragement was given to the growth of this spirit when, in a durbar of great magnificence held on January 1st, 1877, on the famous Ridge at Delhi, Queen Victoria was proclaimed Empress of India. The Viceroy of that time, Lord Lytton, had, however, to deal with a situation of unusual difficulty. Two successive years of drought produced, in 1877-78, the worst famine India had known. The most strenuous exertions were made to mitigate its effects, and eight crores of rupees were spent in importing grain; but the loss of life was estimated at 5½ millions. At this time also Afghan affairs once more became prominent.

Second Afghan War.

The Amir, Sher Ali, was found to be intriguing with Russia and that fact, coupled with his repulse of a British mission led to the second Afghan War. The British forces advanced by three routes—the Khyber, the Kurram, and the Bolan—and gained all the important vantage points of Eastern Afghanistan. Sher Ali fled and a treaty was made with his son Yakub Khan, which was promptly broken by the murder of Sir Louis Cavagnari, who had been sent as English envoy to Kabul. Further operations were thus necessary, and Sir F. (now Lord) Roberts advanced on the capital and defeated the Afghans at Charasia. A rising of the tribes followed, in spite of Sir D. Stewart's victory at Ahmed Kheyl and his advance from Kabul to Kandahar. A pretender, Sirdar Ayub Khan, from Herat prevented the establishment of peace, defeated Gen. Burrows' brigade at Maiwand, and invested Kandahar. He was routed in turn by Sir F. Roberts who made a brilliant march from Kabul to Kandahar. After the British withdrawal fighting continued between Ayub Khan and Abdur Rahman, but the latter was left undisputed Amir of Afghanistan until his death in 1901.

In the meantime Lord Lytton had resigned (1880) and Lord Ripon was appointed Viceroy by the new Liberal Government. Lord Ripon's administration is memorable for the freedom given to the Press by the repeal of the Vernacular Press Act, for his scheme of local self-government which developed municipal institutions, and for the attempt to extend the jurisdiction of the criminal courts in the Districts over European British subjects, independently of the race or nationality of the presiding judge. This attempt, which created a feeling among Europeans in India of great hostility to the Viceroy, ended in a compromise in 1884. Other reforms were the re-establishment of the Department of Revenue and Agriculture, the appointment of an Education Commission with a view to the spread of popular instruction on a broader basis, and the abolition by the Finance Minister (Sir Evelyn Baring, now Lord Cromer) of a number of customs duties. Lord Dufferin, who succeeded Lord Ripon in 1884, had to give his attention more to external than internal affairs: one of his first acts was to hold a durbar at Rawalpindi for the reception of the Amir of Afghanistan which resulted in the strengthening of British relations with that ruler. In 1885 a third Burmese war became necessary owing to the truculent attitude of King Thibaw and his intrigues with foreign Powers. The expedition, under General Prendergast, occupied Mandalay without difficulty and King Thibaw was exiled to Ratnagiri, where he died on 16th December 1916. His dominions of Upper Burma were annexed to British India on the 1st of January, 1886.

The Russian Menace.

Of greater importance at the time were the measures taken to meet a possible, and as it then appeared a probable, attack on India by Russia. These preparations, which cost over two million sterling, were hurried on because of a collision which occurred between Russian and Afghan troops at Penjdeh, during the delimitation of the Afghan frontier towards Central Asia, and which seemed likely to lead to a declaration of war by Great Britain. War was averted, but the Penjdeh incident had called attention to a menace that was to be felt for nearly a generation more; it had also served to elicit from the Princes of India an unanimous offer of troops and money in case of need. That offer bore fruit under the next Viceroy, Lord Lansdowne, when the present system of Imperial Service Troops was organised. Under Lord Lansdowne's rule also the defences of the North-Western Frontier were strengthened, on the advice of Sir Frederick (now Earl) Roberts, who was then Commander-in-Chief in India. Another form of precautionary measure against the continued aggression of Russia was taken by raising the annual subsidy paid by the Indian Government to the Amir from eight to twelve lakhs.

On the North-Eastern Frontier there occurred (1891) in the small State of Manipur a revolution against the Raja that necessitated an inquiry on the spot by Mr. Quinton, the Chief Commissioner of Assam. Mr. Quinton, the commander of his escort, and others, were treacherously murdered in a conference and the escort ignominiously retreated. This disgrace to British arms led to several attacks on frontier outposts which were brilliantly defeated. Manipur was occupied by British troops and the government of the State was reorganised under a Political Agent. Lord Lansdowne's term of office was distinguished by several other events such as the passing of the Parliamentary Act (Lord Cross's Act, 1892), which increased the size of the Legislative Councils as well as the number of non-officials in them: legislation aimed at social and domestic reform among the Hindus: and the closing of the Indian Mints to the free coinage of silver (1893).

Frontier Campaigns.

Lord Elgin, who succeeded Lord Lansdowne in 1894, was confronted at the outset with a deficit of Rs. 2½ crores, due to the fall in exchange. (In 1895 the rupee fell as low as 1*s.* 1*d.*) To meet this the old five per cent. import duties were reimposed on a number of commodities, but not on cotton goods: and within the year the duty was extended to piece-goods, but not to yarn. The re-organisation of the Army, which involved the abolition of the old system of Presidency Armies, had hardly been carried out when a number of risings

occurred along the North-West Frontier. In 1895 the British Agent in Chitral—which had come under British influence two years previously when Sir H. M. Durand had demarcated the southern and eastern boundaries of Afghanistan—was besieged and had to be rescued by an expeditionary force. Two years after the Wazirs, Swatis, and Mohmands attacked the British positions in Malakand, and the Afridis closed the Khyber Pass. Peace was only established after a prolonged campaign (the Tirah campaign) in which 40,000 troops were employed, and over 1,000 officers and men had been lost. This was in itself a heavy burden on the finances of India, which was increased by the serious and widespread famine of 1896-97 and by the appearance in India of bubonic plague. The methods taken to prevent the spread of that disease led, in Bombay, to rioting, and elsewhere to the appearance in the vernacular press of seditious articles which made it necessary to make more stringent the law dealing with such writings.

Lord Curzon's Viceroyalty.

With famine and plague Lord Curzon also, who succeeded Lord Elgin in 1899, had to deal. In 1901 the cycle of bad harvests came to an end; but plague increased, and in 1904 deaths from it were returned at over one million. Of the many problems to which Lord Curzon directed his attention, only a few can be mentioned here: some indeed claim that his greatest work in India was not to be found in any one department but was in fact the general gearing up of the administration which he achieved by his unceasing energy and personal example of strenuous work. He had at once to turn his attention to the North-West Frontier. The British garrisons beyond our boundary were gradually withdrawn and replaced by tribal levies, and British forces were concentrated in British territory behind them as a support. An attempt was made to check the arms traffic and work on strategic railways was pushed forward. The fact that in seven years he only spent a quarter of a million upon repressive measures and only found it necessary to institute one blockade (against the Mahsud Waziris) is the justification of this policy of compromise between the Lawrence and Forward schools of thought. In 1901 the trans-Indus districts of the Punjab were separated from that Province, and together with the political charges of the Malakand, the Khyber, Kurram, Tochi, and Wana were formed into the new North-West Frontier Province, under a Chief Commissioner directly responsible to the Government of India. That year also witnessed the death of Abdur Rahman, the Amir of Afghanistan, and the establishment of an understanding with his successor Habibullah. In 1904 the attitude of the Dalai Lama of Tibet being pro-Russian and anti-British, it became necessary to send an expedition to Lhasa under Colonel (Sir Francis) Younghusband. The Dalai Lama abdicated and a treaty was concluded with his successor.

In his first year of office Lord Curzon passed the Act which, in accordance with the recommendations of the Fowler Commission, practically fixed the value of the rupee at 1*s.* 4*d.*, and in 1900 a Gold Reserve fund was created. The educational reforms that marked this Viceroyalty are dealt with elsewhere: chief among them was the Act of 1904 reorganising the governing bodies of Indian Universities. Under the head of agrarian reform must be mentioned the Punjab Land Alienation Act, designed to free the cultivators of the soil from the clutches of money-lenders, and the institution of Agricultural banks. The efficiency of the Army was increased (Lord Kitchener was Commander-in-Chief) by the re-armament of the Indian Army, the strengthening of the artillery, and the reorganisation of the transport service. In his relations with the Feudatory Chiefs, Lord Curzon emphasized their position as partners in administration, and he founded the Imperial Cadet Corps to give a military education to the sons of ruling and aristocratic families. In 1902 the British Government obtained from the Nizam a perpetual lease of the Assigned Districts of Berar in return for an annual payment of 25 lakhs. The accession of King Edward VII was proclaimed in a splendid Durbar on January 1, 1903. In 1904 Lord Curzon returned to England for a few months but was re-appointed to a second term of office, Lord Ampthill, Governor of Madras, having acted as Viceroy during his absence. The chief act of this second term was the partition of Bengal and the creation of a new Province of Eastern Bengal and Assam—a reform, designed to remove the systematic neglect of the trans-Gangetic areas of Bengal, which evoked bitter and prolonged criticism. In 1905 Lord Curzon resigned, being unable to accept the proposals of Lord Kitchener for the re-adjustment of relations between the Army headquarters and the Military Department of the Government, and being unable to obtain the support of the Home Government. Lord Curzon was succeeded by **Lord Minto**, the grandson of a former Governor-General. It was a stormy heritage to which Lord Minto succeeded, for the unrest which had long been noticed developed in one direction into open sedition.

Outside Bengal attempts to quell the disaffection by the ordinary law were fairly successful. But scarcely any province was free from disorder of some kind and, though recourse was had to the deportation of persons without reason assigned under an Act of 1818, special Acts had to be passed to meet the situation, *viz*:—an Explosives Act, a Prevention of Seditious Meetings Act, and a Criminal Law Amendment Act which provides for a magisterial inquiry in private and a trial before three judges of the High Court without a jury. Concurrently with these legislative measures steps were taken to extend representative institutions. In 1907 a Hindu and a Mahomedan were appointed to the Secretary of State's Council, and in 1909 a Hindu was appointed for the first time to the Viceroy's Council. The Indian Councils Act of 1909 carried this policy farther by reconstituting the legislative councils and conferring upon them wider powers of discussion. The executive councils of Madras and Bombay were enlarged by the addition of an Indian member.

As regards foreign policy, Lord Minto's Viceroyalty was distinguished by the conclusion (1907) between Great Britain and Russia of an agreement on questions likely to disturb the friendly relations of the two countries in

Asia generally, and in Persia, Afghanistan and Tibet in particular. Two expeditions had to be undertaken on the North-West Frontier, against the Zakka Khels and the Mohmands; and ships of the East Indies Squadron were frequently engaged off Maskat and in the Persian Gulf in operations designed to check the traffic in arms through Persia and Mekran to the frontier of India.

Visit of the King and Queen.

Sir Charles (Lord) Hardinge was appointed to succeed Lord Minto in 1910. His first year in India was marked by the visit to India of the King Emperor and the Queen, who arrived at Bombay on December 2, 1911. From there they proceeded to Delhi where, in the most magnificent durbar ever held in India, the coronation was proclaimed and various boons, including an annual grant of 50 lakhs for popular education, were announced. At the same ceremony His Majesty announced the transfer of the capital of India from Calcutta to Delhi; the reunion of the two Bengals under a Governor-in-Council; the formation of a new Lieutenant-Governorship for Behar, Chota Nagpur and Orissa and the restoration of Assam to the charge of a Chief Commissioner.

In August, 1913, the demolition of a lavatory attached to a mosque in Cawnpore was made the occasion of an agitation among Indian Mahomedans and a riot in Cawnpore led to heavy loss of life. Of those present at the riot, 106 were put on trial but subsequently released by the Viceroy before the case reached the Sessions, and His Excellency was able to settle the mosque difficulty by a compromise that was acceptable to the local and other Mahomedans.

Still more serious trouble occurred in September, 1914, when a riot at Budge-Budge among a number of Sikh emigrants returned from Canada gave a foretaste of the revolutionary plans entertained by those men. The sequel, revealed in two conspiracy trials at Lahore, showed that the "Ghadr" conspiracy was widespread and had been consistently encouraged by Germany.

India after the War.

Post-war India has a strange and baffling history. In 1919 Englishmen troubled little about affairs in the East: they were engrossed by the settlement of peace and the refusal of the United States either to ratify the Treaty of Versailles or to join the League of Nations. In 1930, however, the eyes not only of the British Empire but of the entire world were set upon India, when Mr. Gandhi and his followers for the second time attempted to make the non-co-operation movement effective.

Ideas rule the world. India had participated in the "war to end war". It was a war waged in defence of Belgium and it ended in a peace ostensibly proclaiming the sanctity of national aspirations throughout the world. For the sake of nationalism the structure of Europe had been broken into fragments. What then was to be India's share in the spoils of peace? The Montagu-Chelmsford Reforms did not satisfy extremist opinion. They were the result of an agreed policy at home, and an agreed policy meant concessions to reactionary opinion.

The Montagu-Chelmsford Reforms worked and in some Provinces they worked well. Because they worked well, it was never possible to withhold reforms. Because experience revealed their shortcomings, it was imperative that greater reforms should be made. Lord Morley and Lord Minto expressly denied that their reforms allowed Parliamentary institutions. Yet the logical conclusion of these reforms was the Montagu-Chelmsford Report, which definitely established Parliamentary institutions, and that report prepared the way to Dominion Status. Ten years after the war we find the Viceroy and Mr. Gandhi working by different methods for the same end.

Yet to one living through those fevered years the issues were not always clear. Mahomedan and Hindu aspirations did not always coincide. The evil mischances that persuaded Turkey to associate with the Central Powers in the European War sorely tried Mahomedan loyalty. The Khilafatist movement assumed great proportions; and the consequence was war; for King Amanullah, who had just ascended the throne of Afghanistan, believed that India was in open revolt. He decided, therefore, to invade the country. **The Afghan War** was unfortunately a prolonged campaign, and increased the sense of post-war exhaustion in this country. A few years later King Amanullah visited India on an errand of peace. His country had entered the comity of nations, and he would tour Europe as an enlightened monarch. In 1928 he returned to his country, which, however, he was destined soon to leave. The pace of his reforms had been too rapid for his country. He abdicated in favour of his brother Inayatullah, who abdicated himself a few hours later. It was not until General Nadir Khan was elected King in the summer of 1929 that peace came to the unhappy land; but the keenness with which India followed the progress of the revolution showed how closely were the fortunes of the two countries associated.

The appointment of **Lord Reading** to be Viceroy in 1921 was a landmark in Indian history. Throughout his tenure of office there was opposition and disorder. The Duke of Connaught came to open the new council; and the *Swarajists* did their utmost to boycott the visit. The Prince of Wales came a year later on a non-political visit; but his arrival in Bombay was the signal for severe rioting.

Mr. Gandhi's weapons of attack were boycott and the wearing of *Khaddar*. *Khaddar*, as an Indian cloth, weakened the importation of foreign cloth. The boycott was directed not only against British goods, but against the entire machinery of Government. In 1923 Lord Reading's certification doubled the Salt-Tax, thus showing that the Legislative Assembly had no real control over finance. The responsibilities of the Assembly were few. Since the Government could override its decisions, its decisions became irresponsible. In the Provinces, however, there was less irresponsibility, and consequently the members of the Legislative Councils were often the allies of Government. But it took time for Indian opinion to realise that the Legislative Councils, however imperfect, were the instruments of order and good government. Some years later, the boycott broke

down. Mr. C. R. Das, one of Mr. Gandhi's chief lieutenants, decided to associate with the Legislature—ostensibly to destroy the reforms, but actually because he and many others had grown tired of a policy of mere negation. The downfall of non-co-operation was further signalled by the election of a great Swarajist, Mr. V. J. Patel, to be President of the Legislative Assembly—an office which he held until the summer of 1930.

When **Lord Irwin** succeeded Lord Reading in 1926, the prospects of peace improved. It was ordained by Statute that a Commission should examine the Indian Reforms within ten years of the inception of the Government of India Act. In 1927 both the British Government and the Government of India agreed that the Commission should be appointed as early as possible. Accordingly, in the autumn, it was announced that Sir John Simon and other members of Parliament should be members of a new **Statutory Commission.** Their appointment was the occasion of a new outburst. Neither Mr. Gandhi's followers nor the moderates would support the Commission. It was to be boycotted from the start. The chief complaint was that all the members of the Commission were Europeans. The Congress party, and even the moderates, demanded in its place a Round Table Conference and the promise, if not the immediate offer, of Dominion Status. The boycott, however, was not very effective. One by one the Provincial Councils decided to co-operate with the Simon Commission: the Legislative Assembly, almost alone among the Legislatures, stood consistently for boycott. Yet it is significant that before the Simon Commission had published its report, the Viceroy not only announced that the goal of Government in India was Dominion Status, but invited representatives of India to a Round Table Conference in London: he stood where the moderates and half the Congress had stood two years before. Meanwhile, Congress became still more extremist. In January 1929, Mr. Gandhi announced that if India was not given Dominion Status within a year, he would lead the campaign for Independence. He kept his word, and the Lahore Congress of December 1929, under the guidance of Pandit Jawharlal Nehru rather than Mr. Gandhi, voted in favour of Independence.

The new struggle began in earnest in March 1930. Mr. Gandhi first decided to break the Salt Laws. He made an imposing march from Ahmedabad to the coast, where he ceremoniously manufactured salt that could not be taxed. Non-co-operation was in full swing. For a short time Bombay was virtually a Congress City. There were numerous arrests, and before the year closed, there were to be in India no less than fifty thousand people incarcerated for political offences.

The Government of Lord Irwin was assailed on all sides. Some condemned it because it was weak: others condemned it because it was repressive. Its conduct had a curious reaction upon political opinion in England, which possessed the dubious advantage of a minority Government. At one time the Conservatives were demanding the recall of Lord Irwin. Similarly, Provincial Governors were criticised for alleged inactivity. In the summer few predicted any success for the Round Table Conference. The Simon Commission published a Report that was condemned by practically every party in India: it was practically a still-born Report. Events had moved too rapidly. The Round Table Conference, however, proved to be the culminating point of a world-wide interest in the Indian political struggle. The Princes, at first, assumed the lead. They stood for a Federal Government in which the States and British India should be partners. At once the extremists, who had intended to ignore the Conference, showed the keenest concern. The Conference, despite all evil prognostications, represented the voice of India.

In February 1931 the Round Table Conference delegates returned to India on the understanding that there was to be a second Round Table Conference in London, but that meanwhile certain problems, such as that of separate communal electorates, were to be worked out among themselves in India. The first thing they did on their return was to attempt to persuade Congress to call off the Civil Disobedience Movement and participate in the Conference. Congress, however, were in bitter mood; many local committees even did their best to prevent the decennial census in February from being an accurate index to the state of the population. There were a number of feverish conferences between Lord Irwin, Mr. Gandhi, and Sir Tej Bahadur Sapru. Mr. Gandhi and other prominent Congress leaders were released from prison specially to confer with Government officials and the conferences were conducted in a friendly and informal fashion. The upshot was the signing of the Irwin-Gandhi Pact at Delhi in March which provided on the one hand for Congress to call off the civil disobedience movement, the no-tax campaign, the boycott of British goods, and other cognate activities, and on the other hand for Government to extend an amnesty to political prisoners, to permit the manufacture of salt on the coast, and make a number of similar concessions.

When in April **Lord Willingdon** arrived in India to take up his duties as Viceroy and Governor-General, Lord Irwin left the country amid many tributes to his statesmanship. Lord Willingdon's first few months were spent in preparing the way for the second Round Table Conference, the opening of which was fixed for November. At first Congress refused to participate, alleging that Government had broken the Irwin-Gandhi agreement, but after much wavering Mr. Gandhi set sail for England at the end of August. The Conference almost broken down over the communal problem. Mr. Gandhi was frankly dissatisfied and landed in India on December 28 hinting at a renewal of the civil disobedience campaign. Early in January 1932 the struggle began again. Mr. Gandhi and the Congress leaders were imprisoned.

The Viceroy soon made it clear that there could be no compromise with those who were determined to persist in a fresh campaign of civil disobedience and proclaimed his determination to use to the full the resources of the State in fighting and defeating a movement which would otherwise remain a perpetual menace to orderly Government and individual liberty. His Excellency's policy quickly met with success. The arrest of the principal leaders of the campaign was followed up with the imprisonment after trial of over 30,000 followers of the Congress. The special Ordinances devised to deal with the menace were renewed for another six months,

being replaced at the end of the year by more permanent legislation which the Legislative Assembly and the Council of State endorsed, the former by a surprisingly good majority. All the Provincial Councils passed complementary legislation embodying Ordinance regulations to suit local conditions. Thus by the end of the year the Ordinances had ceased to exist, their place being taken by legislation for a limited period. Nothing showed the rally of the country against civil disobedience better than these measures.

The economic position of the country continued to be abnormal throughout the year and Government refused to contemplate any relaxation of that stern policy of rigorous economy in public expenditure outlined in 1931. The success of that policy was reflected in the budget of 1933-34, though public opinion in the country was disappointed with the absence of any relief from taxation, particularly in view of the partial restoration of the cut in the salaries of the Services. An outstanding feature of the year was the rapid improvement in India's credit notwithstanding the economic stress. Government floated three loans, one in sterling and two in rupees, of the total amount of Rs. 58 crores. The last of these was oversubscribed in about four hours though it gave a return of only 5½ per cent. Government also succeeded in substantially reducing their floating debt.

An event of great importance during the year was the tariff agreement between India and Great Britain at the **Ottawa Conference.** In the entirely new circumstances created by the departure of the British Government from the old policy of universal free trade and by the substitution for it of a tariff coupled with the grant of preference to countries, the Government of India were invited to send a delegation to the Imperial Conference primarily to consider and discuss with representatives of Great Britain the question whether it would be in the interests of both countries to enter into a tariff agreement involving the reciprocal grant of preferences to each other's products. In the negotiations and discussions which took place first in London and subsequently at Ottawa the Indian delegation to the Conference headed by Sir Atul Chatterjee were given the freest possible hand and the agreement which they concluded embodies only such measures as are in the best interests of India. After prolonged discussion it was endorsed by the Central Legislature.

Discussions relating to the future constitution of India were in progress throughout the year. The publication of the communal award made by His Majesty's Government marked a new stage in their progress. This award in so far as it affected the Depressed Classes in the Hindu community was modified as a result of Mr. Gandhi's fast at the Yeravda prison. He undertook this fast after due warning to Government and threatened to die of starvation if the plan to create special constituencies for the depressed classes was not given up. Hindu leaders in their anxiety to save Mr. Gandhi agreed upon an alternative scheme of reserved seats for the Depressed Classes in the general constituencies. This agreement was subsequently endorsed by His Majesty's Government. In November the third Round Table Conference met in London, the session lasting till the end of the year.

The year 1933 saw the publication of the White Paper embodying the proposals of His Majesty's Government for constitutional advance in India (See Round Table Conference Chapter). It served to thrust India into the forefront of British politics. At no other period perhaps in recent times has India figured so largely in Britain, which was flooded by die-hard propaganda against "the danger of forcing democracy down the throats of the dumb millions of India."

With the complete stultification of the Congress following the collapse of civil disobedience, and the shifting of interest to London where the Joint Parliamentary Committee was in session examining the White Paper, political activity in the country was at a standstill. To make up for this there was a great upheaval in the social sphere. The plight of the depressed classes (called Harijans by Mr. Gandhi) attracted much attention, thanks to the aggressive measures adopted by Mr. Gandhi, his two fasts, release from jail and whirlwind tour of the country. Although there was much orthodox opposition to the admission of untouchables into caste temples and other demonstrational aspects of the uplift movement, the upper classes' conscience was roused to activity and directed towards the amelioration of the general condition of the untouchables.

India's increasing status among the nations of the world was exemplified by the privilege accorded to her of negotiating direct with a Foreign Power (Japan) for a commercial treaty. To meet the stifling competition from Japan, India decided to cancel the most-favoured-nation treatment to Japan, whereupon the latter retaliated by placing a boycott on Indian cotton. The tug-of-war ended as the result of a series of conversations at Simla and Delhi between representatives of the Indian and Japanese Governments. Equally important was the visit paid by a delegation from Lancashire, which also was productive of an agreement with Bombay millowners for the regulation of trade and avoidance of cut-throat competition—an agreement which was later ratified by the Indian legislature.

For the first time in history, **Mount Everest** was conquered from the air. An aeroplane expedition financed by Lady Houston achieved this marvel which, apart from its spectacular nature, is believed to be of great scientific value. A climbing expedition which followed, however, had to abandon the attempt owing to unkind weather.

India lost this year two outstanding personalities, H. H. the Jam Sahib (the famous "Ranji" of the cricket world) and Mrs. Annie Besant who was held in great esteem by all India for her services in the cause of the country's constitutional advance.

The Frontier tribes again gave trouble. The Bajauris chose to harbour a "pretender" to the Afghan throne and, as a friendly neighbouring state, India had to curb such hostile activities on the border. The operations lasted a few months, but the issue was never in doubt. Air operations settled the trouble and, incidentally, served to demonstrate how the British Empire could not altogether give up air bombing.

The Government of India.

The impulse which drove the British to India was not conquest but trade. The Government of India represents the slow evolution from conditions established to meet trading requirements. On September 24, 1599, a few years before the deaths of Queen Elizabeth and Akbar, the merchants of London formed an association for the purpose of establishing direct trade with the East and were granted a charter of incorporation. The Government of this Company in England was vested in a Governor with a General Court of Proprietors and a Court of Directors. The factories and affairs of the Company on the East and West Coasts of India, and in Bengal, were administered at each of the principal settlements of Madras (Fort St. George), Bombay and Calcutta (Fort William), by a President or Governor and a Council consisting of the senior servants of the Company. The three "Presidencies" were independent of each other and subordinate only to the Directors in England.

Territorial Responsibility Assumed.

The collapse of government in India consequent on the decay of Mogbul power and the intrigues of the French on the East Coast forced the officers of the Company to assume territorial responsibility in spite of their own desires and the insistent orders of the Directors. Step by step the Company became first the dominant, then the paramount power in India. In these changed circumstances the system of government by mutually independent and unwieldy councils of the merchants at the Presidency towns gave rise to grave abuses. Parliament intervened, and under the Regulating Act of 1773, a Governor-General and four councillors were appointed to administer the Presidency of Fort William (Bengal), and the supremacy of that Presidency over Madras and Bombay was for the first time established. The subordinate Presidencies were forbidden to wage war or make treaties without the previous consent of the Governor-General of Bengal in Council, except in cases of imminent necessity. Pitt's Act of 1784, which established the Board of Control in England, vested the administration of each of the three Presidencies in a Governor and three councillors, including the Commander-in-Chief of the Presidency Army. The control of the Governor-General-in-Council was somewhat extended, as it was again by the Charter Act of 1793. Under the Charter Act of 1833 the Company was compelled to close its commercial business and it became a political and administrative body holding its territories in trust for the Crown. The same Act vested the direction of the entire civil and military administration and sole power of legislation in the Governor-General-in-Council, and defined more clearly the nature and extent of the control to be extended over the subordinate governments. After the Mutiny, there was passed, in 1858, an Act transferring the Government of India from the Company to the Crown. This Act made no important change in the administration in India, but the Governor-General, as representing the Crown became known as the Viceroy. The Governor-General is the sole representative of the Crown in India; he is assisted by a Council, composed of high officials, each of whom is responsible for a special department of the administration.

Functions of Government.

The functions of the Government in India are perhaps the most extensive of any great administration in the world. It claims a share in the produce of the land and in the Punjab and Bombay it has restricted the alienation of land from agriculturists to non-agriculturists. It undertakes the management of landed estates where the proprietor is disqualified. In times of famine it undertakes relief work and other remedial measures on a great scale. It manages a vast forest property and is the principal manufacturer of salt and opium. It owns the bulk of the railways of the country, and directly manages a considerable portion of them; it has constructed and maintains most of the important irrigation works; it owns and manages the post and telegraph systems; it has the monopoly of the Note issue, and it alone can set the mints in motion. It lends money to municipalities, rural boards, and agriculturists and occasionally to owners of historic estates. It controls the sale of liquor and intoxicating drugs and has direct responsibilities in respect to police, education, medical and sanitary operations and ordinary public works of the most intimate character. The Government has also close relations with the Indian States which collectively cover more than one-third of the whole area of India and comprise more than one-fifth of its population. The distribution of these great functions between the Government of India and the provincial administrations has fluctuated and was definitely regulated by the Reform Act of 1919.

THE REFORMS OF 1919.

Great changes were made in the system of government in British India by the Government of India Act, 1919, which, together with the rules framed under it—almost as important in their provisions as the Act itself—came into general operation in January 1921. The Act was the outcome of an inquiry conducted in India in the winter of 1917-18 by the Secretary of State (Mr. Montagu) and the Viceroy (Lord Chelmsford), the results of which were

embodied in their Report on Indian Constitutional Reform issued in the spring of 1918. The recommendations in this report were supplemented by those of two Committees which toured in India in the winter of 1918-19, and which issued their Reports in the spring of 1919. A third Committee was appointed during the latter year to make recommendations for the modification of the system of administration of Indian affairs in the United Kingdom, and issued their Report while the Government of India Bill was under examination by a Joint Select Committee of both Houses of Parliament. The Joint Select Committee in their turn issued an exhaustive Report on the Bill, which was passed in a form practically identical with that recommended by the Joint Committee, and received the Royal Assent on the 23rd December 1919.

The Divisions.—British India for administrative purposes is divided into 15 provinces, each with its separate Local Government or administration. In nine of the provinces—the three Presidencies of Madras, Bombay and Bengal, the United Provinces of Agra and Oudh, the Punjab, Bihar and Orissa, the Central Provinces, Burma, and Assam—the Local Government consists of a Governor, an Executive Council of not more than four members, and two or more Ministers. In 1922 Burma, which was excluded from the original scheme, was brought into line with it. An Act of Parliament was passed, constituting Burma a Governor's Province, with a Governor, an Executive Council and Ministers and a Legislative Council elected on a very democratic franchise, which gave the vote to women. The remaining six provinces are directly administered by Chief Commissioners, who are technically mere agents of the Central Government of India. No change has been made by the Act of 1919 in the system of administration in these six minor provinces.

Dyarchy.—In these nine provinces the executive Government is a dual organism which owes its unity to the Governor. One half of the organism consists of the Governor and his executive Council, all of whom are appointed by the King. This body is responsible for the administration of those subjects which are "reserved." The other half of the executive organism is the Governor acting with the advice of Ministers who are appointed by him, hold office during his pleasure, and must be elected members of the Provincial Legislative Council. To the Governor acting with Ministers is entrusted the administration of "transferred" subjects.

The Object.—The framers of the Act of 1919 had a twofold object in view. Their primary object was to devise a plan which would render possible the introduction by successive stages of a system of responsible government in British India in modification of the previous system under which the Governments in India both central and provincial, received their mandates from the British Parliament acting through the Secretary of State for India, the Cabinet Minister responsible to Parliament for the administration of Indian affairs.

The Provinces.—Starting from the premise that it was in the provinces that the first substantial steps must be taken towards the development of a system of responsible government, the framers of the Act of 1919 provided for a statutory demarcation of the functions to be exercised by the Government of India and the Provincial Governments respectively, in their administrative capacity. No attempt was made in this connection to limit the field open to the Indian Legislature, which still retains a concurrent (though not an overriding) power of legislation for the affairs of the provinces in general and of individual provinces; but the rules under the Act provide specifically for the exercise of this right in certain specified provincial matters, and the theory upon which the Act proceeds assumes that a convention will be established and rigorously observed which will confine intervention by the Indian Legislature in provincial affairs to matters so specified.

Finance.—The "revenues of India"—or, rather, their sources—are definitely divided between the Central and Provincial Governments; the Provincial Governments have now almost complete control over the administration of their "allocated" revenues, they have power to supplement them by raising loans on the security of these revenues, and their right, subject in certain cases to the Governor-General's sanction, to initiate new taxation measures is formally recognised.

It was found impossible to devise any scheme of allocation of revenues between the Central and Provincial Governments which did not leave the former with a deficit. This deficit is to be met in part by an annual contribution from seven of the eight Governors' provinces, the province of Bihar and Orissa, owing to the comparative exiguousness and inelasticity of its own revenues, having been exempted from this contribution. The aggregate sum thus due from the provinces to the Government of India at the outset is Rs. 983 lakhs, of which Madras contributes Rs. 348 lakhs, the United Provinces Rs. 240 lakhs, the Punjab Rs. 175 lakhs, and the other four provinces sums ranging from Rs. 15 lakhs to Rs. 64 lakhs. The annual contribution is in no case to be subject to increase in the future, and if reduction of the aggregate is found possible by the Government of India, reductions are to be made in fixed proportions from the quota of the several provinces.

Responsibility.—The first steps towards responsibility were to transform the Provincial Legislative Council into a body of sufficient size and with a sufficiently large elected majority (which the Act fixes at 70 per cent. as a minimum) to represent adequately public opinion in the province, and to create an electorate. The first franchise rules have given the vote to about 5,000,000 of the adult male population, and have enabled the Legislative Council of any "Governor's province" to extend the franchise to women.

The following table shows the strength and composition of each of the Provincial Councils:—

Province.	Elected.	Nominated and *ex-officio*.		Total.
		Officials.	Non-officials.	
Madras	98	23	6	127
Bombay	86	20	5	111
Bengal	113	20	6	139
United Provinces	100	18	5	123
Punjab	71	16	6	93
Bihar and Orissa	76	18	9	103
Central Provinces	53	10	5	68
Assam	39	9	5	53
Burma	78	15	8	101

The figures for officials in this table are maxima in every case, and where less than the maximum number of officials is nominated to any Council, the number of nominated non-officials must be increased in proportion; *e.g.*, if there are only 16 officials (nominated and *ex-officio*) on the United Provinces Council, there must be seven nominated non-officials. The official members who have seats *ex-officio* are the members of the Executive Council, who are at present four in number, the statutory maximum in Madras, Bombay, and Bengal, three in Bihar and Orissa, and two in each of the remaining provinces. These Executive Councils contain an equal number of Indian and British members except in Bihar and Orissa where two of the three members are British officials.

Electorates.—The electorates in each province are arranged for the most part on a basis which is designed to give separate representation to the various races, communities, and special interests into which the diverse elements of the Indian population naturally range themselves. Although there are minor variations from province to province, a table showing their character in one province (Bengal) will give a sufficiently clear idea of the general position.

Class of Electorate.	No. of Electorates of this Class.	No. of Members returnable by Electorates of this Class.
Non-Muhammadan	42	46
Muhammadan	34	39
European	3	5
Anglo-Indian (in the technical sense of persons of mixed European and Asiatic descent).	1	2
Landholders	5	5
University	1	1
Commerce and Industry	8	15
Total	94	113

Of the 94 constituencies in Bengal, all but nine (those representing the University and Commerce and Industry) are arranged on a territorial basis, *i.e.*, each constituency consists of a group of electors, having the prescribed qualifications which entitle them to a vote in a constituency of that class, who inhabit a particular area. The normal area for a "Muhammadan" or "non-Muhammadan" constituency is a district (or where districts are large and populous, half a district) in the case of rural constituencies, and, in the case of urban constituencies, a group of adjacent municipal towns. Some large towns form urban constituencies by themselves, and the City of Calcutta provides eight separate constituencies, six "non-Muhammadan" and two "Muhammadan", the latter, of course, being coterminous with the former.

Throughout the electoral rules there runs a general classification of the various kinds of constituencies into two broad categories, those which are designed to represent special interests such as Landholders, Universities, Planters or Commerce being described as "special" constituencies, and those which are based on a racial distinction—Muhammadan, European, Sikh, etc.—being known as "general" constituencies.

Voters' Qualifications.—The qualifications for electors (and consequently for candidates) vary in detail from province to province, chiefly on account of variations in the laws and regulations which form the basis of assessment of income or property values. Generally speaking, both in rural and urban areas the franchise is based on a property qualification as measured by the payment of a prescribed minimum of land revenue or of its equivalent, or of income tax, or of municipal taxes, but in all provinces retired, pensioned or discharged officers and men of the regular army are entitled to the vote, irrespective of the amount of their income or property.

Election Results.—A Parliamentary Paper (Cmd. 3922), published in 1931, gives the following summary of election results. This return

relates to the fourth General Election under the Act of 1919. In two cases, however, those of the Council of State and the Burma Legislative Council, it relates to the third election under that Act, held in the case of the Council of State in 1930 and in the case of the Burma Council in 1928. These divergencies are due to the statutory duration of the Council of State being five instead of three years, and to the fact that the Reforms were introduced in Burma two years later than in other Provinces.

In the ordinary course of events the fourth general election would have been held in 1929. In two Provinces, Bengal and Assam, the elections to the Provincial Legislature were in fact held in that year, since in those provinces the local political situation had led to dissolutions in that year. But in the case of the Legislative Assembly and of the remainder of the Provincial Councils the statutory three year period was extended under the powers conferred by the Government of India Act in order to postpone the general election until after the publication of the Report of the Indian Statutory Commission in the Summer of 1930. The elections were therefore held in the autumn of 1930.

The figures given for the number of electors who voted and the percentages of the number who voted to the number on the electoral roll are, in the case of plural member constituencies, approximate only. In these constituencies, each elector has as many votes as there are seats to be filled, and the figures are calculated on the assumption that each elector used all his votes; that is, the figure given as the number of Electors who voted is the result of dividing the number of votes polled by the number of seats to be filled.

Class of Constituency.	No. of Seats.	No. of Seats filled without Contest.	No. of Candidates for contested Seats.	Percentage of Votes polled to No. of Electors in contested Constituencies.	Percentage in 1926.
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Madras Legislative Council.					
Non-Muhammadan, urban	9	1	19	47·4	69·7
" rural	56	15	80	42·2	46·6
Muhammadan, urban	2	1	2	35·5	50·8
" rural	11	5	18	53·5	56·5
Indian Christians	5	3	5	66·0	69·4
European	1	1	—	—	—
Anglo-Indian	1	—	3	58·0	68·3
Landholders	6	3	8	90·0	94·8
University	1	—	3	46·0	—
Planters	1	1	—	—	—
European Commerce	3	3	—	—	—
Indian Commerce	2	2	—	—	97.8
Total	98	35	138	43·1	48·3

TOTAL ELECTORATE: 1,420,931.

Of the 138 candidates for contested seats, 20 forfeited their deposit, having failed to secure one-eighth of the number of votes polled.

Bombay Legislative Council.					
Non-Muhammadan, urban	11	3	20	8·0	35·6
" rural	35	13	45	13·5	42·9
Muhammadan, urban	5	2	5	12·0	36·5
" rural	22	5	31	46·8	38.3
European	2	2	—	—	—
Landholders	3	2	2	47·2	63·5
University	1	—	4	22·3	65·7
European Commerce	3	3	—	—	—
Indian Commerce	4	2	—	—	60·9
Total	86	32	107	16·5	40·6

TOTAL ELECTORATE: 888,801.

Of the 107 candidates for contested seats, 22 forfeited their deposit, having failed to secure one-eighth of the total number of votes polled divided by the number of members to be elected.

Class of Constituency.	No. of Seats.	No. of Seats filled without Contest.	No. of Candidates for contested Seats.	Percentage of Votes polled to No. of Electors in contested Constituencies.	Percentage in 1926.
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Bengal Legislative Council.					
Non-Muhammadan, urban	11	7	16	25·0	48·4
„ rural	35	20	54	33·0	39·5
Muhammadan, urban	6	2	12	38·8	41·1
„ rural	33	14	55	20·2	37·6
Landholders	5	3	8	76·7	77·8
European, General	5	2	6	6·0	—
„ Commerce	11	11	11	—	—
Anglo-Indian	2	2	2	—	55·8
Indian Commerce	4	2	7	87·7	94·7
Universities	2	1	4	79·8	77·8
Total ..	114	64	175	26·1	39·3

TOTAL ELECTORATE: 1,186,428.

Of the 175 candidates for the contested seats, 20 forfeited their deposit, having failed to secure one-eighth of the number of votes polled.

United Provinces Legislative Council.					
Non-Muhammadan, urban	8	2	21	6·0	45·5
„ rural	52	20	121	21·8	49·3
Muhammadan, urban	4	1	7	53·8	42·0
„ rural	25	10	55	57·1	64·5
Agra Landholders	2	2	4	—	58·0
Taluqdars	4	—	8	42·8	53·3
Chambers of Commerce	3	3	3	—	—
University	1	—	2	6·7	71·7
European	1	1	1	—	14·2
Total ..	100	45	222	24·6	50·2

TOTAL ELECTORATE: 1,681,386.

Of the 177 candidates for the contested seats, 36 forfeited their deposit, having failed to secure one-eighth of the number of votes polled.

Punjab Legislative Council.					
Non-Muhammadan, urban	7	4	7	19·0	51·0
„ rural	13	4	19	41·0	53·0
Muhammadan, urban	5	2	8	47·0	59·0
„ rural	27	15	27	50·0	54·0
Sikh urban	1	1	—	—	—
Sikh, rural	11	6	12	15·0	45·0
Landholders	4	3	2	84·0	—
University	1	1	—	—	80·0
Commerce	1	1	—	—	—
Industry	1	1	—	—	93·0
Total	71	38	75	38·5	51·4

TOTAL ELECTORATE: 751,606.

Of the 75 candidates for the contested seats, 14 forfeited their deposits, having failed to secure one-eighth of the number of votes polled.

Class of Constituency.	No. of Seats.	No. of Seats filled without Contest.	No. of Candidates for contested Seats.	Percentage of Votes polled to No. of Electors in contested Constituencies.	Percentage in 1926.*
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Bihar and Orissa Legislative Council.					
Non-Muhammadan, urban	6	2	9	20·7	49·4
" rural	42	30	23	25·3	62·5
Muhammadan, urban	3	—	7	48·2	61·2
" rural	15	5	21	59·8	64·5
European	1	1	—	—	—
Landholders	5	4	3	81·1	85·5
Planting	1	1	—	—	—
Indian Mining Association	1	1	—	—	—
Indian Mining Federation	1	1	—	—	—
University	1	—	2	66·3	85·5
Total	76	45	65	33·2	60·5

TOTAL ELECTORATE: 431,064.

Of the 65 candidates for the contested seats, 7 forfeited their deposits, having failed to secure one-eighth of the number of votes polled.

Central Provinces and Berar Legislative Council.					
Non-Muhammadan, urban	9	3	13	21·2	58·2
" rural	32	18	35	36·0	58·9
Muhammadan, urban	8	3	11	53·2	67·1
" rural	1	—	2	6[illegible]·8	—
Landholders	2	1	2	20·1	70·1
Mining	1	1	—	—	68·0
Commerce and Industry	1	1	—	—	72·9
University	1	—	2	54·5	91·4
Total	55	27	65	33·3	61·9

TOTAL ELECTORATE: 197,772.

Of the 65 candidates for the contested seats, 6 forfeited their deposits, having failed to obtain one-eighth of the votes polled.

Assam Legislative Council.					
General, urban	1	—	3	60·9	53·3
Non-Muhammadan, rural	20	8	31	26·4	38·8
Muhammadan, rural	12	6	14	34·7	53·6
Planters	5	5	—	—	—
Commerce and Industry	1	—	5	62·0	92·1
Total	39	19	53	28·3	44·2

TOTAL ELECTORATE: 249,976.

Of the 50 candidates for contested seats, 8 forfeited their deposit.

Burma Legislative Council.					
General, urban	14	1	32	45·0	40·9
Indian, urban	8	1	18	61·0	51·2
Karen, rural	5	3	4	25·0	21·0
General, rural	44	3	114	16·0	15·0
Anglo-Indian	1	1	—	—	28·0
European	1	1	—	—	—
Commerce	6	6	—	—	—
University	1	—	5	75·0	—
Total	80	19	173	18.0	16·0

TOTAL ELECTORATE: 1,925,695.

Of the 173 candidates for the contested seats, 17 forfeited their deposits, having failed to secure one-eighth of the number of votes polled.

* In the case of Burma the percentages are for the election of 1925.

Class of Constituency.	No. of Seats.	No. of Seats filled without Contest.	No. of Candidates for contested Seats.	Percentage of Votes polled to No. of Electors in contested Constituencies.	Percentage in 1926.
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Coorg Legislative Council.					
European	2	2	2	—	—
Jamma	9	1	13	56·6	74·0
Non-Jamma	4	4	4	—	78·8
Total ..	15	7	19	56·6	74·9
TOTAL ELECTORATE: 11,143.					
No candidate forfeited his deposit.					
Legislative Assembly.					
Madras—					
Non-Muhammadan	10	4	13	30·4	41·3
Muhammadan	3	2	2	56·0	61·0
European	1	1	—	—	—
Landholders	1	—	2	73·0	82·0
Indian Commerce	1	1	—	—	—
Bombay—					
Non-Muhammadan	7	3	9	10·0	39.3
Muhammadan	4	3	2	58·4	33.8
European	2	2	—	—	—
Landholders	1	1	—	—	—
Indian Commerce	2	1	—	—	—
Bengal—					
Non-Muhammadan	6	6	—	—	39.0
Muhammadan	6	5	2	40·3	46.5
European	3	3	—	—	—
Landholders	1	1	—	—	—
Indian Commerce	1	—	3	87·0	—
United Provinces—					
Non-Muhammadan, urban	1	1	1	—	—
Non-Muhammadan, rural	7	4	17	14·2	51.4
Muhammadan, urban	1	1	1	—	26.9
Muhammadan, rural	5	3	8	43·7	64.3
United Provinces, Landholders ..	1	1	2	—	—
United Provinces, European ..	1	1	1	—	—
Punjab—					
Non-Muhammadan	3	2	2	41·0	61.0
Muhammadan	6	2	10	62·0	64.0
Sikh	2	—	4	50·0	54.0
Landholders	1	1	—	—	87.0
Bihar and Orissa—					
Non-Muhammadan	8	6	4	8·7	52 3
Muhammadan	3	1	4	53·9	59 0
Landowners	1	—	2	62·7	—
Central Provinces and Berar—					
Non-Muhammadan	4	4	—	—	75·7
Muhammadan	1	—	2	41·0	—
Landholders	1	1	—	—	37.8
Assam—					
Non-Muhammadan	2	4*	—	—	56·4
Muhammadan	1	1	—	—	52·4
European	1	1	—	—	—
Delhi (General)	1	—	3	22·8	65·0
Burma—					
Non-European constituency ..	3	—	6	17·7	13·8
Ajmer-Merwara (General)	1	—	3	35·9	63·4
Total ..	104	65	103	26·1	48·1

* Two candidates withdrew.

	Provincial percentage of votes polled in contested constituencies.	No. of candidates who forfeited deposit.
Madras	31·0	1
Bombay	13·7	—
Bengal	41·5	1
United Provinces	16·9	4
Punjab	55·4	1
Bihar and Orissa	21·5	—
Central Provinces and Berar	40·9	—
Assam	—	—
Burma	17·7	—
Delhi	22·9	—
Ajmer-Merwara	35·9	—

TOTAL ELECTORATE: 1,212,172.

TOTAL NUMBER OF VOTERS IN CONTESTED CONSTITUENCIES 468,491

NUMBER OF VOTES POLLED „ „ 124,853

Women Voters.

A.—Provincial Legislative Councils.

Province.	No. enrolled.	No. enrolled in contested Constituencies.	No. who voted.	Percentage of Col. 4 on Col. 3.
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Madras	127,969	98,680	17,836	18·1
Bombay	47,256	35,877	2,331	6·5
Bengal		Figures not recorded.		
United Provinces	56,224	31,360	1,208	2·9
Punjab	25,199	14,967	840	5·6
Central Provinces and Berar	7,679	3,926	347	8·8
Bihar and Orissa	6,924	4,229	229	5·4
Assam	2,324	1,314	85	6·5
Burma	124,404	100,275	13,774	14·0

B.—Legislative Assembly.

Madras	19,491	10,338	1,194	11·5
Bombay	5,644	2,617	34	3·2
Bengal	16,360	198	Not recorded.	
United Provinces	7,424	3,175	106	3·3
Punjab	3,413	2,193	165	7·5
Central Provinces and Berar	931	40	0	—
Bihar and Orissa	1,676	810	25	3·0
Assam		Figures not recorded.		
Burma	5,960	Not separately recorded.		
Ajmer-Merwara	Nil.	—	—	—
Delhi	—	Not separately recorded.		

Council of State.

Place and Class of Constituency.	No. of Seats.	No. of Seats filled without Contest.	No. of Candidates.	Total No. of Electors.	Total No. of Electors who voted.	Percentage of Electors who voted to total No. of Electors in contested Constituencies.	Percentage.
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
Madras—							
Non-Muhammadan ..	4	—	5	3,043	2,398	78·0	84·0
Muhammadan	1	—	2	153	133	86·0	92·0
Bombay—							
Non-Muhammadan ..	3	—	4	2,147	1,039	48·4	26·0
Muhammadan	1	—	2	240	200	83·3	92·0
„ (Sind)	1	—	2	383	356	92·9	—
Chamber of Commerce ..	1	1	1	98	—	—	—
Bengal—							
East: Non-Muhammadan.	1	—	2	617	200	32·4	—
West: „ ..	2	—	4	928	758	81·6	78.5
East: Muhammadan ..	1	1	1	736	—	—	61.0
West: „ ..	1	—	2	251	172	68·5	83.0
Chamber of Commerce ..	1	1	1	210	—	—	—
United Provinces—							
Northern: Non-Muhammadan.	1	1	3*	1,313	—	—	60·0
Southern „ ..	1	1	1	1,373	—	—	56·0
Central: „ ..	1	—	2	788	388	49·2	—
East: Muhammadan ..	1	1	1	244	—	—	—
West: „ ..	1	—	3	335	233	69·5	77.0
Punjab—							
Non-Muhammadan ..	1	1	1	1,016	—	—	—
East: Muhammadan ..	1	—	2	479	406	84·7	66·0
West: „ ..	1	—	2	729	587	80·5	73·0
Sikh	1	1	1	573	—	—	—
Bihar and Orissa—							
Muhammadan	1	—	3	461	350	75·9	83·0
Non-Muhammadan ..	2	—	3	2,084	960	46·1	79·0
Central Provinces—							
General	1	1	1	662†	—	—	70·0
Berar: General	1	1	1	402†	—	—	—
Assam—							
Non-Muhammadan ..	1	1	2‡	594	—	—	—
Burma—							
Chamber of Commerce ..	1	1	1	71	—	—	—
General	1	3	—	20,583	2,925	14·2	5·0
Total ..	34	15	53	40,513	11,105	33·4	24·0

* Two candidates withdrew.

† These figures are the same as in 1925 as the election was held on the old electoral rolls, prepared in 1925.

‡ One candidate retired.

POWERS OF PROVINCIAL LEGISLATIVE COUNCILS.

In origin the legislative authority in British India was a meeting of the Governor-General (or, in the case of the Presidencies of Madras and Bombay, of the Governor) with his Executive Council, "for the purpose of legislation." When met for this purpose there were added to the Executive Council certain "additional members," at first very few in number, and those few all nominated by the Governor-General or the Governor, as the case might be. A Council so constituted had originally no powers or duties beyond those immediately arising out of the discussion of the particular legislative measure which at the time was engaging its attention, and its functions were confined strictly to the discussion and enactment of legislative measures. In course of time the number of "additional" members, and the proportion of these who were non-official Indians, were steadily increased, the principle of election was gradually substituted for nomination as the means of selecting non-official members, and the functions of the Councils were extended so as to include the right of interpellation, of the discussion of matters of general public interest, and of criticising and discussing the budget proposals of the Executive Government. This extension of the powers of the Councils was in the main the result of the "Morley-Minto Act" of 1909. The Indian Councils Act of 1892 had given power to discuss the budget but not to divide the Council upon it. Lord Morley's Act went further and provided that notwithstanding the terms of the Indian Councils Act of 1861 which had restricted the powers of all Councils to the discussion of legislative measures, the Local Government might make rules authorising the discussion of the annual financial statement, of any matter of general public interest, and the asking of questions under such conditions and restrictions as might be imposed by the rules, and these rules recognised the right of the Councils to vote on motions thus submitted for their discussion. The other results of the Act of 1909 were definitely to recognise the principle of election as the means of selecting non-official members of all Councils (although the method adopted was mainly that of indirect election), a considerable increase in the number of both non-official and official members, and the setting up in every province of a non-official (though not, save in one province, an elected) majority. A further important, though indirect, result of the Morley-Minto Act was the appointment of an Indian member to the Executive Council of the Governor-General and to such Provincial Executive Councils as were then in existence and subsequently created.

Old System.—But although the Legislative Councils (which, originally created in two provinces only in addition to the Governor-General's Legislative Council, existed in 1919 in nine provinces) had steadily acquired a more and more representative character and a large share of the normal functions of a legislative assembly as generally understood, they still remained in theory up to the passing of the Act of 1919 mere accretions to the Executive Government of the provinces for the purpose of advising on, and enacting, legislation. It is true that the non-official element in the Provincial Councils as constituted by Lord Morley's Act of 1909 had acquired a considerable measure of control over legislation, in view of the fact that in most provinces that Act and the rules framed under it placed the non-official members in a slight majority over their official colleagues; but for various reasons this control, even in the sphere of legislation, can hardly be described as definite popular control, and over matters outside the legislative sphere the Councils had no controlling voice at all.

The Changes.—The most important changes made by the Act of 1919 in the powers of the Provincial Councils were—

(*i*) the power to vote (and consequently to withhold) supplies;

(*ii*) a greatly enhanced freedom of initiation in the matter of legislation; and

(*iii*) power to frame their own rules of procedure in matters of detail, subject to the Governor's concurrence.

A further right which the Councils will acquire after four years from the time of their commencement is the right to elect their own President. At the outset the President is nominated by the Governor, but from the start every Council has an elected Deputy President. The Governor (who formerly was *ex-officio* President of his Legislative Council) no longer has any direct connection with its proceedings. The first-named of these newly acquired powers is of sufficient importance to require a detailed explanation of its scope, which can best be given in the terms of the Act itself (section 72D).

72D.—(1) The provisions contained in this section shall have effect with respect to business and procedure in governors' legislative councils.

(2) The estimated annual expenditure and revenue of the province shall be laid in the form of a statement before the council in each year and the proposals of the local government for the appropriation of provincial revenues and other moneys in any year shall be submitted to the vote of the council in the form of demands for grants. The council may assent, or refuse its assent, to a demand, or may reduce the amount therein referred to either by a reduction of the whole grant or by the omission or reduction of any of the items of expenditure of which the grant is composed:—

Provided that—

(*a*) the local government shall have power, in relation to any such demand, to act as if it had been assented to, notwithstanding the withholding of such assent or the reduction of the amount therein referred to, if the demand relates to a reserved subject, and the governor certifies that the expenditure provided for by the demand is essential to the discharge of his responsibility for the subject; and

(*b*) the governor shall have power in cases of emergency to authorise such expenditure as may be in his opinion necessary for the safety or tranquillity of the province, or for the carrying on of any department; and

(c) no proposal for the appropriation of any such revenues or other moneys for any purpose shall be made except on the recommendation of the governor communicated to the council.

(3) Nothing in the foregoing sub-section shall require proposals to be submitted to the council relating to the following heads of expenditure :—

(*i*) Contributions payable by the local government to the Governor-General in Council ; and

(*ii*) Interest and sinking fund charges on loans ; and

(*iii*) Expenditure of which the amount is prescribed by or under any law ; and

(*iv*) Salaries and pensions of persons appointed by or with the approval of His Majesty or by the Secretary of State in Council and

(*v*) Salaries of judges of the high court of the province and of the advocate-general.

If any question arises whether any proposed appropriation of moneys does or does not relate to the above heads of expenditure, the decision of the governor shall be final.

Executive and Legislature.—In the light of these facts it is now possible to explain more exactly the relationship between the provincial executive and the provincial legislature. The dual character of the former has already been mentioned, and the corresponding bifurcation of provincial subjects into "reserved" and "transferred" categories. The rules under the act prescribe a list of 20 subjects which are transferred to the administration of the Governor acting with Ministers, the more important of which are Local Self-Government, Medical Administration, Public Health, Education (with certain reservations), Public Works, Agriculture, Excise, and Development of Industries. The "reserved" subjects comprise all those in the list of "provincial" (as distinct from "central") subjects which are not transferred.

Machinery.—No change has been made by the Act of 1919 in the machinery and methods of administration by the Governor in Council ; decisions are taken at the Council Board, as before, by a majority vote, and the Governor is entitled, as before, to overrule such a vote in certain specified circumstances if he disagrees with it. For such decisions the Governor in Council remains, as before, responsible to the Secretary of State and Parliament, and on questions of legislation and supply he has the power of enforcing them despite opposition by a majority of the Legislative Council. But, the whole spirit of the Act and the existence of a large non-official elected majority in every Provincial Legislative Council is an important factor in determining the policy to be pursued by the official half of the Government in its administration of reserved subjects. A further and not less important factor is the existence in the Government, side by side with the Executive Council, of two or more Ministers appointed from the elected members of the legislature, who, though they are not charged by law with, and in fact are legally absolved from, any responsibility for decisions on matters outside the transferred sphere, will necessarily be able, and in fact are expected, to make their opinions felt by their colleagues in the Executive Council. But these factors, while they will doubtless lead to constant endeavour on the part of the official half of the Government to accommodate its policy to the wishes of its ministerial colleagues and of the majority of the legislature, and to avoid situations which involve resort to the enforcement of its decisions in the face of popular opposition, are not intended to obscure the responsibility to Parliament in the last resort of the Governor in Council for the administration of reserved subjects and the right of His Majesty's Government and of the Secretary of State as a member thereof, to lay down and require the observance of any principles which they regard as having the support of Parliament and in the last resort of the British electorate.

Transfer of Control.—With regard to transferred subjects the position is very different. Here there has been an actual transfer of control from the British elector and the British Parliament to the elector and the Legislative Council in the Indian province. The provincial subjects of administration are grouped into portfolios, and just as each member of the Executive Council has charge of a portfolio consisting of a specified list of "reserved" subjects or "departments," so each Minister is directly responsible for the administration of those particular transferred "departments" which are included in his portfolio. But his responsibility lies, not, as in the case of a member of the Executive Council, to the Government of India, the Secretary of State and Parliament, but to the Provincial Legislative Council of which he is an elected member and from which he is selected by the Governor as commanding or likely to command the support of the majority of that body. He holds office during the Governor's pleasure, but his retention of office is contingent on his ability to retain the confidence not only of the Governor, but also of the Legislative Council, upon whose vote he is directly dependent for his salary. Further, the control of the Legislative Council over transferred subjects, both as regards supplies and legislation, is almost entirely free from the restrictions just noticed which necessarily qualify its control over the "reserved" subjects. It is thus within the power of the Provincial Council to insist on the pursuit of a policy of its own choice in the administration of transferred subjects by withdrawing its confidence from a Minister who departs from that policy and bestowing it only on a successor who will follow its mandate: and this power is dependent on the provincial elector in virtue of his freedom to control the composition of the Legislative Council by the use which he makes of his vote. No doubt this statement requires some qualification before it can be accepted as literally accurate, for, technically, the authority charged with the administration of transferred subjects is "*the Governor acting with Ministers* appointed under this Act," not the Ministers acting on their own initiative, and, further the Governor, who is not, of course, subject to removal from office by the Legislative Council, is charged personally with responsibility for the peace and tranquillity of his province, and would be entitled, and indeed bound, to recommend the removal of a department from the transferred list if he found the legislature bent on pursuing a policy in its administration which, in his judgment, was incompatible

with the maintenance of peace and tranquillity; yet the powers of control vested in the Legislative Council over the transferred sphere are undoubtedly great, and it was the opinion at all events of the Joint Select Committee that legislature and Ministers should be allowed to exercise them with the greatest possible freedom. "If after hearing all the arguments," observed the Committee, "Ministers should "decide not to adopt his advice, then in the "opinion of the Committee the Governor should "ordinarily allow Ministers to have their way, "fixing the responsibility upon them, even if "it may subsequently be necessary for him to "vote any particular piece of legislation. It "is not possible but that in India, as in all other "countries, mistakes will be made by Ministers "acting with the approval of a majority of the "Legislative Council, but there is no way of "learning except through experience and "the realisation of responsibility."

Provision of Funds.—The terms of the Act leave the apportionment of the provincial revenues between the two halves of the executive for the financing of reserved and transferred subjects respectively to be settled by rules, merely providing that rules may be made "for "the allocation of revenues or moneys for the "purpose of such 'administration' *i.e.*, the "administration of transferred subjects by the "Governor acting with Ministers". Probably the best description available of the method adopted by the rules for the settlement of this matter is the recommendation of the Joint Select Committee whose proposals have been followed with one modification only to enable the Governor to revoke at any time, at the desire of his Council and Ministers an "order of allocation" or to modify it in accordance with their joint wishes. The passage is as follows:—

"The Committee have given much attention to the difficult question of the principle on which the provincial revenues and balances should be distributed between the two sides of the provincial governments. They are confident that the problem can readily be solved by the simple process of common sense and reasonable give-and-take, but they are aware that this question might, in certain circumstances, become the cause of much friction in the provincial government, and they are of opinion that the rules governing the allocation of these revenues and balances should be framed so as to make the existence of such friction impossible. They advise that, if the Governor, in the course of preparing either his first or any subsequent budget, find that there is likely to be a serious or protracted difference of opinion between the Executive Council and his Ministers on this subject he should be empowered at once to make an allocation of revenue and balances between the reserved and transferred subjects which should continue for at least the whole life of the existing Legislative Council. The Committee do not endorse the suggestion that certain sources of revenue should be allocated to reserved and certain sources to transferred subjects, but they recommend that the Governor should allocate a definite proportion of the revenue, say, by way of illustration, two-thirds to reserved and one-third to transferred subjects, and similarly a proportion, though not necessarily the same fraction of the balances. If the Governor desires assistance in making the allocation, he should be allowed at his discretion to refer the question to be decided to such authority as the Governor-General shall appoint. Further, the Committee are of opinion that it should be laid down from the first that, until an agreement which both sides of the Government will equally support has been reached, or until an allocation has been made by the Governor, the total provisions of the different expenditure heads in the budget of the province for the preceding financial year shall hold good.

The Committee desire that the relation of the two sides of the Government in this matter as in all others, should be of such mutual sympathy that each will be able to assist and influence for the common good the work of the other, but not to exercise control over it. The budget should not be capable of being used as a means for enabling Ministers or a majority of the Legislative Council to direct the policy of reserved subjects; but on the other hand the Executive Council should be helpful to Ministers in their desire to develop the departments entrusted to their care. On the Governor personally will devolve the task of holding the balance between the legitimate needs of both sets of his advisers."

THE CENTRAL GOVERNMENT.

The structural changes made by the Act of 1919 in the system of government outside the nine "Governors provinces" are of comparatively minor scope, though the spirit of the Act requires, as has already been shown, considerable modification of the relationship hitherto subsisting between the Provincial Governments on the one hand and the Government of India and the Secretary of State in Council on the other. The only concrete changes made in the constitution of the Central Government are the removal of the statutory bar to the appointment of more than six members of the Governor-General's Executive Council (which, however, has had the far-reaching consequence that three of the eight members of the Council are now Indians), and the reconstitution in a much more enlarged representative and independent form of the central legislature. It has already been observed that this body was, in origin, like all other legislative bodies in India, the Governor-General's Executive Council with the addition of certain "additional members" appointed to assist the Executive Council in the formulation of legislation. Despite its steady growth in size and influence, and despite the introduction of the elective system, the existence of "additional members," who of course under Lord Morley's Act greatly preponderated in numbers over the members proper, *i.e.*, the Executive Councillors, still persisted up to the passing of the Act of 1919. That Act, however, has entirely remodelled the "Indian Legislature," as it is now called, which has become, like the Legislative Council in a Governor's province a legislature with all the inherent powers ordinarily attributed to such a body save such

as are specifically withheld by the terms of the Act. It consists of two Chambers. The "Council of State" contains 60 members, of whom 34 are elected (including one member to represent Berar, who, though technically nominated, is nominated as the result of elections held in Berar) and 26 nominated, of whom not more than 20 may be officials. The "Legislative Assembly" consists of 144 members, of whom 104 are elected (including in the case of the Council of State, one Berar member who, though actually elected, as technically a nominee). Of the 40 nominated members, 26 are required to be officials. The members of the Governor-General's Executive Council are not *ex-officio* members of either Chamber, but each of them has to be appointed a member of one or other Chamber, and can vote only in the Chamber of which he is a member. Any member of the Executive Council may, however, speak in either Chamber. The President of the Upper Chamber is a nominee of the Governor-General, as also, for the first four years after the constitution of the Chamber, is the President of the Legislative Assembly. But after that period the Lower Chamber is to elect its own President, and it elects its own Deputy-President from the outset. The normal lifetime of each Council of State is five years, and of each Legislative Assembly three years; but either Chamber, or both simultaneously, may be dissolved at any time by the Governor-General.

Election.—The method of election for both Chambers is direct, and although the number of electors is considerably smaller than for the Provincial Councils, it is a great advance on the very restricted and for the most part indirect franchise established under the Act of 1909 for the unicameral central legislature which no longer exists. Generally speaking, the electoral scheme for the Lower Chamber is on the same model as that for the Provincial Councils already described except that, *firstly*, the property qualification for voters (and consequently for candidates) is higher in order to obtain manageable constituencies, and past service with the colours is not *per se* a qualification for the franchise, and *secondly*, that the constituencies necessarily cover a considerably larger area than constituencies for the Provincial Council. The distribution of seats in both Chambers, and the arrangement of constituencies, are on a provincial basis; that is a fixed number of the elective seats in each Chamber is assigned to representatives of each province, and these representatives are elected by constituencies covering an assigned area of the province.

The following table shows the allotment of the elective seats:—

	Legislative Assembly.	Council of State.
Madras	16	5
Bombay	16	6
Bengal	17	6
United Provinces ..	16	5
Punjab	12	4
Bihar and Orissa ..	12	3
Central Provinces ..	6	2
Assam	4	1
Burma	4	2
Delhi	1	..
	104	34

Since the area which returns perhaps 80 members to a Provincial Council is the same as the area which returns perhaps 12 members to the Legislative Assembly—namely, the entire province in each case—it follows that on the direct election system this area must be split into constituencies which are much larger than the constituencies for the local Councils, and just as it is generally correct to say that the normal area unit for those rural constituencies for the latter which are arranged on a territorial basis is the district, it may be said that the normal area unit in the case of the Legislative Assembly is the Division (the technical term for the administrative group of districts controlled by a Divisional Commissioner).

The Franchise.—The general result of the first franchise arrangements under the Act is thus that there is in each province a body of electors qualified to vote for, and stand for election to, the Provincial Council, and that a selected number of these voters are qualified to vote for and stand for election to those seats in the Legislative Assembly which are assigned to the province. The qualifications for candidature for the Legislative Assembly are the same in each province, *mutatis mutandis*, as for candidature for the Provincial Council, except that in all provinces, so long as the candidate can show that he resides somewhere within the province, no closer connection with his particular constituency is insisted upon.

The franchise for the Council of State differs in character from that for the Provincial Council and the Legislative Assembly. The concern of the framers of the Act and rules was to secure for the membership of this body a character as closely as possible approximating to a "Senate of Elder Statesmen" and thus to constitute a body capable of performing the function of a true revising Chamber. With this object, in addition and as an alternative to a high property qualification—adopted as a rough and ready method of enfranchising only persons with a stake in the country—the rules admit as qualifications certain personal attributes which are likely to connote the possession of some past administrative experience or a high standard of intellectual attainment. Examples of these qualifications are past membership of either Chamber of the Legislature as now constituted, or of its predecessor, or of the Provincial Council, the holding of high office in local bodies (district boards, municipalities and corporations), membership of the governing bodies of Universities, and the holding of titles conferred in recognition of Indian classical learning and literature.

Powers.—The powers and duties of the Indian legislature differ but little in character within the "central" sphere from those of the provincial Councils within their provincial sphere, and it has acquired the same right of voting supplies for the Central Government. But as no direct attempt has yet been made to introduce responsible government at the centre, the step in that direction having been avowedly confined to the provinces and as consequently

the Executive Government of India remains legally responsible as a whole for the proper fulfilment of its charge to the Secretary of State and Parliament, it follows that the powers conferred on provincial Governors to disregard an adverse vote of the Legislative Council on legislation or supplies are, as conferred on the Governor-General in his relationship with the Indian Legislature, less restricted in their operation than in the provinces; that is to say, they cover the whole field and are not confined in their application to categories of subjects.

THE INDIA OFFICE.

The Act makes no structural changes in the part played by the India Office in the administration of Indian affairs. Slight alterations have been effected in the number and tenure of office of the members of the Secretary of State's Council, and some relaxations have been made in the statutory rigidity which formerly bound their procedure and that of the Office in general. But provisions now exist which will undoubtedly as time goes on have a material effect on the activities of the Office as it is now constituted. A High Commissioner for India has been appointed for the purpose of taking over, as the direct agent of the Government of India, that portion of India Office functions which is of the nature of agency, as distinct from administrative supervision and control. The process of separation of staff and functions for the purpose of this transfer will necessarily be somewhat slow, but a substantial beginning has been made by handing over to the direct control of the High Commissioner the large departments which are concerned with the ordering and supply of stores and stationery in England for Government use in India, with the payment of pensions to retired members of Indian services resident in the United Kingdom, and with the assistance of Indian students in England. Concurrently with this change, it is now possible to defray from British revenues the salaries of the Secretary of State and of the Parliamentary Under-Secretary, and that portion of the cost of salaries of India Office staff and general maintenance which is attributable to the exercise of its administrative as distinct from purely agency functions.

In due course the apportionment to British estimates will be the cost of the India Office as it exists after the transfer of functions to the High Commissioner has been completely effected; then the salaries of the High Commissioner and his staff will be the only expenses in the United Kingdom chargeable to Indian revenues. Until that time arrives, however, an estimate was the only basis for settlement, and for five years from 1920-21, the cost of the India Office payable from British revenues has been fixed at 136,500*l*., which includes the salaries of the Secretary of State and of the Parliamentary Under-Secretary, and a contribution of 40,000*l*., which has for some years been made by the Treasury towards Indian expenditure, as the result of the recommendations of the Welby Commission.

PERSONNEL AND PROCEDURE.

The Governor-General and the "Executive" members of his Council are appointed by the Crown. No limit of time is specified for their tenure of office, but custom has fixed it at five years. There are seven Executive Members of Council. These Members hold respectively the portfolios of Education, Health and Land; Home; Finance; Commerce; Industries and Labour; Law. The Viceroy acts as his own member in charge of Foreign affairs. Railways are administered by a Chief Commissioner, with the assistance of a Railway Board; and are for administrative purposes grouped under the ægis of the Commerce Department. The Commander-in-Chief may also be and in practice always is, an "Ordinary" member of the Council. He holds charge of the Army Department. The Governors of Madras, Bombay and Bengal become "extraordinary" members if the Council meets within their Presidencies. The Council may assemble at any place in India which the Governor-General appoints in practice it meets only in Delhi and Simla.

In regard to his own Department each Member of Council is largely in the position of a Minister of State, and has the final voice in ordinary departmental matters. But any question of special importance, and any matter in which it is proposed to over-rule the views of a Local Government; must ordinarily be referred to the Viceroys. Any matter originating in one department which also affects another must be referred to the latter, and in the event of the Departments not being able to agree, the case is referred to the Viceroy. The Members of Council meet periodically as a Cabinet—ordinarily once or twice a week—to discuss questions which the Viceroy desires to put before them, or which a member who has been over-ruled by the Viceroy has asked to be referred to Council. If there is a difference of opinion in the Council the decision of the majority ordinarily prevails, but the Viceroy can over-rule a majority if he considers that the matter is of such grave importance as to justify such a step. Each departmental office is in the subordinate charge of a Secretary, whose position corresponds very much to that of a permanent Under-Secretary of State in the United Kingdom; but with these differences—that the Secretary is present though does not speak, at Council meetings at which cases under his cognisance are discussed: that he attends on the Viceroy, usually once a week, and discusses with him all matters of importance arising in his Department; that he has the right of bringing to the Viceroy's special notice any case in which he considers that the Viceroy's concurrence should be obtained to action proposed by the Departmental Member of Council; and that his tenure of office is usually limited to three years. The Secretaries have under them Deputy, Under and Assistant Secretaries, together with the ordinary clerical establishments. The Secretaries and Under-Secretaries are often, though by no means exclusively, members of the Indian Civil Service. The Government of India has no Civil Service of its own as distinct from that of the Provincial Governments, and officers serving under the Government of India are borrowed from the Provinces, or, in the case of Specialists, recruited direct by contract.

THE DIVISION OF FUNCTIONS.

The keynote of the scheme is effective provincial autonomy and the establishment of an immediate measure of responsibility in the provinces all of which are raised to the status of Governors in Council. This demanded a sharp division between Imperial and Provincial functions. The following subjects are reserved to the Government of India, with the corollary that all others vest in the Provincial Governments:—

1. (*a*) Defence of India, and all matters connected with His Majesty's Naval, Military, and Air Forces in India, or with His Majesty's Indian Marine Service or with any other force raised in India, other than military and armed police wholly maintained by local Governments.

(*b*) Naval and military works cantonments.

2. External relations, including naturalisation and aliens, and pilgrimages beyond India.

3. Relations with States in India.

4. Political charges.

5. Communications to the extent described under the following heads, namely:—

(*a*) railway and extra-municipal tramways in so far as they are not classified as provincial subjects under entry 6 (*d*) of Part II of this Schedule;

(*b*) aircraft and all matters connected therewith; and

(*c*) inland waterways, to an extent to be declared by rule made by the Governor-General in Council or by or under legislation by the Indian legislature.

6. Shipping and navigation, including shipping and navigation on inland waterways in so far as declared to be a central subject in accordance with entry 5 (*c*).

7. Light-houses (including their approaches) beacons, lightships and buoys.

8. Port quarantine and marine hospitals.

9. Ports declared to be major ports by rule made by the Governor-General in Council or by or under legislation by the Indian legislature.

10. Posts, telegraph and telephones, including wireless installations.

11. Customs, cotton excise duties, income-tax, salt, and other sources of all-India revenues.

12. Currency and coinage.

13. Public debt of India.

14. Savings Banks.

15. The Indian Audit Department and excluded Audit Departments, as defined in rules framed under section 96-D (1) of the Act.

16. Civil law, including laws regarding status, property, civil rights and liabilities and civil procedure.

17. Commerce, including banking and insurance.

18. Trading companies and other associations.

19. Control of production, supply and distribution of any articles in respect of which control by a central authority is declared by rule made by the Governor-General in Council or by or under legislation by the Indian legislature to be essential in the public interest.

20. Development of industries, in cases where such development by a central authority is declared by order of the Governor-General in Council, made after consultation with the local Government or local Governments concerned expedient in the public interest.

21. Control of cultivation and manufacture of opium, and sale of opium for export.

22. Stores and stationery, both imported and indigenous, required for Imperial Departments.

23. Control of petroleum and explosives.
24. Geological survey.

25. Control of mineral development, in so far as such control is reserved to the Governor-General in Council under rules made or sanctioned by the Secretary of State, and regulation of mines.

26. Botanical Survey.
27. Inventions and designs.
28. Copyright.

29. Emigration from, and immigration into British India, and inter-provincial migration.

30. Criminal law, including criminal procedure.

31. Central police organisation.
32. Control of arms and ammunition.

33. Central agencies and institutions for research (including observatories), and for professional or technical training or promotion of special studies.

34. Ecclesiastical administration including European cemeteries.
35. Survey of India.
36. Archæology.
37. Zoological Survey.
38. Meteorology.
39. Census and statistics.
40. All-India services.

41. Legislation in regard to any provincial subject in so far as such subject is in Part II of this Schedule stated to be subject to legislation by the Indian legislature, and any powers relating to such subject reserved by legislation to the Governor-General in Council.

42. Territorial changes, other than inter-provincial, and declaration of law in connection therewith.

43. Regulation of ceremonial, titles, orders, precedence, and civil uniform.

44. Immovable property acquired by, and maintained at the cost of, the Governor-General in Council.

45. The Public Service Commission.

GOVERNMENT OF INDIA.

VICEROY AND GOVERNOR-GENERAL OF INDIA.

His Excellency The Right Hon'ble Freeman Freeman-Thomas, Earl of Willingdon, G.M.S.I., G.C.M.G., G.M.I.E., G.B.E., 19th April 1931.

PERSONAL STAFF OF THE GOVERNOR-GENERAL.

Private Secretary.—E. C. Mieville, C.S.I., C.M.G.

Asst. Private Secretary.—Lt. O. C. B. St. John.

Military Secretary.—Colonel A. H. H. Muir, O.B.E., 2/11th Sikh Regiment.

Personal Assistant.—W. H. P. de la Hey, M.B.E.

Surgeon.—Lieut.-Colonel W. Ross Stewart, M.B., C.H.B., F.R.C.S. (Edin.), I.M.S.

Assistant to Surgeon.—J. A. Rogers, M.R.C.S., I.M.D.

Comptroller of the Household.—Major J. Britain Jones, The Black Watch (Royal Highlanders).

Aides-de-Camp.—Captains O. C. B. Smith Bingham, 17/21st Lancers; Captain J. H. Beattie, Royal Artillery; Captain R. G. Daubeny, I.P.; Captain G. B. Still, 5/12th Frontier Force Regiment; Captain R. B. Freeman-Thomas, King's Own Yorkshire Light Infantry.

Indian Aides-de-Camp.—Subedar-Major (Hony. Captain) Bhikham Singh, Sardar Bahadur, M.C., I.D.S.M., 4/12th Frontier Force Regiment; Risaldar-Major (Hony. Lieut.) Mehtab Singh, Governor-General's Body Guard.

Honorary Aides-de-Camp.—Lieut.-Colonel (Hony. Colonel) L. B. Grant, T.D., The Simla Rifles (A.F.I.); Captain E. D. Danglish, R.I.M., Lieut.-Colonel (Hony. Colonel) F. C. Temple, C.I.E., V.D., The Chota Nagpur Regiment (A.F.I.); Major (Hony. Lieut.-Colonel) W. H. Shoobert, The Nagpur Regiment (A.F.I.); Lieut.-Colonel (Hony. Colonel) D. R. C. Hartley, D.S.O., The V (Bombay) Field Artillery (A.F.I.); Lieut.-Colonel (Hony. Colonel) T. F. O'Donnel, M.C., V.D., Commanding, The University Training Corps; Lieut.-Colonel (Hony. Colonel) A. M. Robertson, M.C., V.D., Commanding 1st Battalion Bengal Nagpur Railway Regiment (A.F.I.); Lieut.-Colonel (Hony. Colonel) W. T. C. Huffam, O.B.E., M.C., V.D., Commanding, The Bombay Battalion (A.F.I.); Lieut.-Colonel (Hony. Colonel) A. B. Beddow, V.D., Commanding, Surma Valley Light Horse; Lieut.-Colonel (Hony. Colonel) T. Lamb, V.D., The Bengal Artillery (A.F.I.); Lieut.-Colonel (Hony. Colonel) E. K. Glazebrook, The Rangoon Battalion (A.F.I.); Lieut.-Colonel (Hony. Colonel) G. H. Newton, V.D., Commanding, The South Indian Railway Battalion (A.F.I.).

Honorary Indian Aides-de-Camp.—Lieut.-Colonel Thakur Amar Singh, Commandant, Jaipur Lancers; Colonel Shambhaji Rao Bhonsle, O.B.E., Adjutant-General, Gwalior Army; Brigadier Rahmatulla Khan, Thakur, General Staff Officer, Jammu and Kashmir State Forces; Lieut.-Colonel Mirza Kadar Beg, Sardar Bahadur, Commanding 1st Hyderabad Imperial Service Lancers; Sardar-Major (Hony. Captain) Mit Singh, Sardar Bahadur, I.O.M., late 53rd Sikhs; Risaldar-Major Karam Singh, Bahadur, I.D.S.M., late 15th (D.C.O.) Lancers; Risaldar-Major (Hony. Captain) Mohi-ud-din Khan, Sardar Bahadur, C.I.E., I.D.S.M., late 31st (D.C.O.) Lancers; Subedar-Major (Hony. Captain) Dalpat Singh, Sardar Bahadur, I.O.M., late 9th Jat Regiment; Subedar-Major (Hony. Captain) Gulab Shah, Sardar Bahadur, 3/10th Baluch Regiment; Risaldar-Major (Hony. Lieut.) Jaffar Hussain, H. E. the Governor-General's Body Guard; Risaldar-Major (Hony. Lieut.) Sheikh Faizuddin, I.D.S.M., 9th Royal Deccan Horse.

Honorary Surgeons.—Lieut.-Colonel G. G. Tabuteau, D.S.O., R.A.M.C.; Colonel G. C. L. Kerans, D.S.O., I.M.S.; Colonel Sir Frank Conner, Kt., D.S.O., F.R.C.S., I.M.S.; Colonel D. Ahern, D.S.O., late R.A.M.C.; Major General H. R. Nutt, M.D., F.R.C.S., I.M.S.; Colonel E. W. C. Bradfield, C.I.E., O.B.E., M.B.M.S., F.R.C.S., I.M.S.; Colonel A. H. Proctor, D.S.O., M.D., F.R.C.S.E., I.M.S.; Colonel J. P. Cameron, C.S.I., C.I.E., F.R.C.S., I.M.S.; Major W. L. E. Fretz, M.B., R.A.M.C.; Colonel G. A. D. Harvey, C.M.G., late R.A.M.C.

Honorary Assistant Surgeons.—V. L. Sathe, B.A., L.M. & S. (Bom.), F.R.C.S. (Edin.) D.T.M. & H. (Cantab.), B.M.S. (Bombay); Ganga Prasad Rawat (United Provinces); M. R. Ry. Rao Bahadur A. Lakshamanswami Mudaliyar Avergal, B.A., M.D. (Madras); M. D. R. David, M.B., C.M. (Mad.), F.R.C.S. (Edin.), (Burma); Rai Bahadur Dr. Mathra Das (Punjab); Dr. Dabiruddin Ahmad, O.B.E. (Bengal); Rai Bahadur Dr. Sanat Kumar Barat (Bihar and Orissa); G. R. Goverdhan, L.M. & S. (Central Provinces).

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The Hon'ble Sir Nripendra Nath Sircar, Kt., (*Law*).

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The Hon'ble Sir H. G. Haig, K.C.S.I., C.I.E., I.C.S. (*Home*).

The Hon'ble Sir Frank Noyce, Kt., C.S.I., C.B.E., I.C.S. (*Industries and Labour*).

SECRETARIAT.

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Joint Secretary, Ram Chandra, C.I.E., M.B.E., I.C.S.

Deputy Secretary, M. S. A. Hydari, I.C.S.

Addl. Dy. Secy., R. H. Hutchings, I.C.S.

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Inspector-General of Forests, C. G. Trevor, C.I.E., (Dehra Dun).

Asst. Secretary, H. H. Lincoln.

Superintendents, Rai Sahib L. M. Roy, E. B. Hughes, Dhanpat Rai, Sohan Singh, B.A., (on leave), C. P. Singer, Tahir Ali, B.Sc., and Harichand (Offg.)

Finance Department.

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Deputy Secretary, W. Christie, M.C., I.C.S.

Budget Officer, K. Sanjiva Row, M.A.

Under-Secretary, B. Shearer, I.C.S.

Assistant Secretaries, S. M. Ahmed, M.A., and G. K. Sarma, B.A.

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Controller of the Currency, W. Kelly.

Auditor-General, Sir Ernest Burdon, Kt., C.S.I., C.I.E., I.C.S.

Deputy Auditor-General in India, A. C. Badenoch, C.I.E., I.C.S.

Army Department.

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Under Secretary, P. Mason, I.C.S.

Officer on Special Duty, Lieut.-Col. G. F. J. Paterson, O.B.E., M.C., Lieut.-Col. S. B. Jackson, M.B.E.

Assistant Secretaries, Major A. E. R. Lumby, C.I.E., O.B.E., (on leave) J. W. B. Gardner, M.B.E., and Rai Sahib S. S. Ghosh (Temporary).

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Secretary, Rai Bahadur Pandit Ram Nath, B.A.

Military Finance Branch.

Financial Adviser, A. Macleod, C.I.E., I.C.S.

Deputy Financial Advisers, W. J. Coates, B.A., J. C. Brommage, M.B.E., E. Harpn, M.A., B.Sc., V. Natesan, M.A., (Junior), R. E. Odling.

Assistant Financial Advisers, W. F. Morton, P. N. Hardcastle, Rai Sahib Amar Nath, Rai Sahib Gaya Prasad, F.R.E.S., and Rai Sahib Hakumat Rai.

Superintendents, H. D. Banerjee, M.A., M. Gopalan, S. C. Roy, M.A., A. C. Mukharjee, B.Sc. and Bishambar Das.

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Joint Secretary, T. Sloan, C.I.E., I.C.S.

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Under-Secretary, C. F. V. Williams, I.C.S.

Assistant Secretary, W. D'Ahuja, M.B.E.

Superintendents, Rai Sahib T. P. Roy, N. Banerjee, F. H. T. Ward, E. S. Keymer, E. H. Forst, and Khan Sahib Agha Sikandar (offg.).

Director, Public Information.

Director, I. M. Stephens, M.A.

Imperial Council of Agriculture Research.

Chairman, The Hon. Khan Bahadur Mian Sir Fazl-i-Husain, K.C.S.I., K.C.I.E., Kt.

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Animal Husbandry Expert, Col. A. Olver, C.B., C.M.G., F.R.C.V.S.

Secretary, Rai Sahib Malik Charan Das.

Superintendent, Rai Sahib Tej Bhan Bahl, B.A. (On leave.)

Superintendent (Offg.), Fazlul Karim.

Statistician, M. Vaidyanathan, M.A., L.T., F.S.S.

Chief Economist, Ramji Das Kapur, M.A., B.Sc.

Sugar Technologist, Cawnpore, R. C. Srivastava, B.Sc.

Locust Res. Entomologist, Karachi, Rao Sahib Ramachandra Rao Garu, M.A., F.E.S.

Foreign and Political Department.

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Secretary, Foreign, H. A. F. Metcalfe, C.S.I., C.I.E., M.V.O.

Joint Secretary, R. E. L. Wingate, C.I.E.

Deputy Secretary, Political, Major C. G. Prior.

Deputy Secretary, Foreign, Major W. K. Fraser-Tytler, C.M.G., M.C.

Additional Deputy Secretary, V. Narahari Rao, M.A.

Under Secretary, Captain R. R. Burnett, O.B.E.

Assistant Secretary, A. F. Emmer, I.S.O., R. A. K. Hill, (On leave), Rai Bahadur S. C. Biswas (Offg.).

Military Adviser-in-Chief, Indian States Forces, Brigadier H. Campbell, C.B., D.S.O., M.V.O.

Staff Officer to the Military Adviser-in-Chief, Indian States Forces, Major H. C. James, M.C.

Superintendents, E. Leicester, I.S.O., Rai Bahadur Ramji Das Dhamejah, K.P., Dewar (on deputation), Rai Sahib A. K. Kaul, Rao Sahib B. R. Subramaniam, Pran Kishan (on leave), G. A. Heron (on deputation), I. S. Gonsalves, M. O. Dover, Sardar Sahib Sundar Singh Chhabra, A. J. Courtney, J. M. Mathews (offg.), Bishen Singh (offg.) and S. N. Chatterjee (offg.).

DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE.

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Offg. Secretary, T. A. Stewart, I.C.S.

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Deputy Secretary, N. R. Pillai, I.C.S.

Secretary Indian Accountancy Bd., M. L. Tannan, I.E.S., Bar-at-Law.

Assistant Secretary, Rai Sahib Ladli Pershad, B.A.

Assistant Secretary, G. Corley Smith, M.B.E. (On leave), A. N. Puri, B.A., LL.B. (offg.).

Chief Inspector of Lighthouses in British India, J. Oswald, M. Inst. C.E.

Nautical Advisers to the Government of India, Capt. E. V. Whish, O.B.E., R.I.M., (Retd.).

Chief Surveyor with the Government of India, Engr. Capt. J. S. Page, R.I.M.

Inspector of Lighthouses in British India, A. N. Seal, B.SC. (on leave).

Actuary to the Government of India, N. Mukerji, M.A., B.L., A.I.A.

POST AND TELEGRAPH DEPARTMENT.

Director-General, G. V. Bewoor, C.I.E., I.C.S.

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Financial Commissioner, P. R. Rau.

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Director of Traffic, N. D. Calder.

Director of Establishment, R. B. Mathu Das.

Director of Finance, T. S. Sankara Aiyar.

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Deputy Director, Traffic (Commercial), F. D'Souza.

Deputy Director Traffic (Transportation), Z. H. Khan.

Deputy Director (Finance), Khan Bahadur Barkat Ali.

Deputy Director, Mechanical Engineering, T. G. Creighton.

Supervisor of Railway Labour, Major H. W. Wagstaff.

Assistant Secretary, H. W. C. C. Smith.

Timber Advisory Officer, H. C. B. Jollye, I.F.S.

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Deputy Chief Controller of Standards, E. Ingoldby.

Assistant Chief Controller of Standards, L. H. Swain.

Chief Mechanical Draftsman, T. T. Lambert.

Chief Struc. Draftsman T. V. S. Edwards.

Assistant-in-charge, Devchand.

Superintendents, J. S. Sequeira (Traffic), R. S. Raghavan (Finance), Kishori Lal (Budget) and Baldeo Sohay Mohona (Stores).

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Joint Secretary and Draftsman, J. Bartley I.C.S.

Deputy Secretary, G. H. Spence, C.I.E., I.C.S.

Assistant Secretary, Rai Amrita Lala Banerjee Bahadur, B.A.

Assistant Secretary, A. W. Chick.

Superintendents L. E. James, A. K. Gupta, B.A.

SOLICITORS BRANCH.

Solicitor, A. Kirke Smith.

2nd Solicitor S. Webb-Johnson, O.B.E.

Asst. Solicitor S. N. Mushran, Bar-at Law.

SURVEY OF INDIA.

Col. H. J. Couchman, D.S.O., M.C.

GEOLOGICAL SURVEY OF INDIA.

Director, L. Leigh Fermor, O.B.E., A.R.S.M., D.S.C (London), F.G.S., F.A.S.B., M. Inst. M.M.

Superintendents, J. Coggin Brown, O.B.E., D.SC. (Dunelm), F.G.S., F.A.S.B., M.I. Min. E., M. Inst. M. M., M.I.E., (India); A. M. Heron, D.SC. (Edin.), F.G.S., F.R.G.S., F.R.S.E.; C. S. Fox, D.S.E. (Birm.), M.I. Min. E., F.G.S.; and E. L. G. Clegg, B. SC. (Manch.)

Assistant Superintendents, H. Crookshank, B.A., B.A.I. (Dub.); G. V. Hobson, B.SC., (Lond.), A.R.S.M., D.I.C., M. Inst., M.M.; E. J. Bradshaw, B.A., B.A.I., (Dub.) M.SC. (California); A. L. Coulson, D.SC. (Melb.), D.I.C., F.G.S., D. N. Wadia, M.A., B.SC., (Bom.), F.G.S.; F.R.G.S.; J. A. Dunn, D. SC. (Melb.), D.I.C., F.G.S.; C. T. Barber, M.SC. (Birm), F.G.S., M. Inst., P.T.; E. R. Gee, M.A., (Cantab), F.G.S.; W. D. West, M.A. (Cantab), M. S. Krishnan, M.A. (Madras), A.R.C.S., D.I.C. Ph. D. (London); J. B. Auden, M.A. (Cantab); V. P. Sondhi, M.SC. (Punjab), F.G.S.

BOTANICAL SURVEY OF INDIA.

Director, C. C. Calder, B.A.G., B.SC. (Agr.), F.L.S. also Superintendent, Royal Botanic Garden, Sibpur, and Superintendent, Cinchona Cultivation, Bengal; *Curator, Industrial Section, Indian Museum*, S. N. Bal, M.S.R., P.H.C., F.L.S.; *Systematic Assistant*, V. Narayanaswami, M.A.; *Superintendent, Cinchona Cultivation in Burma*, P. T. Russell.

ARCHAEOLOGICAL SURVEY.

Director-General of Archaeology, Rai Bahadur Dava Ram Sahni, M.A.; *Deputy Director-General*, Khan Bahadur Maulvi Zafar Hasan, B.A.; *Superintendent*, K. N. Dikshit, M.A.; *Assistant Superintendent, Central India and Rajputna*, H. I. Srinivastava, M.A.; *Superintendent, Frontier Circle*, J. F. Blakiston; *Assistant Superintendent, Frontier Circle*, M. S. Vats, M.A.; *Superintendent*, B. L. Dhama; *Offg. Superintendent, Northern Circle*, Hohd. Hamid Kuraishi, B.A.; *Superintendent, Western Circle*, Dr. Mohd. Nazim, M.A., Ph.D.; *Superintendent, Central Circle*, G. C. Chandra; *Offg. Superintendent, Southern Circle*, H. H. Khan, A.R.I.B.A.; *Superintendent, Burma Circle*, U. Mya; *Government Epigraphist for India*, Dr. Hirananda Sastri, M.A., M.O.L., Litt. D.; *Offg. Superintendent for Epigraphy*, C. R. Krishnamacharlu, B.A.; *Offg. Assistant Superintendent for Epigraphy*, Dr. N. P. Chakravarty, M.A., Ph.D.; *Superintendent, Archaeological Section, Indian Museum*, N. G. Majumdar, M.A.; *Archaeological Chemist in India*, Khan Bahadur Mohd. Sona Ullah, M. Sc., F.S.C.; *Assistant Archl. Chemist in India*, Dr. Mohd. Abdul Hamid, Ph.D., M.Sc., F.S.C.; *Curator, Central Asian Antiquities Museum*, Q. M. Moneer, B.A.; *Assistant Engineer*, K. A. A. Ansari, Ph.D., C.E.; *Officer on Special Duty*, Sir John Marshall, Kt., C.I.E., Litt. D., F.S.A.

MISCELLANEOUS APPOINTMENTS.

Director-General, Indian Medical Service, (Officiating), Major-General G. A. Sprawson, C.I.E., I.M.S.

Public Health Commissioner with the Government of India, Lt.-Col. A. J. H. Russell, C.B.E., I.M.S.

Deputy Director-General, Indian Medical Service, Lt.-Col. G. G. Jolly, C.I.E.

Assistant Director-General, Indian Medical Service, Lieut.-Col. R. Sweet, D.S.O., I.M.S.

Director, Central Research Institute, Kasauli, Lt.-Col. J. Taylor, D.S.O., M.D., D.P.H., I.M.S.

Assistant to Director, Central Research Institute, Kasauli, Major A. C. Craighead, I.M.S.

Director-General of Observatories, Poona, C. W. B. Normand, M.A., D.Sc.

Director, Kodaikanal and Madras Observatories, Thoms Royds, D.Sc.

Meteorologist, Bombay Observatory, Dr. S. C. Roy, D.Sc.

Librarian, Imperial Library, Calcutta, K. M. Asadullah, B.A., F.L.A.

Director, Imperial Institute of Agricultural Research, Dr. W. McRae, M.A., D.Sc.

Director, Zoological Survey of India, Indian Museum, Dr. Baini Prashad, D.Sc.

Master, Security Printing, Nasik Road, Col. Sir George Willis, Kt., C.I.E., M.V.O., R.E., M.I.M.E.

Director, Intelligence Bureau, Sir Horace Williamson, Kt., C.I.E.

Director-General of Commercial Intelligence and Statistics, D. B. Meek.

Deputy Director-General of Commercial Intelligence and Statistics, Rai Bahadur S. N. Banerji, B.A.

Controller of Patents and Designs, K. Rama Pai, M.A.

GOVERNORS-GENERAL OF FORT WILLIAM IN BENGAL.

Name.	Assumed charge of office.
Warren Hastings ..	..20 Oct. 1774
Sir John Macpherson, Bart.	.. 8 Feb. 1785
Earl Cornwallis, K.G. (*a*)	..12 Sep. 1786
Sir John Shore, Bart. (*b*)	..28 Oct. 1793

(*a*) Created Marquess Cornwallis, 15 Aug. 1792

(*b*) Afterwards (by creation) Baron Teignmout.

Lieut.-General the Hon. Sir Alfred Clarke, K.C.B. (*offg.*)	..17 Mar. 1798
The Earl of Mornington, P.C. (*c*)	18 May 1798
The Marquess Cornwallis, K.G. (2nd time)	..30 July 1805
Captain L. A. P. Anderson, Sir George H. Barlow, Bart. ..	..10 Oct. 1805
Lord Minto, P.C. (*d*) ..	..31 July 1807
The Earl of Moira, K.G., P.C. (*e*)	4 Oct. 1813
John Adam (*offg.*) ..	..13 Jan. 1823
Lord Amherst, P.C. (*f*) ..	.. 1 Aug. 1823
William Butterworth Bayley (*offg.*)	13 Mar. 1828
Lord William Cavendish Bentinck, G.C.B., G.C.H., P.C.	4 July 1828

(*c*) Created Marquess Wellesley, 2 Dec. 1799

(*d*) Created Earl of Minto .. 24 Feb. 1813

(*e*) Created Marquess of Hastings. 2 Dec. 1816

(*f*) Created Earl Amherst .. 2 Dec. 1826

GOVERNORS-GENERAL OF INDIA.

Name.	Assumed charge of office.
Lord William Cavendish Bentinck, G.C.B., G.C.H., P.C. ..	..14 Nov. 1834
Sir Charles Metcalfe, Bart. (*a*) (*offg.*)	..20 Mar. 1835
Lord Auckland, G.C.B., P.C. (*b*) ..	4 Mar. 1836
Lord Ellenborough, P.C. (*c*)	..28 Feb. 1842
William Wilberforce Bird (*offg.*)	15 June 1844
The Right Hon. Sir Henry Hardinge, G.C.B. (*d*)	..23 July 1844
The Earl of Dalhousie, P.C. (*e*)	.. 12 Jan. 1848
Viscount Canning, P.C. (*f*)	..29 Feb. 1856

(*a*) Afterwards (by creation) Baron Metcalfe.
(*b*) Created Earl of Auckland, 21 Dec. 1839.
(*c*) Afterwards (by creation) Earl of Ellenborough.
(*d*) Created Viscount Hardinge, 2 May 1846
(*e*) Created Marquess of Dalhousie, 25 Aug. 1849
(*f*) Afterwards (by creation) Earl Canning.

NOTE.—The Governor-General ceased to be the direct Head of the Bengal Government from the 1st May, 1854, when the first Lieutenant-Governor assumed office. On 1st April 1912, Bengal was placed under a separate Governor and the appointment of Lieutenant-Governor was abolished.

VICEROYS AND GOVERNORS-GENERAL OF INDIA.

Name.	Assumed charge of office.
Viscount Canning, P.C. (*a*) ..	1 Nov. 1858
The Earl of Elgin and Kincardine, KT., G.C.B., P.C.	12 March 1862
Major-General Sir Robert Napier, K.C.B. (*b*) (*offg.*)	21 Nov. 1863
Colonel Sir William T. Denison, K.C.B. (*offg.*)	2 Dec. 1863
The Right Hon. Sir John Lawrence, Bart, G.C.B., K.C.S.I. (*c*) ..	12 Jan. 1864
The Earl of Mayo, K.P.	12 Jan. 1869
John Strachey (*d*) (*offg.*) ..	9 Feb. 1872
Lord Napier of Merchistoun, KT. (*e*) (*offg.*)	23 Feb. 1872
Lord Northbrook, P.C. (*h*) ..	3 May 1872
Lord Lytton, G.C.B. (*g*)	12 Apl. 1876
The Marquess of Ripon, K.G., P.C.	8 June 1880
The Earl of Dufferin, K.P., G.C.B., G.C.M.G., P.C. (*i*)	13 Dec. 1884
The Marquess of Lansdowne, G.C. M.G.	10 Dec. 1888
The Earl of Elgin and Kincardine, P.C.	27 Jan. 1894
Baron Curzon of Kedleston, P.C.	6 Jan. 1899
Baron Ampthill (*offg.*)	30 Apl. 1904
Baron Curzon of Kedleston P.C. (*j*)	13 Dec. 1904
The Earl of Minto, K. G., P.C., G.C. M.G.	18 Nov. 1905
Baron Hardinge of Penshurst, P.C., G.C.B., G.C.M.G., G.C.V.O., I.S.O. (*j*)	23 Nov. 1910
Lord Chelmsford..	Apl. 1916
Marquess of Reading	Apl. 1921
Baron Irwin	Apl. 1926
The Earl of Willingdon.. ..	Apl. 1931

(*a*) Created Earl Canning, 21 May 1859.
(*b*) Afterwards (by creation) Baron Napier of Magdala.
(*c*) Afterwards (by creation) Baron Lawrence.
(*d*) Afterwards Sir John Strachey, G.C.S.I., C.I.E.
(*e*) Afterwards (by creation) Baron Napier of Ettrick.
(*f*) Afterwards (by creation) Earl of Northbrook.
(*g*) Created Earl of Lytton, 28 April 1880.
(*h*) Created Marquis of Dufferin and Ava, 12 Nov. 1888.
(*i*) Created an Earl .. .. June 1911.
(*j*) During tenure of office, the Viceroy is Grand Master and First and Principal Knight of the two Indian Orders (G.M.S.I. and G.M.I.E.) On quitting office, he becomes G.C.S.I. and G.C.I.E.; with the date of his assumption of the Viceroyalty.

The Imperial Legislatures.

The gradual evolution of the Indian constitution is fully traced in the article on "The Government of India," which precedes this; so also are the great changes made by the Reform Act of 1919. For the purposes of easy reference the powers of the Legislatures, as well as the special powers reserved to the Governor-General for the discharge of his responsibilities, which are fully set out in the Act, are reproduced below:—

21. (1) Every Council of State shall continue for five years, and every Legislative Assembly for three years, from its first meeting.

Provided that—

(*a*) either chamber of the legislature may be sooner dissolved by the Governor-General and

(*b*) any such period may be extended by the Governor-General if in special circumstances, he so thinks fit; and

(*c*) after the dissolution of either chamber the Governor-General shall appoint a date not more than six months, or with the sanction of the Secretary of State, not more than nine months after the date of dissolution for the next session of that chamber.

22. (1) An official shall not be qualified for election as a member of either chamber of the Indian legislature, and, if any non-official member of either chamber accepts office in the service of the Crown in India his seat in that chamber shall become vacant.

(4) Every member of the Governor-General's Executive Council shall be nominated as a member of one chamber of the Indian legislature, and shall have the right of attending in and addressing the other chamber, but shall not be a member of both chambers.

24. (3) If any Bill which has been passed by one chamber is not, within six months after the passage of the Bill by that chamber, passed by the other chamber either without amendments or with such amendments as may be agreed to by the two chambers, the Governor-General may in his discretion refer the matter for decision to a joint sitting of both chambers, Provided that standing orders made under this section may provide for meetings of members of both chambers appointed for the purpose, in order to discuss any difference of opinion which has arisen between the two chambers.

(4) Without prejudice to the powers of the Governor-General under section sixty-eight of the principal Act, the Governor-General may where a Bill has been passed by both chambers of the Indian legislature, return the Bill for reconsideration by either chambers.

(7) Subject to the rules and standing orders affecting the chamber, there shall be freedom of speech in both chambers of the Indian legislature. No person shall be liable to any proceeding in any court by reason of his speech or vote in either chamber, or by reason of anything contained in any official report of the proceedings of either chamber.

25. INDIAN BUDGET:—(1) The estimated annual expenditure and revenue of the Governor-General in Council shall be laid in the form of a statement before both chambers of the Indian legislature in each year.

(2) No proposal for the appropriation of any revenue or moneys for any purpose shall be made except on the recommendation of the Governor-General.

(3) The proposals of the Governor-General in Council for the appropriation of revenue or moneys relating to the following heads of expenditure shall not be submitted to the vote of the legislative assembly, nor shall they be open to discussion by either chamber at the time when the annual statement is under consideration, unless the Governor-General otherwise directs—

(*i*) interest and sinking fund charges on loans and

(*ii*) expenditure of which the amount is prescribed by or under any law; and

(*iii*) salaries and pensions of persons appointed by or with the approval of His Majesty or by the Secretary of State in Council; and

(*iv*) salaries of chief commissioners and judicial commissioners; and

(*v*) expenditure classified by the order of the Governor-General in Council as—

(*a*) ecclesiastical;

(*b*) political;

(*c*) defence.

(4) If any question arises whether any proposed appropriation of revenue of money, does or does not relate to the above heads the decision of the Governor-General on the question shall be final.

(5) The proposals of the Governor-General in Council for the appropriation of revenue or moneys relating to heads or expenditure not specified in the above heads shall be submitted to the vote of the legislative assembly in the form of demands for grants.

(6) The legislative assembly may assent or refuse its assent to any demand or may reduce the amount referred to in any demand by a reduction of the whole grant.

(7) The demands as voted by the legislative assembly shall be submitted to the Governor-General in Council, who shall, if he declares that he is satisfied that any demand which has been refused by the legislative assembly is essential to the discharge of his responsibilities, act as if it had been assented to, notwithstanding the withholding of such assent or the reduction of the amount therein referred to, by the legislative assembly.

(8) Notwithstanding anything in this section the Governor-General shall have power, in cases of emergency, to authorise such expenditure as may, in his opinion, be necessary for the safety or tranquillity of British India or any part thereof.

26. EMERGENCY POWERS:—(1) Where either chamber of the Indian legislature refuses leave to introduce or fails to pass in a form recommended by the Governor-General any Bill, the Governor-General may certify that the passage of the Bill is essential for the safety, tranquillity or interests of British India or any part thereof, and thereupon—

(*a*) if the Bill has already been passed by the other chamber, the Bill shall, on signature by the Governor-General, notwithstanding that it has not been consented to by both chambers, forthwith become an Act of the Indian legislature in the form of the Bill as originally introduced or proposed to be introduced in the Indian legislature, or (as the case may be) in the form recommended by the Governor-General; and

(*b*) if the Bill has not already been so passed, the Bill shall be laid before the other chamber, and, if consented to by that chamber in the form recommended by the Governor-General, shall become an Act as aforesaid on the signification of the Governor-General's assent, or, if not so consented to shall, on signature by the Governor-General, become an Act as aforesaid.

(2) Every such Act shall be expressed to be made by the Governor-General and shall, as soon as practicable after being made, be laid before both Houses of Parliament, and shall not have effect until it has received His Majesty's assent, and shall not be presented for His Majesty's assent until copies thereof have been laid before each House of Parliament for not less than eight days on which that House has sat; and upon the signification of such assent by His Majesty in Council and the notification thereof by the Governor-General, the Act shall have the same force and effect as an Act passed by the Indian legislature and duly assented to:

Provided that, where in the opinion of the Governor-General a state of emergency exists which justifies such action, the Governor-General may direct that any such Act shall come into operation forthwith, and thereupon the Act shall have such force and effect as aforesaid, subject, however, to disallowance by His Majesty in Council.

27. SUPPLEMENTAL PROVISIONS:—(1) In addition to the measures referred to in sub-section (2) of section sixty-seven of the principal Act, as requiring the previous sanction of the Governor-General it shall not be lawful without such previous sanction to introduce at any meeting of either chamber of the Indian legislature any measure—

(*a*) regulating any provincial subject, or any part of a provincial subject, which has not been declared by rules under the principal Act to be subject to legislation by the Indian legislature;

(*b*) repealing or amending any Act of a local legislature;

(*c*) repealing or amending any Act or ordinance made by the Governor-General.

(2) Where in either chamber of the Indian legislature any Bill has been introduced or is proposed to be introduced, or any amendment to a Bill is moved, or proposed to be moved, the Governor-General may certify that the Bill or any clause of it, or the amendment affects the safety or tranquillity of British India, or any part thereof, and may direct that no proceedings, or that no further proceedings, shall be taken by the chamber in relation to the Bill, clause, or amendment and effect shall be given to such direction.

THE LEGISLATIVE ASSEMBLY.

President:—Sir R. K. Shanmukham Chetty, K.C.I.E.

Deputy President:—Mr. Abdul Matin Chaudhury.

A. ELECTED MEMBERS (104).

Constituency.	Name.
Madras City (Non-Muhammadan Urban) ..	M.R.Ry. Diwan Bahadur A. Ramaswami Mudaliar.
Ganjam *cum* Vizagapatam (Non-Muhammadan Rural).	Mr. B. Sitarama Raju.
Godavari *cum* Kistna (Non-Muhammadan Rural).	Mr. Mochay Narasimha Rao.
Guntur *cum* Nellore (Non-Muhammadan Rural).	M. R.Ry. Ponake Govindu Reddy Garu.
Madras ceded districts and Chittoor (Non-Muhammadan Rural).	Mr. T. N. Ramakrishna Reddi.
Salem and Coimbatore *cum* North Arcot (Non-Muhammadan Rural).	Sir R. K. Shanmukham Chetty, K.C.I.E. †
South Arcot *cum* Chingleput (Non-Muhammadan Rural).	Diwan Bahadur T. Rangachariar, C.I.E.
Tanjore *cum* Trichinopoly (Non-Muhammadan Rural).	Raja Bahadur G. Krishnamachariar.
Madura and Ramnad *cum* Tinnevelly (Non-Muhammadan Rural).	Mr. B. Rajaram Pandian.
West Coast and Nilgiris (Non-Muhammadan Rural).	Mr. K. P. Thampan.
North Madras (Muhammadan)	Mahomed Muazzam Saheb Bahadur.
South Madras (Muhammadan)	Moulvi Sayyid Murtuza Saheb Bahadur.
West Coast and Nilgiris (Muhammadan) ..	Kottal Uppi Saheb Bahadur.
Madras (European)	Mr. F. E. James.
Madras Landholders	Raja Sir Vasudeva Rajah, Kt., C.I.E.
Madras Indian Commerce	Mr. Vidya Sagar Pandya.
Bombay City (Non-Muhammadan Urban) ..	Mr. Naoroji M. Dumasia
Ditto.	Sir Cowasji Jehanjir, K.C.I.E., O.B.E.
Sind (Non-Muhammadan Rural)	Diwan Lalchand Navalrai.
Bombay Northern Division (Non-Muhammadan Rural).	Mr. N. N. Anklesaria.
Bombay Central Division (Muhammadan Rural).	Sir Ibrahim Rahimtulla, K.C.S.I., C.I.E.
Bombay Central Division (Non-Muhammadan Rural).	Mr. B. V. Jadhav.
Ditto.	Mr. N. R. Gunjal.
Bombay Southern Division (Non-Muhammadan Rural).	Rao Bahadur B. L. Patil.
Bombay City (Muhammadan Urban)	Mr. Rahimtoola M. Chinoy.
Sind (Muhammadan Rural)	Seth Haji Abdulla Haroon.
Ditto.	Nawab Naharsinghji Ishwarsingji.
Bombay (European)	Mr. D. N. O'Sullivan.
Ditto.	Sir Leslie Hudson, Kt.
The Indian Merchants' Chamber and Bureau (Indian Commerce).	....
Gujarat and Deccan Sardars and Inamdars (Landholders).	Sardar G. N. Majumdar.

† Elected President.

Constituency.	Name.
Bombay Millowners' Association (Indian Commerce). **	Mr. Hormusji Peeroshaw Mody.
Calcutta (Non-Muhammadan Urban)	Mr. C. C. Biswas.
Calcutta Suburbs (Non-Muhammadan Urban)..	Mr. Nabakumar Sing Dudhoria.
Burdwan Division (Non-Muhammadan Rural) ..	Babu Amarnath Dutt.
Presidency Division (Non-Muhammadan Rural).	Pundit Satyendranath Sen.
Dacca Division (Non-Muhammadan Rural) ..	Mr. Kshitish Chandra Neogy.
Chittagong and Rajshaji Divisions (Non-Muhammadan Rural).	Mr. S. C. Mitra.
Calcutta and Suburbs (Muhammadan Urban) ..	Sir Abdur Rahim, K.C.S.I., KT.
Burdwan and Presidency Divisions (Muhammadan Rural).	Dr. Sir A. Suhrawardy.
Dacca *cum* Mymensingh (Muhammadan Rural).	Mr. A. H. Ghuznavi.
Bakergunj *cum* Faridpur (Muhammadan Rural)	Haji Choudhary Mohamad Ismail Khan.
Chittagong Division (Muhammadan Rural) ..	Mr. Md. Anwarul Azim.
Rajshahi Division (Muhammadan Rural) ..	Mr. Kabir-ud-Din Ahmed.
Bengal (European)	Sir Darcy Firdsay, Kt. C.B.E.
Do.	„ E. Studd.
Do.	Mr. G. Morgan, C.I.E.
Bengal Landholders	Mr. Dhirendra Kanta Lahiri Chaudhury.
Bengal National Chamber of Commerce (Indian Commerce).	Mr. Satish Chandra Sen.
Cities of the United Provinces (Non-Muhammadan Urban).	Lala Rameshwar Prasad Bagla.
Meerut Division (Non-Muhammadan Rural) ..	Chaudhri Isra.
Agra Division (Non-Muhammadan Rural) ..	Kunwar Raghubir Singh.
Rohilkund and Kumaon Division (Non-Muhammadan Rural).	Mr. C. S. Ranga Iyer.
Allahabad and Jhansi Divisions (Non-Muhammadan Rural).	Mr. A. Hoon.
Benares and Gorakhpur Divisions (Non-Muhammadan Rural).	Mr. A. Das.
Lucknow Division (Non-Muhammadan Rural) ..	Mr. L. Brij Kishore.
Fyzabad Division (Non-Muhammadan Rural).	Sardar Nihal Singh.
Cities of the United Provinces (Muhammadan Urban).	Khan Bahadur Haji Wajihuddin.
Meerut Division (Muhamamdan Rural)	Kunwar Hajee Ismail Alikhan.
Agra Division (Muhammadan Rural)	Mr. Muhammad Yamin Khan.
Rohilkund and Kumaon Divisions (Muhammadan Rural).	Maulvi Sir Muhammad Yakub.
United Provinces Southern Division (Muhammadan Rural).	Dr. Zia-ud-Din Ahmed, C.I.E.
Lucknow and Fyzabad Divisions (Muhammadan Rural).	Mr. Mohamed Azhar Ali.
United Provinces (European)	Mr. J. R. Scott.
United Provinces Landholders	Lala Hari Raj Swarup.
Ambala Division (Non-Muhammadan)	Bhai Parma Nand.
Jullundur Division (Non-Muhammadan) ..	Mr. Jagnan Nath Agarwal.

** Entitled to representation in rotation.

Constituency.	Name.
West Punjab (Non-Muhammadan)	Mr. B. R. Puri.
East Punjab (Muhammadan)	Hony. Lt. Nawab Md. Ibrahim Ali Khan.
East Central Punjab (Muhammadan)	Shaik Sadiq Hasan.
West Central Punjab (Muhammadan)	Mian Muhammad Shah Nawaz, C.I.E.
North Punjab (Muhammadan)	Major Nawab Malik Talib Mehdi Khan, O.B.E.
North-West Punjab (Muhammadan)	Shaik Fazal Haq Piracha.
South-West Punjab (Muhammadan)	Khan Bahadur Makhdum Sayad Rajan Bakhsh Shah.
East Punjab (Sikh)	Sirdar Harbans Singh Brar.
West Punjab (Sikh)	Sardar Sant Singh.
Punjab Landholders	Sirdar Sohan Singh.
Darbhanga *cum* Saran (Non-Muhammadan) ..	Pundit Ram Krishna Jha.
Muzaffarpur *cum* Champaran (Non-Muhammadan)	Babu Gaya Prasad Singh.
Orissa Division (Non-Muhammadan)	Babu Sitakanta Mahapatra.
Do. do.	Mr. Bhubananda Das.
Patna *cum* Shahabad (Non-Muhammadan) ..	Badri Lal Rustogi.
Gaya *cum* Monghyr (Non-Muhammadan) ..	Kumar Gupteshwar Prasad Singh.
Bhagalpur, Purnea and the Santhal Parganas (Non-Muhammadan).	Rai Bahadur Sukhraj Roy.
Chota Nagpur Division (Non-Muhammadan) ..	Thakur Mohendra Nath Shah Deo.
Patna and Chota Nagpur *cum* Orissa (Muhammadan).	Mr. M. Maswood Ahmad.
Bhagalpur Division (Muhammadan)	Moulvi Badi-uz-Zaman.
Tirhut Division (Muhammadan)	Moulvi Muhammad Shafee Daoodi.
Bihar and Orissa Landholders	Mr. Bhuput Sing.
Nagpur Division (Non-Muhammadan)	Rao Bahadur S. R. Pundit.
Central Provinces Hindi Divisions (Non-Muhammadan).	Sir Hari Singh Gour, Kt.
Do. do.	Seth Liladhar Chaudhry.
Central Provinces (Muhammadan)	Khan Bahadur H. M. Wilayatullah, I.S.O.
Central Provinces Lanholders	Goswami M. P. Puri.
Assam Valley (Non-Muhammadan)	Mr. T. R. Phookun.
Surma Valley *cum* Shillong (Non-Muhammadan)	Mr. Gopika Romon Roy.
Assam (Muhammadan)	Mr. Abdul Matin Chaudhury.*
Assam (European)	Mr. F. W. Hockerhull.
Burma (Non-European)	Mr. Jehangir K. Munshi.
Do.	U. Tun Myint.
Do.	U. Ba Maung.
Burma (European)	Mr. E. S. Millar.
Delhi (General)	Bhagat Chandi Mal Gola.
Ajmer-Merwara (General)	Rai Sahib Har Bilas Sarda.

* Elected Deputy President.

Province or body represented.	Name.
NOMINATED MEMBERS—EXCLUDING THE PRESIDENT (41)	
(*a*) OFFICIAL MEMBERS (26)	
Government of India	The Hon. Sir James Grigg, K.C.B.
Do.	The Hon. Sir Nripendra Nath Sircar, Kt.
Do.	The Hon. Sir Joseph Bhore, K.C.S.I., K.C.I.E., C.B.E.
Do.	The Hon. Sir Harry Haig, K.C.S.I., C.I.E.
Do.	The Hon. Sir Frank Noyce, Kt., C.S.I., C.I.E.
Do.	Mr. P. R. Rau.
Do.	Sir Lancelot Graham, K.C.I.E.
Do.	Mr. G. S. Bajpai, C.I.E., C.B.E.
Do.	Mr. G. R. F. Tottenham, C.I.E.
Do.	Mr. H. A. F. Metcalfe, C.S.I., C.I.E., M.V.O.
Do.	Mr. S. P. Varma.
Do.	Mr. K. Sanjiva Row.
Do.	Mr. T. Sloan, C.I.E.
Do.	Mr. G. S. Hardy, C.I.E.
Do.	Mr. A. R. Cox.
Madras	Mr. V. Ramkrishna.
Bengal	Mr. W. Dillon.
Do.	Mr. A. M. Macmillan.
The Punjab	Mr. J. M. Chatterjee.
The Central Provinces	Mr. D. N. Mukerjee.
Assam	Mr. J. H. Darwin, C.I.E.
Sind	Khan Bahadur Mian Abdul Aziz, C.B.E
Eastern Bengal	Mr. P. P. Sinha.
United Provinces	Mr. C. J. Irwin, C.S.I., C.I.E.
Bihar	Mr. James Hezlett, C.I.E.
	Mr. S. G. Grantham.
(*b*) Berar representative (1)	Mr. S. G. Jog.
(*c*) NON-OFFICIAL MEMBERS (14).	
United Provinces	Khan Bahadur Maulvi Rafiuddin Ahmed.
Bombay	Dr. R. D. Dalal.
Delhi	
Bengal	Rai Bahadur Satya Charan Mukherjee.
The Punjab	Sardar Bahadur Sardar Sir Jawahar Singh, Kt., C.I.E.
Do.	Capt. Sher Muhammad Khan, Gakhar.
Do.	Hony. Capt. Rao Bahadur Ch. Lal Chand, O.B.E.
Do.	Khan Bahadur Malik Allah Baksh Khan Tiwana.
Bihar and Orissa	Mr. Ramaswami Srinivasa Sarma, C.I.E.
North West Frontier Province	Major Nawab Ahmad Nawaz Khan, O.B.E.
Associated Chambers of Commerce	Mr. R. T. H. Mackenzie.*
Indian Christian	Dr. F. X. deSouza.
The Depressed Classes	Rao Bahadur Mylai Chinnathambi Rajah.
Anglo-Indian Community	Lt.-Col. Sir H. A. J. Gidney, Kt.
Labour Interests	Mr. N. M. Joshi.

* Died in March 1934.

THE COUNCIL OF STATE.

President—The Hon'ble Sir Maneckji Byramji Dadabhoy, K.C.I.E., Kt., Bar-at-Law.

A.—ELECTED MEMBERS (33).

Constituency.	Name.
Madras (Non-Muhammadan)	Diwan Bahadur Sir S. M. Annamalai Chettiyar, Kt.
Do.	Mr. Yarlagadda Ranganayakalu Naidu.
Do.	Mr. V. C. Vellingiri Gounder.
Do.	Diwan Bahadur G. Narayanaswami Chetti, C.I.E.
Madras (Muhammadan)	Syed Muhammad Padshah Saheb Bahadur.
Bombay (Non-Muhammadan)	Sardar Shri Jagannath Maharaj Pandit.
Do.	Sir Homi Metha, Kt.
Do.	Sir Phiroze C. Sethna, Kt., O.B.E.
Bombay Presidency (Muhammadan)	Sirdar Saheb Sir Suleman Cassum Haji Mitha, Kt., C.I.E.
Sind (Muhammadan)	Mr. Ali Baksh Muhammad Hussain.
Bombay Chamber of Commerce	Mr. E. Miller.
East Bengal (Non-Muhammadan)	Babu Jagadish Chandra Banerjee.
West do. do.	Kumar Nripandra Narayan Sinha.
West do. do.	Mr. Satyandra Chandra Ghose Maulik.
West Bengal (Muhammadan)	Mr. Mahmood Suhrawardy.
East do. do.	Khan Bhadur Syed Abdul Hafeez.
Bengal Chamber of Commerce	Mr. J. S. Henderson.
United Provinces Central (Non-Muhammadan).	Rai Bahadur Lala Mathura Prasad Mehrotra.
United Provinces Northern (Non-Muhammadan)	Rai Bahadur Lala Jagdish Prasad.
United Provinces Southern (Non-Muhammadan)	
United Provinces West (Muhammadan) ..	Khan Bahadur Hafiz Muhammad Halim.
United Provinces East (Muhammadan) ..	Shaikh Mushir Hosain Kidwai.
Punjab (Non-Muhammadan)	Rai Bahadur Lala Ram Saran Das, C.I.E.
Punjab (Sikh)	Sardar Buta Singh.
East Punjab (Muhammadan)	Khan Bahadur Chandri Muhammad Din.
West Punjab (Muhammadan)	Sayad Sir Mohammad Mehr Shah, Kt.
Bihar and Orissa (Non-Muhammadan)	Rai Bahadur Radha Krishna Jalan.
Do.	Raja Raghunandan Prasad Singh.
Bihar and Orissa (Muhammadan)	Mr. Abu Abdullah Syed Hussain Imam.
Central Provinces (General)	Mr. V. V. Kalikar.
Assam (Non-Muhammadan)	
Burma (General)	
Burma Chamber of Commerce	Mr. J. B. Glass.

Constituency.	Name.

B.—NOMINATED MEMBERS—*excluding the President.*

(*a*) *Official Members* (13 *excluding President.*)

Government of India	His Excellency General Sir Philip Walhouse Chetwode, Bt., G.C.B., K.C.M.G., D.S.O.
Do.	Khan Bahadur Mian Sir Fazl-i-Husain, K.C.S.I., K.C.I.E.
Do.	Mr. M. G. Hallett, C.I.E.
Do.	Mr. D. G. Mitchell, C.S.I., C.I.E.
Do.	Mr. J. Bartley.
Do.	Mr. B. J. Glancy, C.S.I., C.I.E.
Do.	Mr. J. B. Taylor, C.I.E.
Do.	Mr. T. A. Stewart.
Do.	Sir Guthrie Russell, Kt.
Madras	Mr. G. H. Spence, C.I.E.
Bihar and Orissa	Mr. A. G. Clow, C.I.E.
	Mr. H. S. Crosthwaite, C.I.E.

(*b*) *Berar Representative.*

Berar Representative	Mr. Ganesh Srikrishna Khaparde.

(*c*) *Non-Official Members.*

Madras	Sir David Devadoss, Kt.
Do.	Sir Kurma V. Reddi, Kt.
Bombay	Khan Bahadur Dr. Sir N. Choksy, Kt., C.I.E.
Bengal	Mr. Jyotsnanath Ghosal, C.S.I., C.I.E.
Do.	Mr. Bijay Kumar Basu.
Do.	Nawab Khwaja Habibullah.
Central Provinces	Sir Maneckji Byramji Dadabhoy, K.C.I.E., Kt.
The United Provinces	Saiyid Raza Ali, C.B.E.
Do.	Pundit Gokaran Nath Ugra.
The Punjab	Raja Charanjit Singh.
Do.	Nawab Malik M'd Hayat Khan Noon, C.S.I.
North-West Frontier Provinces	Major Nawab Sir Mahomed Akbar Khan, K.B.E., C.I.E., Khan of Hoti.
Bihar	Maharajadhiraj Sir Kameshwar Singh, K.C.I.E., of Darbhanga.

The Bombay Presidency.

The Bombay Presidency stretches along the west coast of India, from Sind in the North to Kanara in the South. It has an area of 123,623 square miles and a population of 23,040,506. Geographically included in the Presidency but under the Government of India is the first class Native State of Baroda, with an area of 8,164 square miles and a population of 2,443,007.

Baroda Population.

There are no States in political relations with the Government of Bombay, as they are all now under the Government of India.

The Presidency embraces a wide diversity of soil, climate and people. In the Presidency Proper are the rich plains of Gujarat, watered by the Nerbudda and the Tapti, whose fertility is so marked that it has long been known as the Garden of India. South of Bombay City the province is divided into two sections by the Western Ghats, a range of hills running parallel to the coast. Above Ghats are the Deccan Districts, south of these come the Karnatic districts. On the sea side of the Ghats is the Konkan, a rice-growing tract, intercepted by creeks which make communication difficult. Then in the far north is Sind, totally different from the Presidency Proper, a land of wide and monotonous desert except where irrigation from the Indus has brought abounding fertility.

The People.

The population varies as markedly as soil and climate. In Sind Mahomedans predominate. Gujarat has remained true to Hinduism although long under the dominion of powerful Mahomedan kings. Here there is an amplitude of caste divisions, and a people, who although softened by prosperity, are amongst the keenest trading races in the world. The Deccan peasant has been seasoned by adversity; the saying goes that the Deccan expects a famine one year in every three, and gets it; the population is much more homogeneous than in Gujarat, and thirty per cent. are Mahrattas. The Karnatic is the land of the Lingayets, a Hindu reforming sect of the twelfth century, and in the Konkan there is a large proportion of Christians. Four main languages are spoken, Sindi, Gujarati, Marathi and Kanarese, with Urdu a rough *lingua franca* where English has not penetrated. The main castes and tribes number five hundred.

Industries.

The principal industry is agriculture, which supports sixty-four per cent. of the population. In Sind the soils are wholly alluvial, and under the influence of irrigation produce yearly increasing crops of wheat and cotton. In Gujarat they are of two classes, the black cotton soil, which yields the famous Broach cottons, the finest in India, and alluvial, which under careful cultivation in Ahmedabad and Kaira makes splendid garden land. The dominant soil characteristic of the Deccan is black soil, which produces cotton, wheat, gram and millet; and in certain tracts rich crops of sugarcane. The Konkan is a rice land, grown under the abundant rains of the submontane regions, and in the south the Dharwar cotton vies with Broach as the best in India. There are no great perennial rivers suitable for irrigation, and the harvest is largely dependent upon the seasonal rainfall, supplemented by well irrigation. A chain of irrigation works, consisting of canals fed from great reservoirs in the region of unfailing rainfall in the Ghats, is gradually being completed, and this will ultimately make the Deccan immune to serious drought. More than any other part of India the Presidency has been scourged by famine and plague. The evils have not been unmixed, for tribulation has made the people more self-reliant, and the rise in the values of all produce, synchronising with a certain development of industry, has induced a considerable rise in the standard of living. The land is held on what is known as the ryotwari tenure, that is to say, each cultivator holds his land direct from Government under a moderate assessment, and as long as he pays this assessment he cannot be dispossessed.

Manufactures.

Whilst agriculture is the principal industry, others have no inconsiderable place. The mineral wealth of the Presidency is small and is confined to building stone, salt extracted from the sea, and a little manganese. But the handicrafts are widely distributed. The handloom weavers produce bright-coloured saris, and to a diminishing extent the exquisite kincobs of Ahmedabad and Surat. Bombay silverware has a place of its own, as well as the brass work of Poona and Nasik. But the tendency is to submerge the indigenous handicrafts beneath industry organised on modern lines. Bombay is the great centre in India of the textile trade. This is chiefly found in the headquarter city, Bombay.

Number of Looms in Bombay Island.	76,950
Number of Spindles in Bombay Island.	34,41,856
Number of hands employed in the Textile Industry in Bombay Island. (daily average.)	1,29,534
Consumption of Cotton by the Mills in Bombay Island .. .. (in candies of 784 lbs.)	4,60,365
Number of Spindles in Ahmedabad.	18,32,683
Number of Looms in Ahmedabad ..	42,503
Number of Spindles in Sholapore ..	3,19,304
Number of Looms in Sholapore ..	6,026
Number of Spindles in the Bombay Presidency (excluding Bombay Island)	30,01,633
Number of Looms in the Bombay Presidency (excluding Bombay Island)..	64,292

Great impetus has been given to Bombay industries by the provision of electric power generated fifty miles away on the Ghats, and the year 1919 witnessed a phenomenal flotation of new industrial companies of almost every description.

The recent political movement has given considerable impetus to indigenous industry particularly to the textile trade which has shown much expansion. About four mills are in the course of construction in Ahmedabad..

The situation of Bombay on the western sea-board in touch at once with the principal markets of India and the markets of the West has given Bombay an immense sea-borne trade. The older ports, Surat, Broach, Cambay and Mandvie, were famous in the ancient days, and their bold and hardy mariners carried Indian commerce to the Persian Gulf and the coasts of Africa. But the opening of the Suez Canal and the increasing size of ocean steamers have tended to concentrate it in modern ports with deep water anchorages, and the sea-borne trade of the Presidency is now concentrated at Bombay and Karachi, although attempts are being made to develop Mormugao in Portuguese territory into an outlet for the trade of the Southern Mahratta Country, and Port Okha as a port of considerable importance for Kathiawar and Gujarat.

Administration.

The Presidency is administered by a Governor and an Executive Council of two members, with the assistance of two Ministers. The exact change made in the functions of the Provincial Governments is indicated in the section on the Provincial Governments (*q. v.*) where a description is given of the division of the administration into two branches, the Reserved Subjects, administered by the Governor and his Council and the Transferred Subjects, administered by the Governor and his Ministers, the whole Government commonly meeting and acting as one. In another part of that section the division between Reserved and Transferred subjects is shown. This new form of administration under the Reform Act of 1919 came into operation in January 1921. All papers relating to public service business reach Government through the Secretariat, divided into seven main departments, each under a Secretary (*a*) Finance; (*b*) Revenue; (*c*) Home and Ecclesiastical (*d*) Political and reforms; (*e*) General and Educational; (*f*) Legal; (*g*) Public Works. The senior of the Civilian Secretaries is entitled the Chief Secretary. The Government is in Bombay from November to the end of May; and in Poona from June to November; but the Secretariat is always in Bombay. Under the Governor-in-Council the Presidency is administered by four Commissioners. The Commissioner in Sind has considerable independent powers. In the Presidency Proper there are Commissioners for the Northern Division, with headquarters at Ahmedabad; the Central Division at Poona; and the Southern Division at Belgaum. Each district is under a Collector, usually a Covenanted Civilian, who has under him one or more Civilians as Assistant Collectors, and one or more Deputy Collectors. A collectorate contains on an average from eight to ten talukas, each consisting of from one to two hundred villages, whose whole revenues belong to the State. The village officers are the patel, who is the head of the village both for revenue and police purpose; the talati or kulkarni, clerk and accountant; the messenger and the watchman. Over each Taluka or group of villages is the mamlatdar, who is also a subordinate magistrate. The charge of the Assistant or Deputy Collector contains three or four talukas. The Collector and Magistrate is over the whole District. The Commissioners exercise general control over the Districts in their Divisions.

Justice.

The administration of justice is entrusted to the High Court sitting in Bombay, and comprising a Chief Justice, who is a barrister, and nine puisne judges, either Civilians, Barristers, or Indian lawyers. In Sind the Court of the Judicial Commissioner (The Judicial Commissioner and three Additional Judicial Commissioners) is the highest court of civil and criminal appeal. The growing importance of Karachi and Sind has, however, necessitated the raising of the status of the Judicial Commissioner's Court and the passing of the Sind Courts Act in August 1926, which contemplates the creation of a Chief Court for Sind with a Chief Judge and three or more Puisne Judges. The Act, however, has not yet been put into effect owing to financial difficulties. Of the lower civil courts the court of the first instance is that of the Subordinate Judge recruited from the ranks of the local lawyers. The Court of first appeal is that of the District or Assistant Judge, or of a first class subordinate judge with special powers. District and Assistant Judges are Indian Civilians, or members of the Provincial Service or the Bar. In cases exceeding Rs. 5,000 in value an appeal from the decision of the Subordinate or Assistant Judge and from the decision of the District Judge in all original suits lies to the High Court. District and Assistant Judges exercise criminal jurisdiction throughout the Presidency but original criminal work is chiefly disposed of by the Executive District Officers and Resident and City Magistrates. Capital sentences are subject to confirmation by the High Court. In some of the principal cities Special Magistrates exercise summary jurisdiction (Bombay has six Presidency Magistrates, as well as Honorary Magistrates exercising the functions of English Justices of the Peace) and a Court of Small Causes, corresponding to the English County Courts.

Local Government.

Local control over certain branches of the administration is secured by the constitution of local boards and municipalities, the former exercising authority over a District or a Taluka, and the latter over a city or town. These bodies are composed of members either nominated by Government or elected by the people, who are empowered to expend the funds at their disposal on education, sanitation, the construction of roads and tanks, and general improvements. Their funds are derived from cesses on the land revenue, the toll, ferry funds and local taxes. The tendency of recent years has

been to increase the elective and reduce the nominated element, to allow these bodies to elect their own chairmen, whilst larger grants have been made from the general revenues for water supply and drainage.

The Bombay Municipal Boroughs Act of 1925 works further advance in the matter of local Self-Government in the Presidency. The Act provides more adequate basis for Municipal Administration in the larger cities of the Bombay Presidency. The larger municipalities are now styled as Municipal Boroughs which are now 29 in number. The executives of these Borough Municipalities are invested with larger powers than hitherto exercised. Another important change introduced by the Act was the extension of municipal franchise to occupiers of dwellings or buildings with annual rental values of Rs. 12 or with capital value of not less than Rs. 200.

Public Works.

The Public Works Department is under the control of two Chief Engineers who act as Secretaries to the Government; one for Roads, Buildings, Railways, etc., and the other for Irrigation. Under them are Superintending Engineers in charge of Circles and Executive Engineers in charge of divisions, the Consulting Architect and the Electrical Engineer. The chief irrigation works are in Sind and consist of a chain of canals fed by the annual inundations from the Indus. The Lloyds Barrage and canals project which was inaugurated in 1923 is the greatest Irrigation Scheme in the world and is designed to ensure the vast areas of fertile land in Sind a regular and constant supply of water. It will enable about 6 million acres of crops to be irrigated annually, *i.e.*, about as much area irrigated in Egypt. The scheme is not only vital to the future of Sind but of indirect benefit to the whole of India. The whole scheme is estimated to cost over 15 million sterling or 20 crores of rupees. The Barrage was formally opened by the Viceroy and Governor General of India on 13th January 1932. In the Presidency proper there is a chain of protective irrigation works, originating in reservoirs in the Ghat regions. The principal works are the Nira Canals fed by Lake Whiting impounded by the Lloyd Dam at Bhatgar, the Pravara Canals fed by Lake Arthur Hill, impounded by Wilson Dam at Bhandardara, the Mutha Canals fed by Lake Fife at Khadakvasla, the Godavari Canals fed by Lake Beale at Nandur Madhmeshwar and the Gokak Canal. The Mutha Canals and the Gokak Canal were completed in 1896-97, the Nira Left Bank Canal in 1905-06, the Godavari Canals in 1915-16 and the Pravara Canals in 1926-27. The Nira Right Bank Canal which has been under construction since 1912 is nearing completion. The Wilson Dam at Bhandardara the second highest yet constructed by Engineers the world over was opened by His Excellency the Governor on 10th December 1926. The Lloyd Dam at Bhatgar which is 5,333 feet in length, 190 feet in height and 124 feet in width was opened by H. E. Sir Leslie Wilson on 27th October 1928. It cost Rs. 172 lakhs. It is remarkable as being the largest Dam in volume hitherto constructed and contains 21½ million cubic feet of masonry. The Assuan Dam in Egypt is popularly supposed to be the largest Dam in existence but that contains 19 million cubic feet. It cost also nearly 50 per cent. more than the Lloyd Dam. An idea of the magnitute of the Lloyd Dam can be gathered from the fact that if a wall 6 feet high and 15 inches thick were constructed from the masonry in the Dam it would stretch a distance of 520 miles, say from Bombay to Nagpur. These projects will irrigate certain tracts most liable to famine.

Police.

The Police Force is divided into 3 categories, *viz.*, District Police, Railway Police and the Bombay City Police. The District and Railway Police in the Presidency proper are for the purpose of control under the Inspector-General of Police who is assisted by three Deputy Inspectors-General, of whom two are in charge of Ranges and the third is in charge of the Criminal Investigation Department and the Finger Print Bureau. District and Railway Police in Sind are under the Deputy Inspector-General of Police for Sind, subject to the control of the Commissioner-in-Sind. The executive management of the Police in each district and on Railways in the Presidency proper as well as in Sind is vested in a Superintendent of Police under the general direction of the Magistrate of the District concerned except in the case of the Railway Police. For the purposes of effective supervision over the investigation and prevention of crime, some of the larger districts are divided into one or more sub-divisions each under a Sub-Divisional Officer who is either an Assistant Superintendent of Police, or an Inspector of Police, a Deputy Superintendent of Police. Sub-Inspectors are the officers in charge of Police Stations and are primarily responsible under the law, for the investigation of offences reported at their Police Stations. Officers appointed directly to the posts of Assistant Superintendents of Police, Deputy Superintendents of Police, Inspectors and Sub-Inspectors undergo a course of training at the Central Police Training School at Nasik before being posted to Districts for executive duty. The Bombay City Police is a separate force under the Commissioner of Police who is directly responsible to Government.

Education.

Education is imparted partly through direct Government agency, and partly through the medium of grants-in-aid. Government maintain Arts Colleges at Bombay, Andheri, Poona, Ahmedabad and Dharwar; the Grant Medical College, the Poona College of Engineering, the Agricultural College, Veterinary College, School of Art, Law College and a College of Commerce. Most of the secondary schools are in private hands. The primary schools are maintained by Local Authorities, with a grant-in-aid. The Bombay Municipality is responsible for primary education in Bombay City (*q. v.*, Education).

The Quinquennial Report on Public Instruction in the Bombay Presidency for the years 1927-1932 reveals much information regarding the progress of education in recent years. The passing in 1923, of the Primary Education Act was perhaps the most important event in the history of Primary Education in the Bombay Presidency during the last 30 or 40

years whereby the control of Primary Education was transferred from the Department to the Local Authorities. Most of the Boards have prepared schemes for the expansion of education, some of them on a compulsory basis, and many boards have levied additional taxation but the finances of Government have not permitted them to perform to the full the part contemplated by the Act. The fact, however, must not be lost sight of that during the quinquennium the assignments of Government to Primary Education fell from Rs. 1,21,59,848 to Rs. 1,18,17,308 the decrease was mainly due to retrenchment in Government grants during 1931-32.

"Reports on Public instruction in this presidency during the last five or six years however point to the fact that there has been considerable decline in the efficiency of Primary Education since the transfer of control" says the Director of Public Instruction. "It will be seen from these reports that the factor which has militated more than any other against efficiency has been communalism.** The composition of the various District Local Boards has had its effect on the working of the Primary Education Act. The majority of School Boards which came into existence developed communal tendencies and this attitude influenced the selection of the supervising and teaching staff and their tranfers and promotions."

The quinquennium has been noticeable for the greater recognition given to the Educational needs of the backward classes especially in Primary Education and a very liberal system for these classes has been introduced by Government since 1924.

Lack of funds has cramped the activities of Government in the field of Primary and Secondary Education. Economy has been the dominating note of the Educational policy throughout the quinquennium. In view of the present financial stringency which precludes Government from providing additional funds for Secondary Education there would appear to be some grounds for raising the fees in Government Schools; but Government have decided not to take any action in this direction at present. In the case of Primary Education Government were compelled to apply a cut of 5 per cent. to the grants payable to local authorities in 1931-32. Since then it has become necessary to increase the cut to 20 per cent. So far from it being possible to provide the funds required for the expansion of Secondary and Higher Education, it has been necessary to excreise retrenchment, and that too in directions in which it could not be applied without educational loss. As one instance only, the Director of Public Instruction mentions the discontinuation of the scheme of Medical Inspection after it had been in existence for a year. Among the chief purposes for which additional funds are required, perhaps the most important is that for additional provision for Technical and Industrial Education, including the expansion of the College of Engineering and the establishment of a Technological institution of an advanced nature. The total expenditure on Education increased from Rs. 3,81,49,449 in 1926-27 to Rs. 3,99,27,898 in 1931-32 or an increase of 4.7 per cent. against 29.6 per cent. during the last quinquennium.

The total number of institutions increased during the quinquennium from 16,211 to 17,159. Recognised institutions increased by 1,145 to 15,929 while unrecognised institutions decreased by 197 to 1,230. Of the recognised institutions, 16 are Arts and 11 Professional Colleges and 689 Secondary Schools, 14,827 Primary Schools and 386 Special Schools.

The total number of recognised and unrecognised educational institutions during the year 1931-32, was 17,159 and the number of pupils 1,332,693.

Out of a total of 26,813 towns and villages 10,831 possessed schools, the average area served by each town or village with a school being 11.4 square miles. The percentage of male scholars under instruction in all kinds of institutions to the total male population was 8.9 while that of female scholars under instruction to the female population was 2.8 in 1931-32.

Hindu pupils in recognised and unrecognised institutions numbered 964,123, Muhammadans 252,679, Indian Christians 36,902, Parsis 17,051, Europeans and Anglo-Indians 5,235. The rest comprised 24,953 Jains, 1,325 Sikhs, and 1,470 Jews and others.

The total expenditure on education in 1931-32 was Rs. 399 lakhs, of which 47.5 per cent. was met from Government funds, 19.5 per cent. from Board funds, 20.3 per cent. from fees, and 12.7 per cent. from other sources. Primary schools absorbed over Rs. 205 lakhs, exclusive of expenditure on inspection, construction, and repairs.

The Educational Department is administered by a Director, with an Inspector in each Division and a Deputy or Assistant Inspector in each district.

Higher education in the Presidency is controlled by the Bombay University which was established in 1857. The constitution of the University has recently undergone, however, considerable changes in virtue of a new enactment known as the Bombay University Act of 1928. This Act altered the whole constitution of the University so as to make it adequately representative with a view to bringing into closer association with the public the industrial commercial and civic life of the people of the Presidency to enable it to provide greater facilities for higher education in all branches of learning including Technology and to undertake on a larger scale than heretofore post-graduate teaching and research, while continuing to exercise due control over the teaching given by colleges affiliated to it from time to time. The new University Department of Chemical Technology was formally inaugurated by His Excellency the Governor of Bombay on 15th November 1933. The authorities of the University, as now constituted, are chiefly the Chancellor, Vice-Chancellor, the Syndicate, the Academic Council and the Senate. The Senate consisting of fellows is the supreme governing body of the University. The number of fellows is 144 of whom 40 are nominated by the Chancellor and 11 are ex-officio. The Academic Council consisting of educational experts deals with all purely academical questions. This body works in collaboration with the Syndicate which is the principal executive of the University.

The principal educational institutions are:—

Government Arts Colleges—

Elphinstone College. Bombay, Principal, Mr. H. Hamill, M.A.

Ismail College, Andheri (Bombay). Principal, Dr. M. B. Rehman, M.A. (Punjab), Ph. D. (Cambridge).

Deccan College, Poona, Principal, Mr. E. A. Wodehouse.

Gujarat College, Ahmedabad, Principal G. Findlay Shirras, M.A., F.S.S. (Offg.)

Karnatak College, Dharwar, Principal, Mr. A. C. Farren.

Royal Institute of Science, Bombay. Principal, Dr. Thomas S. Wheeler, F.I.C., Ph.D., F.R.C.S.I.

Private Arts Colleges—

St. Xavier's, Bombay (Society of Jesus). Principal, Rev. Father Duhr, S.J.

Wilson College, Bombay (Scottish Mission). Principal, Rev. J. Mackenzie, M.A.

Fergusson College, Poona (Deccan Educational Society). Principal, G. S. Mahajani, M.A., B.Sc.

Baroda College, Baroda (Baroda State). Principal, S. G. Burrow, B.Sc.

Samaldas College, Bhavnagar (Bhavnagar State). Principal, Mr. T. K. Shahani, M.A.

Bahauddinbhai College, Junagadh State, Principal, Mr. Charles Saldanha.

Sir Parashurambhau College, Principal, R. D. Karmarkar, Poona.

M. T. B. Arts College, Suart, Principal, N. M. Shah.

D. J. Sind College, Karachi, Principal, S. B. Butani.

Sind National College, Hyderabad, Principal, B. R. Kumar.

Gokhale Education Society's H.P.T., Arts College, Nasik, Principal, T. A. Kulkarni.

Willingdon College, Kupwad (Sangli), Principal, P. M. Limaye.

Special Colleges—

Grant Medical College, Bombay (Government), Dean, Major S. L. Bhatia, I.M.S.

College of Engineering, Poona (Government), Principal, Mr. C. Graham Smith, O.B.E.

Agricultural College, Poona (Government), Principal, Dr. William Burns.

Chiefs' College, Rajkot, Principal, Mr. A. C. Miller, O.B.E.

College of Science, Ahmedabad.

Law College, Bombay. Principal, Mr. A. A. A. Fyzee, M.A., (Cantab.), Bar-at-Law.

College of Commerce. Bombay, Principal, Mr. M. J. Antia. (*Offg*).

Veterinary College, Bombay, Principal, Mr. V. R. Phadke, G.B.V.C., J.P.

Haffkine Institute, Bombay, Director, Lt. Col. Sahib Singh Sokhey, I.M.S., (Offg.).

Sir J. J. School of Art, Bombay (Government), Director, Mr. W. E. G. Solomon.,

Victoria Technical Institute, Bombay, Principal, G. W. Burley, D.Sc.

Private Professional Colleges—

Seth G. S. Medical College, Bombay, Principal, Dr. V. R. Khanolkar.

N.E.D. Civil Engineering College, Karachi Principal, Mr. G. W. Gokhale.

Law College, Poona, Principal, Mr. J. R. Gharpure.

Sir Lallubhai Shah Law College, Ahmedabad, Principal, Mr. D. S. Setna.

Sind Collegiate Board's Law College, Karachi, Principal, Mr. C. Lobo.

Medical.

The Medical Department is in the charge of the Surgeon-General who is a member of the I. M. S., and Public Health in that of the Director of Public Health, who is usually a non I.M.S. Officer. Civil Surgeons stationed at each district headquarters are responsible for the medical work of the district: whilst sanitationis entrusted to one of the Assistant Directors of Public Health. Four large hospitals are maintained by the Government in Bombay, and the accommodation in them has been recently increased by 300 beds in one hospital and 180 beds in another hospital. A number of beds in the Bombay City had to be closed during 1931-32 owing to shortage of funds. Well-equipped hospitals exist in all important up-country stations. Over 3,814,816 persons including 112,564 in-patients are treated during the year 1930. The Presidency contains 6 Lunatic Asylums and 16 institutions for the treatment of Lepers. Vaccination is carried out by a staff under the direction of the Director of Public Health. Sanitary work has received an immense stimulus from the large grants made by the Government from time to time.

Finance.

Under the Reform Scheme of 1919 Provincial Finance entered on a new phase. Before the passing of this Act Provincial finance was incorporated in Imperial Finance. The Provinces had certain heads of revenue of their own and other heads which they divided with the Government of India. By the new constitution a comparatively clean cut was made between the finances of the Government of India and those of the Provinces. Such revenues as they enjoy the Provinces enjoy in full, and in return they make cash contributions to the Government of India, fixed for a term of years. The general principle underlying this settlement is that those contributions shall gradually disappear. These contributions have now been remitted.

The financial situation in the Presidency has been one of the greatest difficulty during the year 1932-33. There has been estimated deficit of 27 lakhs during 1933-34. The difficulties have partly arisen on account of world factors over which Government has no control, but the latter is endeavouring to meet the situation by drastic economies and retrenchment. Government have set themselves that task of reconstruction and re-organisation so as to secure the greatest efficiency with the least cost in every branch of Public administration of the Presidency. Government have already secured a very considerable achievement in realising 28 lakhs a year as a result of orders passed on the recommendations of the Re-organisation Committee. A proposal to raise extra taxation by imposition of a succession duty was rejected by the Legislative Council.

Estimated Revenue for 1933-34.

PRINCIPAL HEADS OF REVENUE.

		Rs.
V	Land Revenue	4,82,42,000
VI	Excise	3,49,46,000
VII	Stamps	1,54,00,000
VIII	Forests	58,00,000
IX	Registration	11,50,000
IXA	Scheduled Taxes .	23,32,000
	Total ..	10,78,70,000
	Irrigation, Navigation, Embankment, &c.	
XIII	Works for which Capital Accounts are kept ..	31,03,000
XIV	Work for which no Capital Accounts are kept	15,66,000
	Total ..	46,69,000
	Debt Service	
XVI	Interest	1,41,41,000
	Civil Administration.	
XVII	Administration of Justice	18,77,000
XVIII	Jails and Convict Settlements	3,49,000
XIX	Police	7,12,000
XXI	Education	14,71,000
XXII	Medical	15,22,000
XXIII	Public Health	18,09,000
XXIV	Agriculture	3,96,000
XXV	Industries	12,000
XXVI	Miscellaneous Departments	15,14,000
	Total ..	96,62,000

		Rs.
	Civil Works.	
XXX	Civil Works	40,13,000
XXXI	Bombay Development Scheme	23,65,000
	Total ..	63,78,000
	Miscellaneous.	
XXXII	Transfers from Famine Relief Fund	12,79,000
XXXIII	Receipts in aid of Superannuation ..	11,39,000
XXXIV	Stationery and Printing	2,78,000
XXXV	Miscellaneous	11,51,000
	Total ..	38,47,000
XL	Extraordinary Receipts	24,46,000
	Total Revenue ..	14,90,14,000
	Debt heads :—	
	Deposits and advances Loans and advances by provincial Government Advances from provincial Loans Fund etc. ..	3,08,58,000
	Add:—	
	Opening Balance	75,00,000
	Grand Total ..	18,73,72,000

Estimated Expenditure for 1933-34.

DIRECT DEMANDS ON THE REVENUE.

		Rs.
5.	Land Revenue	63,66,000
6.	Excise	49,36,000
7.	Stamps	2,49,000
8.	Forest	37,12,000
8A.	Forest Capital outlay	1,24,000
9.	Registration	6,48,000
9A.	Scheduled Taxes	28,000
	Total ..	1,60,63,000
	Irrigation, Embankment, &c., Revenue Account.	
14.	Interest on works for which Capital Accounts are kept..	86,17,000
15.	Other Revenue Expenditure financed from Ordinary Revenue	12,05,000
15.	(1) Other Revenue Expenditure financed from famine Relief fund	11,78,000
	Total ..	1,10,00,000

		Rs.
	Debt Service.	
19.	Interest on Ordinary Debt ..	2,17,98,000
20.	Interest on other obligations	2,58,000
21.	Reduction or avoidance of debt	4,65,000
	Total ..	2,25,21,000
	Civil Administration.	
22.	General Administration ..	2,08,76,000
24.	Administration of Justice ..	66,79,000
25.	Jails and Convict Settlements	22,04,000
26.	Police	1,79,01,000
27.	Ports and Pilotage	7,000
30.	Scientific Departments ..	91,000
31.	Education	1,80,74,000
32.	Medical	48,06,000
33.	Public Health	25,52,000
34.	Agriculture	25,84,000
35.	Industries	3,60,000
37.	Miscellaneous Departments..	4,98,000
	Total ..	7,66,37,000

Civil Works.

		Rs.
41.	Civil Works	99,17,000
42.	Bombay Development Scheme.	3,65,000
	Total ..	1,02,82,000

Miscellaneous.

45A.	Superannuation Allowances and Pensions	85,64,00
46.	Stationery and Printing ..	13,10,00
47.	Miscellaneous	11,41,000
	Total ..	1,10,15,000
52	Extraordinary Charges ..	2.50.000
	Expenditure in England ..	40,69,000
	Total Expenditure charged to revenue	15,18,37,000

Capital Account not charged to Revenue.

		Rs.
55.	Construction of Irrigation Works	1,89,94,000
56A.	Capital outlay on Public Health	82,000
60.	Capital outlay for Civil Works (P. W.)	1,37,000
60B.	Payments of commuted value of Pensions	9,29,000
	Debts, Deposits and Advances..	1,16,81,000
	Total Disbursement ..	18,33,75,000
	Closing balance..	39,97,000
	Grand Total ..	18,73,72,000

Governor and President-in-Council.

Capt. The Hon. Michael Herbert Knatchbull, M.C., 5th Baron Brabourne,

Personal Staff.

Private Secy.—H. R. Gould, C.I.E., I.C.S., J.P.

Mily. Secretary—Major H. C. Vaux, C.S.I. C.I.E., M.V.O., J.P.

Surgeon—Major P. A. Opie, M.B., R.A.M.C.

Aides-de-Camp.—J. G. Maxwell-Gumbleton, Esq. Indian Police; Lt. M. V. Milbank, the Coldstream Guards; Lieut. J. H. Alms, The Somerset Light Infantry; Lieut. I. D. Elliot, Royal Navy.

Hon. Aides-de-Camp.—Engineer Captain W. W. Collins, M.I.N.A., R.I.M; H. E. Butler, Esq., Dy. Comr. of Police, Bombay City; Meherban Shankarrao Parashramrao Ramchandra *alias* Appa Saheb Patwardhan, Chief of Jamkhandi; Honorary Captain Meherban Malojirao Mudhojirao *alias* Nana Saheb Naik Nimbalkar, Chief of Phaltan; Hony. Capt. Kumar Shri Naharsinghji of Baria; Sardar Ghulam Jilani Bijlikhan of Wai; Hony. Capt. Shaikh Yasin, Sardar Bahadur, I.D.S.M., late 110th Mahratta Light Infantry; Capt. F. W. Brett, Light Motor Petrol, Bombay Bn. A. F. I.

Commandant, H. E. the Governor's Bodyguard.—Captain T. C. Crichton, M.C., Hon. Lieut. 3rd Cavalry.

Indian Aide-de-Camp—Risaldar Hony. Lt. Natha Singh, I.D.S.M.

Members of Council and Ministers.

The Hon. Sir Gulam Husain Hidayatallah, K.C.S.I., B.A., LL.B., J.P., Finance and Revenue; The Hon'ble Mr. R. D. Bell, C.I.E., I.C.S., J.P., Home and General.

The Hon. Mr. D. B. Cooper, (Local Self-Govt.) and The Hon. Diwan Bahadur S. T. Kambli, B.A., LL.B., J.P., (Education).

The Local Self-Government portfolio includes, among other subjects, Medical Administration, Public Health, Sanitation, Forests, and Public Works (transferred). The Minister of (Education) also deals with the Civil Veterinary Department, Excise, Co-operative Societies and Agriculture.

SECRETARIES TO GOVERNMENT.

Chief Secretary, Political and Reforms Department.—C. W. A. Turner, C.I.E., I.C.S.

Home and Ecclesiastical Department.—R. M. Maxwell, C.S.I., C.I. E., I.C.S., J.P.

Revenue Department.—S. H. Covernton, M.A., I.C.S. (Offg.)

General and Educational Departments—H. E. Knight, I.C.S.

Finance Department.—C. G. Freke, I.C.S., J.P.

Legal Department and Remembrancer of Legal Affairs.—G. Davis, Bar-at-Law, I.C.S.

Public Works Department.—C. M. Lane, I.S.E., J.P.

Public Works Department, Joint Secretary—P. L. Bowers, C.I.E., M.C.

MISCELLANEOUS APPOINTMENTS.

Commissioner of Income Tax.—Khan Bahadur J. B. Vachha, C.I.E.

Director of Veterinary Services.—E. S. Farbrother, M.R.V. C.V.S., I.V.S.

Advocate-General—Sir Jamshedji Behramji Kanga, Kt., M.A., LL.B.

Inspector-General of Police—H. E. Turner. (Offg.)

Director of Public Instruction—W. Grieve, M.A., B.Sc.

Surgeon-General—Major General H. R. Nutt, I.M.S.
Oriental Translator—Abdul Kadir M. Hussein, J.P.
Chief Conservator of Forests—P. E. Aitchison.
Talukdari Settlement Officer—J. B. Irwin, I.C.S.
Inspector-General of Registration—J. P. Brander, I.C.S.
Director of Agriculture—Dr. W. Burns, D.S.C.
Registrar of Co-operative Societies—K. L. Punjabi, I.C.S.
Municipal Commissioner, Bombay—H. K. Kirpalani, I.C.S.
Vice-Chancellor, Bombay University—V. N. Chandavarkar, Bar-at-Law.
Registrar, Bombay University—S. R. Dongerkery, B.A., LL.B.
Commissioner of Police, Bombay— W. R. G. Smith.
Director of Public Health—Major A. Y. Dabholkar, I.M.S., (*Officiating.*)
Accountant-General—N. B. Dean, O.B.E., J.P.
Inspector-General of Prisons—Lt.-Col. E. E. Doyle, D.S.O., I.M.S.
Postmaster-General—C. D. Rae.
Collector of Salt Revenue, and Collector of Customs—M. Slade, I.C.S.
Commissioner of Excise—J. P. Brander, M.A., I.C.S.
Consulting Surveyor to Government—T. H. G. Stamper, F. S. I.
Registrar of Companies—H. C. B. Mitchell.
Commissioner of Labour and Director of Information:—J. F. Gennings, C.B.E., Bar-at-Law.
Sheriff—The Honorable Sir Sirdar Haji Suleman Cassim Mitha, C.I.E., O.B.E.

Governors of Bombay.

Sir Abraham Shipman 1662
Died on the island of Anjediva in Oct. 1664
Humfrey Cooke 1665
Sir Gervase Lucas 1666
Died, 21st May 1667.
Captain Henry Garey (*Officiating*) .. 1667
Sir George Oxenden 1668
Died in Surat, 14th July 1669.
Gerald Aungier 1669
Died in Surat, 30th June 1677.
Thomas Rolt 1677
Sir John Child, Bart. 1681
Bartholomew Harris 1690
Died in Surat, 10th May 1694.
Daniel Annesley (*Officiating*) 1694
Sir John Gayer 1694
Sir Nicholas Waite 1704
William Aislabie 1708
Stephen Strutt (*Officiating*) 1715
Charles Boone 1715
William Phipps 1722
Robert Cowan 1729
Dismissed.
John Horne
Stephen Law 1734
John Geekie (*Officiating*) 1739
William Wake 1742
Richard Bourchier 1742
Charles Crommelin 1750
Thomas Hodges 1760
Died, 23rd February 1771 1767
William Hornby
Rawson Hart Boddam 1771
Rawson Hart Boddam 1784
Andrew Ramsay (*Officiating*) 1785
Major-General William Medows 1788
Major-General Sir Robert Abercromby, K.C.B. (*a*). 1788
George Dick (*Officiating*) 1790
John Griffith (*Officiating*) 1792
Jonathan Duncan 1795
Died, 11th August 1811.
George Brown (*Officiating*) 1795
Sir Evan Nepean, Bart. 1811
The Hon. Mountstuart Elphinstone .. 1812
Major-General Sir John Malcolm, G.C.B. .. 1819
Lieut.-General Sir Thomas Sidney Beckwith, K.C.B. .. 1827
Died, 15th January 1831. .. 1830
John Romer (*Officiating*) 1831
The Earl of Clare 1831
Sir Robert Grant, G.C.H. 1831
Died, 9th July 1838.
James Farish (*Officiating*) 1835
Sir J. Rivett-Carnac, Bart. 1838
Sir William Hay Macnaghten, Bart. (*b*) 1839
George William Anderson (*Officiating*) .. 1841
Sir George Arthur, Bart., K.C.H. 1841
Lestock Robert Reid (*Officiating*) .. 1842
George Russell Clerk 1846
Viscount Falkland 1847
Lord Elphinstone, G.C.H., P.C. 1848
Sir George Russell Clerk, K.C.B. (2nd time) 1853
Sir Henry Bartle Edward Frere, K.C.B. 1860
The Right Hon. William Robert Seymour Vesey FitzGerald. 1862
Sir Philip Edmond Wodehouse, K.C.B. .. 1867
Sir Richard Temple, Bart., K.C.S.I. .. 1872
Lionel Robert Ashburner, C.S.I. (*Acting*) .. 1877
The Right Hon. Sir James Fergusson, Bart., K.C.M.G. 1880
James Braithwaite Peile, C.S.I. (*Acting*) .. 1880
Baron Reay 1885
Baron Harris 1885
Herbert Mills Birdwood, C.S.I. (*Acting*) .. 1890
Baron Sandhurst 1895
Baron Northcote, C.B. 1895
Sir James Monteath, K.C.S.I. (*Acting*) .. 1900
Baron Lamington, G.C.M.G., G.C.I.E. .. 1903
J. W. P. Muir-Mackenzie, C.S.I. (*Acting*). 1903
Sir George Sydenham Clarke, G.C.M.G., G.C.I.E. (*c*). 1907
Baron Willingdon, G.C.I.E. 1913
Sir George Ambrose Lloyd, G.C.I.E., D.S.O. (*d*) 1918
Sir Leslie Orme Wilson, P.C., G.C.I.E., C.M.G., D.S.O. 1923
Sir Frederick Hugh Sykes, P.C., G.C.I.E., G.B.E., K.C.B., C.M.G. 1928
The Rt. Hon. Michael Herbert Rudolf Knatchbull, Lord Brabourne, G.C.I.E., M.C. 1933.
Sir Ernest Hotson, K.C.S.I., O.B.E., I.C.S. Acted for six months for Sir F. H. Sykes.

(*a*) Proceeded to Madras on duty in Aug. 1793 and then joined the Council of the Governor-General as Commander-in-Chief in India on the 28th Oct. 1793.
(*b*) Was appointed Governor of Bombay by the Honourable the Court of Directors on the 4th Aug. 1841, but, before he could take charge of his appointment, he was assassinated in Cabul on the 23rd Dec. 1841.
(*c*) Afterwards (by creation) Baron Sydenham.
(*d*) Afterwards (by creation) Baron Lloyd.

THE BOMBAY LEGISLATIVE COUNCIL.

The Hon. Sir Ali Mahomed Khan Dehlavi, Kt., *President.*
Mr. Namdeo Eknath Navle, *Deputy President.*

ELECTED MEMBERS.

Name and class of Constituency.	Name of Member.
Bombay City (North). (Non-Muhammadan) Urban.	Rao Bahadur R. S. Asavale.
	Mr. A. N. Surve.
Bombay City (South). (Non-Muhammadan) Urban.	Dr. M. D. D. Gilder.
	Dr. Joseph Alban D'Souza.
	Dr. J. A. Collaco.
Karachi City. (Non-Muhammadan) Urban.	Mr. B. P. Wadke.
Ahmedabad City. (Non-Muhammadan) Urban.	Mr. Gover Rora.
Surat City. (Non-Muhammadan) Urban.	Mr. Pestonshah N. Vakil.
Sholapur City. (Non-Muhammadan) Urban.	Sirdar Davar Temuras Kasji Modi.
Poona City. (Non-Muhammadan) Urban.	Mr. Vishnu Ganesh Vaishavampayan.
Ahmedabad District. (Non-Muhammadan) Rural.	Mr. Laxman Raghunath Gokhale.
	Mr. Sahebsinhji Juvansinhji.
Broach District. (Non-Muhammadan) Rural.	Mr. Madhavsang Jorbhai.
Kaira District. (Non-Muhammadan) Rural.	Rao Saheb Bhagwandas Girdhardas Desai.
	Mr. Chaturbhai Narshibhai Patel.
Panch Mahals District. (Non-Muhammadan) Rural.	Mr. Manilal Harilal Mehta.
	Dr. M. K. Dixit, L. M. & S.
Surat District. (Non-Muhammadan) Rural.	Mr. Shankarrao Jayramrao Zunzarrao.
Thana and Bombay Suburban Districts. (Non-Muhammadan) Rural.	Mr. Manchershaw Manekji Karbhari.
Ahmednagar District. (Non-Muhammadan) Rural.	Mr. Namdev Eknath Navle.
	Rao Bahadur Ganesh Krishna Chitale.
East Khandesh District. (Non-Muhammadan) Rural.	Diwan Bahadur Dongarsing Ramji Patil.
	Rao Saheb Vaman Sampat Patil.
	Mr. Vithal Nathu Patil.
Nasik District. (Non-Muhammadan) Rural	Rao Bahadur Gopalrao Vaman Pradhan.
	Rao Saheb Ramchandra Vithalrao Vandekar.
Poona District. (Non-Muhammadan) Rural.	Mr. Gangajirao Mukundrao Kalbhor.
	Rao Saheb Pandurang Dnyaneshwar Kulkarnie.
Satara District. (Non-Muhammadan Rural.	The Hon. Khan Bahadur Dhanjishah Bomanjee Cooper.
	Mr. Atmaram Bhimaji Achrekar.
Belgaum District. (Non-Muhammadan) Rural.	Mr. Ramchandrarao Bapurao Shinde.
	Rao Bahadur S. N. Angadi.
Bijapur District. (Non-Muhammadan) Rural.	Mr. P. R. Chikodi.
Dharwar District. (Non-Muhammadan) Rural.	Mr. Shankarappa Basalingappa Desai.
	Diwan Bahadur Siddappa Totappa Kambli.
Kanara District. (Non-Muhammadan) Rural.	Mr. Vishwanatharao Narayan Jog.
Ratnagiri District. (Non-Muhammadan) Rural	Mr. Ganpati Subrao Gangoli.
	Rao Bahadur Laxman Vishnu Parulekar.
Eastern Sind. (Non-Muhammadan) Rural.	Mr. Vyankat Anandrav Surve.
Western Sind. (Non-Muhammadan) Rural.	Mr. Dalumal Lilaram.
Kollapur District. (Non-Muhammadan) Rural.	Mr. Satramdas Sakhawatrai Tolani.
Shoaba District. (Non-Muhammadan) Rural.	Mr. Jayawant Ghanashyam More.
West Khandesh District. (Non-Muhammadan) Rural.	Mr. Narayan Nagoo Patil.
	Mr. Namdeorao Budhajirao.
Bombay City. (Muhammadan). Urban.	Mr. Husenali Mahomed Rahimtulla.
Karachi City (Muhammadan). Urban.	Mr. Gulamhussen Ibrahim Matcheswalla.
	Mir Muhammad Baloch.
Ahmedabad and Surat Cities. (Muhammadan) Urban.	Mr. Abdulrehman Khan Karim Khan Resaldar.
Poona and Sholapur Cities. (Muhammadan) Urban.	Khan Bahadur Abdul Latif Haji Hajrat Khan Pathan.

Name and class of Constituency.	Name of Member.
The Northern Division. (Muhammadan) Rural.	Mr. Alibhai Esabhai Patel.
The Central Division (Muhammadan) Rural.	Sir Ali Mahomed Khan Dehlavi. Khan Bahadur Wali Baksha Adambhai Patel.
The Southern Division (Muhammadan) Rural.	Moulvi Sir Rafiuddin Ahmed, Kt. Mr. Meherbaksh, Mr. Shaikh Abdul Aziz Abdul Latif. Mr. Abdul Kadir Jamaluddin Bangi. Mr. Haji Ibrahim Jitekar.
Hyderabad District (Muhammadan) Rural.	Mr. Mahaboobalikhan Mahamad Akbarkhan Biradar-Nawab.
Karachi District (Muhammadan) Rural.	Mr. Bandehali Khan Mir Muhammad Hassan Khan Talpur.
Larkana District (Muhammadan) Rural.	Sayed Miran Muhammad Shah Zanulabdin Shah. Mr. Shaikh Abdul Majid Lilaram. Mr. Ghulam Hyder Shah Sahibdino Shah.
Sukkur District (Muhammadan) Rural.	Sir Shah Nawaz Khan Ghulam Murtaza Khan Bhutto. Khan Bahadur Muhammad Ayub Shah Muhammad Khuhro.
Thar and Parkar (Muhammadan) Rural.	Wadero Wahidbaksh Illahibaksh Bhutto. Khan Bahadur Allahbaksh Khan Saheb Haji Mohomed Umar.
Nawabshah District (Muhammadan) Rural.	Khan Bahadur Jan Mahomed Khan, son of Khan Saheb Shah Passand Khan. Khan Bahadur Ghulam Nabishah Manjalishah.
Upper Sind Frontier District (Muhammadan) Rural.	Mr. Janmahomed Khan Walimahomed Khan. Bhurgri. Khan Bahadur Jam Jan Mahomed Walad Mahomed Sharif Junejo.
Bombay City (European).	Khan Bahadur Sher Muhammad Khan Karam Khan Bijarani.
Presidency (European).	Mr. T. S. Kennedy.
Deccan Sardars and Inamdars. (Landholders).	Mr. A. C. Owen.
Gujarat Sardars and Inamdars. (Landholders)	Mr. Hanmantrao Ramrao Desai.
Jagirdars and Zamindars (Sind). (Landholders.)	Sardar Bhasaheb alias Dulabava Raisingji, Thakor of Kerwada.
Bombay University. (University).	Mr. Sayed Muhammad Kamlshah Qabul Muhammad Shah.
Bombay Chamber of Commerce and Industry.	Rao Bahadur Ravaji Ramchandra Kale.
Bombay Chamber of Commerce, Commerce and Industry.	Mr. W. G. Lely.
Karachi Chamber of Commerce and Industry.	Mr. J. B. Greaves.
Bombay Trades' Association, Commerce and Industry.	Mr. John Hamphrey, O.B.E.
Bombay Millowners' Association, Commerce and Industry.	Mr. A. Greville Bullocke.
	Mr. Jehangir Bomanji Petit.

NOMINATED.

Non-Officials.

Mr. S. H. Prater.
The Rev. R. S. Modak.
Mr. Sitaram Keshav Bole.
,, Syed Munawar, B.A.
,, R. R. Bakhale.
Dr. B. R. Ambedkar, Bar-at-Law.
,, Purshottam Solanki, L. M. & S.
Major W. Ellis Jones.
Mr. B. S. Kamat.
Mr. Mohamed Suleman Cassam Mitha.
Nawab Shah Rookh Shah Yar Jung Bahadur.

Officials.

Mr. Saiyid Aminuddin, I.C.S.
,, N. B. Baxter.
,, P. L. Bowers, C.I.E.
,, J. P. Brander, I.C.S.
,, C. B. B. Clee, I.C.S.
,, H. J. M. Consens.
,, G. Davis, I.C.S.
,, J. R. Dhurandhar.
,, C. M. Lane.
,, R. M. Maxwell, C.S.I., C.I.E., I.C.S.
,, K. L. Panjabi, I.C.S.
,, W. W. Smart, I.C.S.
,, C. W. A. Turner, C.S.I. C.I.E., I.C.S.

The Madras Presidency.

The Madras Presidency occupies the whole southern portion of the Peninsula, and, excluding the Indian States, all of which have now come under the direct control of the Government of India, has an area of 142,260 square miles. It has on the east, on the Bay of Bengal, a coast line of about 1,250 miles; on the South on the Arabian Sea, a coast line of about 450 miles. In all this extent of coast, however, there is not a single natural harbour of any importance; the ports, with the exception of Madras, and perhaps of Cochin, are merely open roadsteads. A plateau, varying in height above sea-level from about 1,000 to about 3,000 feet and stretching northwards from the Nilgiri Hills, occupies the central area of the Presidency; on either side are the Eastern and the Western Ghats, which meet in the Nilgiris. The height of the western mountain-chain has an important effect on the rainfall. Where the chain is high, the intercepted rain-clouds give a heavy fall, which may amount to 150 inches on the seaward side, but comparatively little rain falls on the landward side of the range. Where the chain is low, rain-clouds are not checked in their westward course. In the central table land on the east coast the rainfall is small and the heat in summer excessive. The rivers, which flow from west to east, in their earlier course drain rather than irrigate the country; but the deltas of the Godavari, Kistna and Cauvery are productive of fair crops even in time of drought and are the only portions of the east coast where agriculture is not dependent on a rainfall rarely exceeding 40 inches and apt to be untimely.

Population.

The population of the Presidency was returned at the census of 1931 as 47,193,602, an increase of 10.4 per cent. over the figure of 1921. The increase was not uniform. The districts which had suffered most in 1921 tended to show large increases in 1931—Bellary and Agencies were marked illustrations. As a natural corollary to an increase in population the Presidency density has risen. Hindus account for 88 per cent. of the Madras population, Muhammadans 7 per cent. and Christians 3.8 per cent. The actual number in other communities is inconsiderable. The vast majority of the population is of the Dravidian race and the principal Dravidian languages, Tamil and Telugu are spoken by 19 and 18 million persons respectively. 40 per cent. of the population talk Tamil, 37½ per cent. Telugu, 7·9 per cent. Malayalam, Oriya, Kanarese, Hindustani, Tulu follow in that order with percentages above 1.

Government.

The Madras Presidency is governed on the system generally similar to that obtaining in Bombay and Bengal. There are associated with the Governor four members of the Executive Council in charge of the Reserved Subjects and three Ministers in charge of the Transferred Subjects. Madras administration differs, however, in some important respects from that of other major provinces. There is no intermediate local authority between the Collector of the District and the authorities at headquarters, Commissioners of Divisions being unknown in Madras. Another feature peculiar to the Southern Presidency is the manner of choice of the ministers. Following the practice of the Mother of Parliaments, Madras Governors have, ever since the inception of the Reforms, called upon the leader of the dominant party to form a ministry, giving him freedom to select his colleagues on the ministry. Consequently he enjoys the status of Chief Minister—unknown in other provinces in India.

Agriculture and Industries.

The principal occupation of the province is agriculture engaging about 68 per cent. of the population. The principal food crops are rice, cholam, ragi and kambu. The Industrial crops are cotton, sugarcane and groundnuts. The agricultural education is rapidly progressing in the Presidency. The activities of the Agricultural Department in matters educational consist in the running of a college at Coimbatore affiliated to the University of Madras, three farm labourers' schools numerous demonstrations farms. As it was found that the present course of middle school education does not satisfy the needs of the ryots, the only school maintained by the department at Taliperemba was closed with effect from 1st April 1932. The institution of short practical courses in farm management and allied subjects in the Agricultural College at Coimbatore have been sanctioned. While paddy which is the staple food of the population, occupies the largest cultivable area, cotton and sugarcane are by no means inconsiderable crops of the province and are receiving close attention at the hands of the local agricultural authorities. The area under cotton irrigated and unirrigated is estimated at 1,949,664 acres and, as in the case of paddy, efforts are being made to produce better strains of cotton suited to different localities by means of both selection and hybridization. Side by side with an increase in the area under cotton, from existing good staple areas, improved varieties have been systematically introduced. A special feature of the agricultural activities in the Presidency is the large industry which the planting community have built up, contributing substantially to the economic development of the province. They have organised themselves as a registered body under the title of "The United Planters' Association of South India," on which are represented coffee, tea, rubber and a few other minor planting products. The aggregate value of seaborne trade of the Presidency which was Rs. 878,306,466 in 1930-31 has declined to Rs. 714,496,917 in 1931-32. As in other provinces, the forest resources are exploited by Government. There are close upon 19,000 square miles of reserved forests.

Twenty seven spinning and weaving mills were at work during the year and they employed 38,918 operatives. The number of jute mills at work was three. At the close of the year 1932 the number of the other factories in the Presidency was 1,006. These consisted of oil mills, rope works, tile works, etc. Tanning is one of the principal industries of the Presidency, and there is considerable export trade in skins and hides although hide tanners have not been doing well of late and suffered from the present commercial depression. The manufacturing activities which are at present under the direction of the Department of Industries are mainly confined to the production of soap. The match making industry is just raising its head in Madras. There are a number of indigenous match factories run on cottage lines. In 1927, the Council complied with a demand made by the Minister in charge of Industries for funds for appointing a special officer to conduct an exhaustive survey of the existing and potential cottage industries in the Presidency. The Special Officer has concluded his survey. His reports have been published. The report of the Cottage Industries Committee appointed at the instance of the Legislative Council, to examine the Special Officer's report and to submit proposals to Government for an effective organisation of such of the industries as deserve encouragement has also been published for general information. The recommendations of the Committee were carefully considered by Government but owing to financial stringency they decided that such of the recommendations as involved additional expenditure should be postponed for the present. They have however passed orders on those recommendations which are merely administrative in character and do not involve additional expenditure.

Education.

The Presidency's record in the sphere of education has been one of continuous progress. There are at present about 51,000 public Institutions, ranging from village primary schools to arts and professional colleges, their total strength being about 2,865,000. Special efforts are being made to provide education for boys belonging to the Depressed Classes. The Council passed a resolution in the year 1927 at the instance of a nominated member that poor girls reading in any educational institution in the province—Government, local fund, Municipal or aided—should be exempted from School fees in any Standard up to III Form. The total expenditure of the province on Education is in the neighbourhood of Rs. 531 lakhs. The principal educational institutions in the province are the Madras, Andhra and Annamalai Universities, the Presidency College, the Christian College, the Loyola College, the Pachaiyappa's College, the Law College, and the Queen Mary's College for Women, Madras; the St. Joseph's College, Trichinopoly; the American College, Madura; the Government College, Kumbakonam; the Government College, Rajahmundry; the Agricultural College, Coimbatore; the Medical Colleges at Madras and Vizagapatam and the Engineering College at Madras (Guindy).

Cochin Harbour Scheme.

The importance of this project lies in the fact that a good harbour at Cochin would lead to the development of a valuable hinterland and provide a ready outlet for agricultural and other produce from an area which is at present not adequately served by a convenient or well-equipped harbour. The scheme involves cutting a passage through the bar which hitherto blocked the entrance from the sea to an extensive backwater and by dredging and reclamation, forming a sheltered harbour accessible and giving full protection and facilities at all seasons of the year. An agreement has been reached between the Government of Madras and the Darbars of Travancore and Cochin States indicating how the work is to be carried out and outlining the financial arrangements necessary. A trial cut was made in 1923 and the effects of the monsoon thereon were observed. The results recorded were examined by a Committee of Harbour Engineers in England who reported favourably on the prospects of the scheme.

The first cut through the bar 400 feet wide by 32½ feet deep was completed on 30th March 1928. The channel through the outer bar is now 3 miles long by 450 feet wide and has an average depth of 35 feet at low water. The dredging of the mooring area has been completed. Since March 1930 the Harbour has been in constant and regular use by all ships. Details of the berthing accommodation inside the harbour at the end of 1931-32 were:—

	Draft ft.	Length ft.
Mooring Buoy No. 1 ..	30.6	500
,, ,, 2 ..	27.6	450
,, ,, 3 ..	27.0	250
,, ,, 4 ..	29.0	475
,, ,, 5 ..	28.3	475
,, ,, 6 ..	29.0	475
,, ,, 7 ..	30.6	475
,, ,, 8 ..	37.6	500
,, ,, 9 ..	37.0	500

Two fare and after moorings will shortly be laid down in the Mattancherry Chawl. Proposals have been formulated for the next stage of the works which include the construction of deep water jetties with railway connections, construction of godowns and transit sheds, the installation of rapid handling cranes and other transport facilities. These improvements are to be made on the new reclamation of which about 300 acres have been formed already by dredging from the harbour. It is intended to connect this to the mainland by a railway bridge across the backwater. Reclamation is still in progress and when completed it will provide sufficient space for about 20 or 30 large vessels to load or unload at the same time. The Shoranur-Ernakulam line is being converted from metre to broad-gauge, and is to be extended to the wharves at the reclamation. The possibility of providing further facilities by carrying the metre-gauge system through to the harbour is under investigation. These developments will enhance the utility of the port to the planting and agricultural areas in that part of the Presidency.

Vizagapatam Harbour Project.

Even more pregnant with future possibilities is the scheme for the development of the Vizagapatam Harbour. The Vizagapatam Harbour is constructed under the control of the Government of India. Proposals for the development of the port at this place have been under consideration since 1859; but the success of the project is bound up with the construction of direct railway communication between Vizagapatam and the Central Provinces; for the quantity of trade which could be obtained from the littoral itself is insufficient to justify the capital expenditure which would be required. In May 1925 the Government of India declared Vizagapatam a major port thereby enabling the development of the port under the directions of the Central Government. Preliminary operations commenced at the end of the year and were continued vigorously in 1926 with the aid of dredgers and rock-breakers. It is expected that the construction of the harbour will take four or five years. The surrounding hill-sides and adjacent areas will meanwhile be developed for industrial trading and residential purposes.

Local Self-Government.

Local bodies in the Madras Presidency are administered under the following Acts:—

The Madras City Municipal Act, 1919;

The Madras District Municipalities Act, 1920, as amended by Madras Act X of 1930; and

The Madras Local Boards Act, 1920, as amended by the Madras Act XI of 1930.

The amending Acts of 1930, which came into force on the 26th August 1930, provide, *inter alia*, for the abolition of the system of nominations to local bodies, for the inclusion of village panchayats within the scope of the Madras Local Boards Act with a view to making the village the unit of local self-government, for direct elections to district boards, for the creation of a municipal and local boards service for the Presidency of Madras, for the removal of the disqualification of women as such in respect of elections to municipal councils and for the cessation of office of the President or Chairman on a motion of non-confidence being passed against him by a prescribed majority. The Acts have undergone subsequent amendments. The question of abolition of Board is under the consideration of the Legislative Council.

Local bodies are now enabled under the Madras Local Authorities Entertainments Tax Act, 1926, to levy a tax on entertainments given within their jurisdiction.

Irrigation.

In March 1925, the Secretary of State sanctioned the Cauvery Reservoir Project, the estimated cost of which amounted to about £ 4½ millions. The project has been framed with two main objects in view. The first is to improve the existing fluctuating water supplies for the Cauvery Delta irrigation of over a million acres; the second is to extend irrigation to a new area of 301,000 acres, which will, it is estimated, add 150,000 tons of rice to the food supply of the country. The scheme which is expected to be completed in 1934 provides for a large dam at Metur on the Cauvery to store 93,500 million cubic feet of water and for a canal nearly 88 miles long with a connected distributary system. Owing to the necessity for providing adequate surplus arrangements to dispose of floods similar to the phenomenal floods of 1924 and to other causes the estimate had to be revised and the revised estimate stands at about £ 5½ millions. Another important project is the Periyar project which is intended not only for irrigation purposes but also for providing water power for generating electricity. Taking its rise in the Western Ghats, the river flows into the Arabian Sea through Travancore State territory. After prolonged negotiations, the Travancore Durbar consented to the water being caught and stored in the Travancore hills for being diverted towards the East. Some three thousand feet above sea-level a concrete and masonry dam has been constructed and nearly 50 feet below the crest-level of the dam a channel through the summit of the range carries the waters into the eastern water-shed where they are led into the river Vaigai. The total quantity of water impounded to crest level is 15,660 million cubic feet. By this work, a river ordained by Nature to flow into the Arabian Sea has been led across the Peninsula into the Bay of Bengal irrigating in its way well over 100,000 acres of land. The irrigable area commanded by the Periyar system is 143,000 acres, while the supply from the lake was sufficient only for 130,000 acres. To make up for this deficit, a scheme for increasing the effective capacity of the lake by lowering the water-shed cutting is in progress. The area already under irrigation in the Madras Presidency total about 7.5 million acres. Of this over 3 million acres are served by petty irrigation works numbering about 36,000.

Electric Schemes.

The first stage of the Pykara Hydro-Electric project which was under construction by the Government of Madras has now been completed and is in operation from 1st April 1933. It consists in utilising a fall of over 3,000 ft. in the Pykara river as it descends the Nilgiris Plateau for the generation of electrical energy and its transmission for supply to the neighbouring districts, *viz.*, the Nilgiris, Coimbatore, Salem and Trichinopoly. The Glen Morgan scheme started in 1928 with the object of supplying power to the main construction works of the Pykara project has now been merged with it. In its present completed form the project consists of the main power house at Singara with an installed plant capacity of 33,000 B.H.P. and the transformer station, the receiving station at Coimbatore, 7 other sub-stations, 49 miles of 66 K.V. line, 58 miles of 22 K.V. Tower line and 130 miles of 22 K.V. pole line. The booked cost upto 31st March 1933 against an original estimate of Rs. 1,33,36,640 is Rs. 1,07,13,580 and the revised estimates for 1933-34 include an expenditure of Rs.1,55,600. The revenue anticipated during 1933-34 is about Rs. 4 lakhs against an estimated revenue of Rs. 3,38,160. The following places

receive supply from the Pykara Project at present :—

The towns of Ootacamund, Coonoor, Methupalaiyam, Karamadai, Pollachi, Tiruppur, Ananashi, Bhavani, Erode, Salem, and Palghat, besides the tea estates of Deverkhola, Prospect, Parkside, Ibex and Nonsuch, Bhavani and Glendale in the Nilgiris District and Kallayar, Akkamalais, Karimalai, Vellamalia, and Pachimalains in the Anamalais.

The Government of Madras have also a proposal under consideration to start a Hydro-Electric Scheme at Mettur about which they are awaiting a report from their Chief Engineer for Electricity.

Co-operation.

On account of the continued general economic depressions, overdues in Societies showed a further small increase during the year 1932-33. For mainly the same reason there was a large fall in the amount of loans discussed by societies. The result was the accumulation of large amounts of surplus which in Central Banks amounted to more than a crore of rupees. With a view to reducing the surplus, the Government have since directed that Central Banks should restrict their borrowings and return deposits made, if possible. The attention of the department was paid for the last few years more to the consolidation of existing societies than to the expansion of the movement. Only 107 societies were registered during the year as against 127,320 and 534 in the previous three years, whereas the number of societies whose registration was cancelled rose to 691 from 629 in the preceding year. Under the scheme of subvention to Central Banks for carrying on rectification and consolidation work, the Provincial Bank paid Rs. 36,624 to 27 Central Banks which in their turn spent Rs. 84,817 on the work. In the previous year a total sum of Rs. 1,43,390 including the Provincial Banks' subvention was spent by the Central Banks for the purpose. The progress in rectification is however slow as complete rectification is aimed at. The South India Co-operative Insurance Society started in March 1932 was able to do satisfactory work during the year. The Central Land Mortgage Bank which was started in 1929 for the purpose of financing primary land mortgage Bank by floating debentures has now been firmly established and was able to declare a profit of Rs. 15,223 for the year.

Social Legislation.

The Hindu Religious Endowments Act which has for its object the better administration and governance of certain Hindu religious endowments came into force early in 1925. It provides for the appropriation of the surplus funds of the endowments to religious, educational and charitable purposes not inconsistent with the objects of the institutions to which they are attached. The Act has been working satisfactorily. Doubts having been raised to the validity of the Act it was re-enacted and passed into law as Act No. II of 1927. The new Act came into force on 8th February 1927. Another piece of legislation—a non-official Bill—which has raised a heated controversy is the Malabar Tenancy Bill, which aims to confer, subject to certain conditions, occupancy rights on "kanom" tenants and actual cultivators of the soil. As there was a sharp difference of opinion on the very principles of the Bill, the Governor withheld his assent and a committee was appointed to go into the matter thoroughly and its findings were submitted and the same were published with a view to receive objections and suggestions. "The recommendations of the Committee were placed before a Round Table Conference consisting of the representatives of the Jenmies, Tenants and of the Government. The objections and suggestions made by the representatives at the Conference were carefully considered by the Government and the Government re-drafted the Bill and introduced it in the Council on 6th August 1929. The Bill was passed by the Council on 15th October 1929. His Excellency the Governor was of opinion that changes were expedient in respect of certain clauses of the Bill passed by the Council and accordingly returned parts of the Bill to the Legislative Council, under Section 81-A (1) of the Government of India Act, for reconsideration." The Bill was finally passed by the Legislative Council on the 1st March 1930, and received the assent of His Excellency the Governor on the 28th March 1930. The assent of His Excellency the Governor-General was given on the 18th November 1930, and the Act came into force on the 1st December 1930. Noteworthy amongst other efforts at legislation for social reform was the non-official resolution passed by the Council recommending to Government to undertake legislation or to recommend the Government of India to do so to put a stop to the practice of dedicating young women and girls to Hindu temples which has generally resulted in exposing them to immoral purposes under the pretext of caste. Mrs. Muthulakshmi Reddi, Ex-Deputy President of the Legislative Council, introduced a bill in the Legislative Council on 5th September 1928 so as to enfranchise or free the lands held by inam-holding Devadasis on condition of service in Hindu temples from such condition. The bill was passed into law on 1st February 1929. The Act received the assent of the Governor on 12th April 1929 and of the Governor-General on 13th May 1929. Rules have been framed to give effect to the provisions of the Act and the enfranchisement of Devadasi inams is now in progress. On 24th January 1930 Mrs. Muthulakshmi Reddi introduced another bill in the Legislative Council with the object of putting an end to the dedication of young women and girls not only among inam-holding Devadasis but among Devadasis as a whole. The bill was discussed in the Council and circulated to elicit opinion. As in the meantime Mrs. Muthulakshmi Reddi resigned her membership in the Council, the bill was not proceeded with. Subsequently, the Council also dissolved and the bill lapsed. A bill for the suppression of brothels and of traffic in women and girls was introduced in the Council by Mr. K. R. Venkataramа Ayyar on 5th September 1928 and was passed into law on 31st January 1930. The Act received the assent of the Governor on 24th February 1930 and of the Governor-General on 28th March 1930. It could not however be brought into force immediately owing to certain practical difficulties. To obviate these difficulties, an amending Act was passed by the Legislative Council on 30th October 1931 and received the assent of the Governor on 3rd December 1931 and of the Governor-General on 25th

December 1931. The amending act enables the Local Government to bring the Act into force in selected areas and to extend it gradually to other areas as circumstances permit and also to bring into force such of its provisions as may be practicable in any particular area. The Act, excepting sections 6, 7, 8 and 16, was accordingly brought into force in the City of Madras and its environs within a distance of ten miles from the limits of the City with effect from 1st April 1932 and in the Municipalities of Trichinopoly, Srirangam and Madura and their environs within a distance of 5 miles from the limits of those Municipalities with effect from 1st January 1933. The Act except sections 5, 6, 7, 8 and 16 has also been brought into force with effect from 1st October 1933 in the Municipalities of Bezwada, Calicut, Coconada, Rajahmundry, Tanjore, Vizagapatam, Coimbatore and Erode and their environs within a distance of 5 miles from the limits of the Municipalities. It was also resolved to ask Government to fix as their goal total prohibition of drink in the presidency within 20 years. In pursuance of this resolution and of the recommendations of the Excise Advisory Committee thereon, Government in 1929 sanctioned a scheme of propaganda against the use of alcoholic liquors and intoxicating drinks. But owing to financial stringency, the work carried on by the Central propaganda Board Temperance Publicity Committee and the District Propaganda Committees had to be discontinued from August 1931. The Provisions of the Mussalman Wakf, Act, 1923 (India Act XLII of 1923) were brought into force in this Presidency on 1st January 1932. This Act makes provision for the better management of Mussalman Wakf properties and for ensuring the maintenance and publication of proper accounts in respect of such properties.

Law and Order.

The Superior Court for Civil and Criminal Judicial work in the Presidency is the High Court at Madras, which consists of a Chief Justice and thirteen puisne judges. The existing law provides for a maximum of 20 High Court Judges. For the administration of criminal justice there are 29 Sessions Judges in the Mufassal, (including three for agency tracts) Additional and Assistant Sessions Judges being provided to assist Courts in which the work is heavy. Then there are the District Magistrates, the Subordinate Magistrates and Honorary Magistrates. The administration of civil justice is carried on by 26 District Judges, and 41 Subordinate Judges and 145 District Munsiffs. In the Presidency Town there are a City Civil Court consisting of one Judge and Small Causes Court consisting of a Chief Judge and two other Judges. Madras is a litigious province and the records show one suit for every 72 persons. The Police department is under an Inspector-General who has four deputies in four ranges of the Presidency, a Superintendent being stationed at each District. The sanctioned strength of the permanent police force is about 28,200.

FINANCE DEPARTMENT.

Heads of Accounts.	Budget Estimates, 1933-34.	Heads of Accounts.	Budget Estimates 1933-34.
Revenue.	Rs.	Expenditure.	Rs.
II.—Taxes on Income ..	....	5—Land Revenue	19,51,400
V.—Land Revenue ..	7,68,05,400	6—Excise	34,73,600
VI. Excise	4,48,85,800	7—Stamps	6,69,100
VII.—Stamps	2,37,42,000	8—Forest	36,30,300
VIII.—Forest	45,79,900	8A—Forest Capital outlay charged to Revenue ..	2,72,200
IX.—Registration	34,12,600	9—Registration	29,14,700
XIII.—Irrigation, Navigation Embankment and Drainage Works for which Capital Accounts are kept—Gross receipt ..	5,79,900	15—Irrigation—Other Revenue Expenditure Financed from Ordinary Revenues	45,34,000
XIV.—Irrigation, Navigation Embankment and Drainage Works for which no Capital Accounts are kept..	2,13,100	XIII—Irrigation, Navigation, Embankment and Drainage Works for which Capital Accounts are kept—Working Expenses ..	44,71,100
XVI.—Interest	32,56,800	16—Construction of Irrigation, Navigation, Embankment and Drainage Works	24,04,700
XVII.—Administration of Justice	14,97,700	19—Interest on Ordinary Debt	73,37,000
		20—Interest on other Obligations	10,100
		21—Reduction or Avoidance of Debt	25,55,000

Heads of Accounts.	Budget Estimates, 1933-34.	Heads of Accounts.	Budget Estimates 1933-34.
Revenue—*contd.*	Rs.	Expenditure—*contd.*	Rs.
XVIII.—Jails and Convict Settlements ..	6,14,400	22—General Administration ..	2,78,19,700
XIX.—Police	5,62,500	24—Administration of Justice.	96,25,400
XX.—Ports and Pilotage ..	....	25—Jails and Convict Settlements	25,00,200
XXI.—Education	8,34,000	26—Police	1,64,64,000
XXII.—Medical	8,20,500	27—Ports and Pilotage ..	15,900
XXIII.—Public Health ..	1,57,500	30—Scientific Departments ..	1,86,700
XXIV—Agriculture	4,08,400	XXXA—Hydro-Electric Schemes Working Expenses ..	5,53,000
XXV.—Industries	5,90,600	31—Education	2,54,14,000
XXVI.—Miscellaneous Departments ..	49,29,300	32—Medical	89,42,200
XXX.—Civil Works ..	28,11,900	33—Public Health	29,60,600
XXXA.—Hydro-Electric Schemes — Gross Receipts	4,00,000	34—Agriculture	38,98,700
XXXII.—Transfers from Famine Relief Fund ..	....	35—Industries	15,86,800
XXXIII.—Receipts in aid of Superannuation ..	2,72,000	37—Miscellaneous Departments	53,13,000
XXXIV—Stationery and Printing	3,21,000	41—Civil Works	1,77,79,000
XXXV—Miscellaneous ..	9,70,000	41B—Capital expenditure on Hydro Electric Schemes met from revenues ..	35,77,500
(*a*) Total—Revenue ..	17,26,71,300	43—Famine	3,00,000
Receipts.		45—Superannuation Allowances and Pensions	76,23,700
Revenue (from Statement A) ..	17,26,71,300	45A—Commuted value of pensions financed from ordinary Revenues ..	8,01,000
Excess of Revenue over Expenditure	4,08,300	46—Stationery and Printing ..	22,05,400
Loans and advances by Provincial Government	42,32,800	47—Miscellaneous	4,40,200
Advances from the Provincial Loans Fund, Government of India	....	Total — Expenditure Charged to Revenue..	17,22,63,000
Suspense	41,04,200	Disbursements.	
Subventions from Central Road Development Account	13,50,000	Expenditure (from Statement B.)	17,22,63,000
Civil Deposits	1,31,800	Excess of Expenditure over Revenue..	....
Depreciation Funds	1,64,000	52A—Capital outlay on Forests.	....
Famine Relief Fund	2,60,700	55—Construction of Irrigation, Navigation, Embankment and Drainage Works	36,41,800
Appropriations for Reduction or Avoidance of Debt	25,55,000	56C—Capital outlay on Industrial Development ..	1,58,200
Total—Receipts ..	18,54,69,800	58—Capital outlay on Hydro-Electric Schemes ..	4,29,800
Opening Balance { Famine Relief Fund ..	57,94,261	60—Civil Works— not charged to Revenue	....
Opening Balance { General Balances ..	3,34,02,462	60B—Payment of commuted value of Pensions ..	....
Grand Total	22,46,66,523	Total ..	42,31,500
		Loans and Advances by Provincial Government	49,17,100
		Advances from Provincial Loans Fund, Government of India ..	25,55,000
		Suspense	41,04,200
		Subventions from Central Road Development Account.. ..	19,91,700
		Civil Deposits	1,32,600
		Depreciation Funds	97,400
		Famine Relief Fund	....
		Total—Disbursements ..	19,02,92,500
		Closing Balance { Famine Relief Fund ..	60,54,961
		Closing Balance { General Balances ..	2,83,19,662
		Grand Total ..	22,46,66,523

Governor.

His Excellency Lt.-Col. the Right Hon. Sir George Frederick Stanley, P.C., G.C.I.E., C.M.G.

Personal Staff.

Private Secretary, A. D. Crombie, I.C.S.

Military Secy., Lt.-Col. S. E. L. Baddeley.

Surgeon, Major D. P. Johnstone, C.I.E., O.B.E., R.A.M.C. (Retd.)

Aides-de-Camp, Capt. Goschen, Capt. T. R. D. Batt, Capt. R. S. Wright and Capt. E. F. Gosling.

Indian Aide-de-Camp, Risaldar Sher Bahadur Khan.

Commandant, H. E. the Governor's Body Guard, Capt. H. C. Mostyn-Owen.

Members of Council.

The Hon. Khan Bahadur Sir Mahomed Usman Sahib Bahadur, K.C.I.E.

The Hon. Sir Kurma Venkata Reddi, Kt.

The Hon. Sir Archibald Campbell, K.C.I.E., C.S.I., C.B.E., V.D., I.C.S.

The Hon. Sir Hopetoun Stokes, K.C.I.E., C.S.I., I.C.S.

Ministers.

The Hon. the Raja of Bobbili (Local Self-Government, Medical, Public Health, Religious and Charitable Endowments).

The Hon. Mr. P. T. Rajan, Agriculture. Co-operative Societies, Public Works and Registration.)

The Hon. Diwan Bahadur S. Kumaraswami Reddiar (Education, Fisheries, Industries and Excise.)

SECRETARIES TO GOVERNMENT.

Chief Secretary, G. T. H. Bracken, C.I.E., I.C.S.

Secretary, Finance Department, H. M. Hood, I.C.S.

Secretary, Local Self-Government Department, E. Conran Smith, C.I.E., I.C.S.

Secretary, Public Works and Labour Departments, Diwan Bahadur N. Gopalaswami Ayyangar.

Secretary, Development Department, C. A. Henderson, I.C.S.

Secretary, Revenue Department, J. A. Thorne, C.I.E., I.C.S.

Secretary, Law and Education Department, Diwan Bahadur V. N. Vishwanatha Rao.

Additional Secretary, Public Department, G. T. Boag, C.I.E., I.C.S.

MISCELLANEOUS APPOINTMENTS.

Director of Public Instruction, Robert George Grieve, M.A., (on leave). W. Ealram Smith M.A. (offg.)

Inspector-General of Police, C. B. Cunningham, C.S.I.

Surgeon-General, Lt.-Col. R. G. G. Croly, I.M.S.

Director of Public Health, Lieut.-Col. A. J. H. Russell, C.B.E., M.A., M.D., D.P.H., I.M.S. (on other duty), Lieut.-Col. J. R. D. Webb, O.B.E., I.M.S. (Officiating).

Accountant-General, L. B. Ward.

Inspector-General of Prisons, Lt.-Colonel G. W. Maconachie, I.M.S.

Postmaster-General, C. D. Rae, O.B.E.

Collector of Customs, C. R. Watkins, C.I.E.

Commissioner of Excise, E. F. Thomas, C.I.E., I.C.S.

Inspector-General of Registration, Rao Bahadur B. V. Sri Hari Rao Nayudu.

Director, Kodaikanal and Madras Observatories, T. Royds, D. Sc.; A. L. Narayan, M.A., D. SC.

Supdt., Govt. Central Museum, and Principal Librarian, Connemara Public Library, Dr. F. H. Gravely.

Director of Agriculture, S. V. Ramamurti, I.C.S.

Director of Industries, V. Ramakrishna, I.C.S.

Director of Fisheries, Dr. B. Sundara Raj.

Chief Conservator of Forests.—A. Wimbush, I.F.S.

Director of Veterinary Services, P. T. Saunders, O.B.E., M.R.C.V.S., J.V.S.

Presidents and Governors of Fort St. George in Madras.

William Gyfford	1684
Elihu Yale	1687
Nathaniel Higginson	1692
Thomas Pitt	1698
Gulston Addison	1709

Died at Madras, 17 Oct., 1709.

Edmund Montague (*Acting*)	1707
William Fraser (*Acting*)	1704
Edward Harrison	1719
Joseph Collet	1716
Francis Hastings (*Acting*)	1720

Nathaniel Elwick	1721
James Macrae	1725
George Morton Pitt	1730
Richard Benyon	1735
Nicholas Morse	1744
John Hinde	
Charles Floyer	1747
Thomas Saunders	1750
George Pigot	1755
Robert Palk	1763
Charles Bourchier	1767
Josias DuPre	1770
Alexander Wynch	1773
Lord Pigot (Suspended)	1775
George Stratton	1776
John Whitehill (*Acting*)	1777
Sir Thomas Rumbold, Bart.	1778
John Whitehill (*Acting*)	1780
Charles Smith (*Acting*)	1780
Lord Macartney, K.B.	1781

Governors of Madras.

Lord Macartney, K.B.	1785
Alexander Davidson (*Acting*)	1785
Major-General Sir Archibald Campbell, K.B.	1786
John Hollond (*Acting*)	1789
Edward J. Hollond (*Acting*)	1790
Major-General William Medows	1790
Sir Charles Oakeley, Bart.	1792
Lord Hobart	1794
Major-General George Harris (*Acting*) ..	1798
Lord Clive	1799
Lord William Cavendish Bentinck ..	1803
William Petrie (*Acting*)	1807
Sir George Hilaro Barlow, Bart., K.B. ..	1807
Lieut.-General the Hon. John Abercromby.	1813
The Right Hon. Hugh Elliot	1814
Major-General Sir Thomas Munro, Bart., K.C.B. Died 6 July, 1827.	1820
Henry Sullivan Grœme (*Acting*) ..	1827
Stephen Rumbold Lushington	1822
Lieut.-General Sir Frederick Adam, K.C.B.	1832
George Edward Russell (*Acting*)	1837
Lord Elphinstone, G.C.H., P.C.	1837
Lieut.-General the Marquess of Tweeddale, KT., C.B.	1842
Henry Dickinson (*Acting*)	1848
Major-General the Right Hon. Sir Henry Pottinger, Bart., G.C.B.	1848
Daniel Elliott (*Acting*)	1854
Lord Harris	1854
Sir Charles Edward Trevelyan, K.C.B. ..	1859
William Ambrose Morehead (*Acting*) ..	1860
Sir Henry George Ward, G.C.M.G. Died at Madras, 2 August, 1860.	1860
William Ambrose Morehead (*Acting*) ..	1860
Sir William Thomas Denison, K.C.B. ..	1861
(Acting Viceroy and Governor-General 1863 to 1864.)	
Edward Maltby (*Acting*)	1863
Lord Napier of Merchistoun, KT. (*a*) ..	1866
(Acting Viceroy and Governor-General, 1872.)	
Alexander John Arbuthnot, K.C.S.I., C.I.E. (*Acting*)	1872
Lord Hobart .. .. Died at Madras, 27 April, 1875.	1872
Sir William Rose Robinson, K.C.S.I. (*Acting*).	1875
The Duke of Buckingham and Chandos, G.C.S.I., C.I.E.	1875
The Right Hon. W. P. Adam, P.C., C.I.E., Died at Ootacamund, 24 May, 1881.	1880
William Hudleston, C.S.I. (*Acting*) ..	1881
The Right Hon. M. E. Grant Duff, G.C.S.I., C.I.E.	1881
The Right Hon. Robert Bourke, P.C. .. Lord Connemara, 12 May, 1887 (by creation,)	1886
John Henry Garstin, C.S.I. (*Acting*) ..	1890
Baron Wenlock, G.C.S.I., G.C.I.E., K.C.B...	1891
Sir Arthur Elibank Havelock, G.C.M.G. ..	1896
Baron Ampthill, G.C.S.I., G.C.I.E., K.C.B... Acting Viceroy and Governor-General, 1904.	1900

Sir James Thomson, K.C.S.I. (*Acting*) ..	1904
Sir Gabriel Stokes, K.C.S.I. (*Acting*) ..	1906
Hon. Sir Arthur Lawley, G.C.S.I., G.C.I.E., K.C.M.G.	1906
Sir Thomas David Gibson-Carmichael, Bart., G.C.S.I., G.C.I.E., K.C.M.G. (*b*)	1911
Became Governor of Bengal, 1 April	1911
Sir Murray Hammick, K.C.S.I., C.I.E. (*Acting*).	1911
Right Hon. Baron Pentland, P.C., G.C.S.I., G.C.I.E.	1912
Baron Willingdon G.C.S.I., G.C.M.G., G.C.I.E., G.B.E. (*c*)	1918
Sir Alexander Cardew, K.C.S.I. (*Acting*)..	1919
Sir Charles Todhunter, K.C.S.I. (*Acting*) ..	1924
Lord Goschen, P.C., G.C.S.I., G.C.I.E., C.B.E. (*Acting* Viceroy and Governor-General 1929.)	1924
Sir Norman Marjoribanks, K.C.S.I., K.C.I.E. (*Acting*)	1929
Lieut.-Col. the Right Hon'ble Sir George Frederick Stanley, P.C., G.C.I.E., C.M.G.	1929

(*a*) Afterwards (by creation) Baron Napier of Ettrick.

(*b*) Afterwards (by creation) Baron Carmichael of Skirling.

(*c*) Afterwards Earl of Willingdon.

THE MADRAS LEGISLATIVE COUNCIL.

PRESIDENT:

The Hon. Mr. B. Ramachandra Reddi.

DEPUTY PRESIDENT:

Rao Bahadur G. Jagannadha Raju.

I.—MEMBERS OF THE EXECUTIVE COUNCIL.

Ex-Officio.

The Hon. Khan Bahadur Sir Mohamed Usman Sahib Bahadur, K.C.I.E.

The Hon. Sir Venkata Kurma Reddi, Kt.

The Hon. Sir Archibald Campbell, K.C.I.E. C.S.I., C.B.E., V.D., I. C. S.

The Hon. Mr. H. G. Stokes, C.S.I., C. I.E. I.C.S.

II.—ELECTED MEMBERS.

(*a*) *Ministers.*

The Hon. The Raja of Bobbili.

The Hon. Mr. P. T. Rajan.

The Hon. Diwan Bahadur S. Kumaraswami Reddiyar.

(*b*) *Elected Members.*

Abdul Hameed Khan Sahib Bahadur.

Moulvi Hafeez Anumanthakudi Mustapha Ahmed Meeran Sahib Bahadur.

Rao Sahib A. S. Alagannan Chetti.

S. A. A. Annamalai Chettiyar.

H. B. Ari Gowder.

Diwan Bahadur A. Appadurai Pillai.

Basheer Ahmed Sayeed Sahib Bahadur.

P. Bayappa Reddi.

S. M. K. Beyabani Sahib Bahadur.

Frank Birley.

J. A. Davis, M.B.E.

Raja Velugoti Sarvagnya Kumarakrishna Yachendra Bahadur Varu Kumara, Raja of Venkatagiri.

J. Kuppuswami Choudari.

W. W. Ladden.

R. Madanagopal Nayudu.

Lieut.-Colonel Sri Raja Velugoti Sir Govinda Krishna Yachendru Varu Bahadur, K.C.I.E., Maharaja of Venkatagiri.

Mahboob Ali Baig Sahib Bahadur.

Khan Bahadur Mahmud Schamnad Sahib Bahadur.

M. A. Manikkavelu Nayakar.

Diwan Bahadur B. Muniswami Nayudu.

K. M. Duraiswami Reddiyar.

Diwan Bahadur S. Ellappa Chettiyar.

Diwan Bahadur M. Gopalaswami Mudaliyar

A. Harischandrudu Nayudu.

C. Indraiah.

Rao Sahib C. Jayaram Nayudu.

K. Kesava Ramamurthi Nayudu.

Khan Bahadur P. Khalif-ul-lah Sahib Bahadur.

Rai Sahib C. Kolanda Reddi.

G. Lakshmana Reddi.

ELECTED MEMBERS—(*contd.*)

K. Koti Reddi.
W. K. M. Langley.
Khan Bahadur T. M. Moidoo Sahib Bahadur
P. C. Moses.
K. P. V. S. Muhammad Meera Ravutta-Bahadur.
Diwan Bahadur A. M. M. Murugappa Chettiyar.
M. A. Muthiah Chettiyar.
Rao Bahadur P. C. Muthu Chettiyar.
K. A. Nachiyappa Gounder.
A. Pl. N. V. Nadimuthu Pillai.
Rai Bahadur N. Nallatambi Sarkarai Manradiyar.
T. Narasa Reddi.
Rao Sahib D. V. Narasimhaswami.
V. P. Narayanan Nambiyar.
Rao Bahadur T. M. Narayanaswami Pillai.
Rao Bahadur C. Natesa Mudaliyar.
R. M. Palat.
Rao Bahadur A. T. Pannirselvam.
C. R. Parthasarathi Ayyangar.
Sriman M. G. Patnaik Mahasayo.
Rao Bahadur Sir A. P. Patro, Kt.
K. Pattabhiramayya.
B. Pocker Sahib Bahadur.
Raja Sri Ramachandra Marda Raja Deo Garu, Raja of Kallikote.
Sri Sri Sri Krishna Chandra Gajapathi Narayana Deo, Raja of Parlakimedi.
P. K. Ramachandra Padayachi.
A. Ramakrishna Reddi.
Rao Bahadur T. A. Ramalingam Chettiyar.
K. P. Raman Menon.
T. S. Ramaswami Ayyar.
V. M. Ramaswami Mudaliyar.
A. Ranganatha Mudaliyar.
G. Ranganatha Mudaliyar.
M. D. T. Ranganatha Mudaliyar.
M. B. Rangaswami Reddi.
Diwan Bahadur C. S. Ratnasabapa Mudaliyar.
Sami Venkatachalam Chetti.
P. V. Krishniah Chowduri.
B. P. Sesha Reddi.
A. B. Shetty.
Gade, Simhachalam Garu.
K. Singam Ayyangar.
K. S. Sivasubrahmanya Ayyar.
M. S. Sreshta.
T. C. Srinivasa Ayyangar.
Dr. P. Subbarayan.
U. C. Subrahmania Bhatt.
T. Sundara Rao Nayudu.
Khan Sahib, Syed Tajudin Sahib Bahadur.
Thomas Daniel.
M. Vedachala Mudaliyar.
K. R. Venkatarama Ayyar.
P. Peddi Raju.
Rao Bahadur R. K. Venugopal Nayudu.
Khan Bahadur Yahya Ali Sahib Bahadur.
Yakub Hasan Sahib Bahadur.
T. V. K. Kama Raja Pandia Nayakar, Zamindar of Bodinayakanur.
Shri Vyricherla Narayana Gajapati Raju, Zamindar of Chemudu.
Raja Jaga Veera Rama Kumara Venkateswara Ettappa Nayakar Ayyan, Zamindar of Ettayapuram.
K. C. M. Venkatachala Reddiyar, Zamindar of Minampalli.
Mirzapuram Rajagaru *alias* Venkataramayya Appa Rao Bahadur Garu, Zamindar of Mirzapuram.
W. O. Wright.

NOMINATED MEMBERS.

Mrs. K. Alamelumanga Thayarammal.
V. T. Arasu.
C. Basu Dev.
A. V. Bhanoji Rao.
M. Devadason.
Rao Sahib V. Dharmalingam Pillai.
R. Foulkes.
H. M. Hood, I.C.S.
H. M. Jagannatham.
Rao Bahadur D. Krishnamurthi.
C. Krishnan.
Diwan Bahadur Sir Alladi Krishnaswami Ayyar, Kt.
Madhusoodhanan Thangal.
Rao Sahib V. I. Muniswami Pillai.
Dewan Bahadur N. Gopalaswami Ayyangar.
Subadar-Major S. A. Nanjappa Bahadur.
G. R. Premayya.
P. V. Rajagopala Pillai.
Lao Sahib Pandit Ganala Ramamurti.
Rao Sahib N. Siva Raj.
E. Conran Smith, I.C.S.
W. P. A. Soundara Pandian.
Rao Bahadur R. Srinivasan.
G. Sriramulu.
Rao Sahib P. Subrahmaniam Chetti.
A. S. Swami Sahajanandham.
J. A. Thorne, I.C.S.
V. G. Vasudeva Pillai.
Rao Bahadur V. N. Niswanatha Rao, Zamindar of Kirlampudi.

SPECIAL MEMBERS.

Diwan Bahadur M. Ramachandra Rao.
J. F. Hall, I.C.S.
W. Erlam Smith, M.A., I.E.S.
K. V. Krishnaswami Ayyar.

The Bengal Presidency.

The Presidency of Bengal, as constituted on the 1st April 1912, comprises the Burdwan and Presidency divisions and the district of Darjeeling which were formerly administered by the Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal, and the Rajshahi, Dacca and Chittagong divisions which by the partition of the old Province had been placed under the administration of the Lieutenant-Governor of Eastern Bengal and Assam. The area of the Presidency is 82,955 square miles, and it possesses a population of 51,087,338 persons; included within this area are the two Indian States of Cooch Behar and Tripura, which are now placed in direct political relations with the Government of India. The Governor of Bengal in Council acts as Agent to the Governor-General of India for these States. The area of the British territory is 77,521 square miles. Bengal comprises the lower valleys and deltas of the Ganges and Brahmaputra, and in the main consists of a great alluvial plain intersected in its southern portion by innumerable waterways. In the north are the Himalayan mountains and submontane tracts of Darjeeling and Jalpaiguri and on the south-east the hills in Tripura and Chittagong, while on the west the Chota Nagpur plateau is continued by an undulating tract running through the western portions of Midnapur, Bankura, Burdwan and Birbhum. The general range of the country however is very low, and a great fertile plain extends southward from Jalpaiguri to the forests and swamps known as the Sunderbans, which lie between the area of cultivation and the Bay of Bengal.

The People.

Of the inhabitants of the Presidency 27,810,100 or 54.44 per cent. are Mahomedans and 22,212,069 Hindus. These two major religions embrace all but 2.09 per cent. of the population, Christians, Buddhists and Animists combined, number 1,043,049.

Bengali is spoken by ninety-two per cent. of the population of the Presidency and Hindi and Urdu by 3.7 per cent. The Oriya-speaking people number 159,854 and Nepali is the tongue of 134,147 persons principally resident in the Darjeeling and Jalpaiguri districts. The great majority of the speakers of the Munda languages are Santals in West and North Bengal.

Industries.

According to the returns of the census of 1931 10,593,384 persons or 20.7 per cent. of the population derive their support from pasture and agriculture, and of these 6,041,495 are cultivators, and 2,718,939 are agricultural labourers. The area under jute in 1933 is estimated at 2,168,700 acres against 1,845,700 in 1932. Bengal is the most important rice-producing area in Northern India, and it is computed that 87 per cent. of the cultivated area of the Presidency is devoted to its production. Other crops include barley, wheat, pulses and oil-seeds, the area devoted to the last named in 1932-33 being 1,045,900 acres. Sugar is produced both from the sugar-cane and from the date-palm, and tobacco is grown for local consumption in nearly every district of Bengal. The area under tea in 1931 was 207,600 acres. There were 393 plantations employing a daily average of 184,539 permanent and 7,410 temporary hands.

Manufacture and Trade.—Agriculture is the principal industry of Bengal. In addition to this there are the jute mill industry, the tea industry (confined to the districts of Jalpaiguri including the Dooars and Darjeeling), and the coal mining industry. The jute mills in and around Calcutta and in the triparian tracts of the districts of Howrah and Hooghly constitute the principal manufacturing industry of the Presidency.

There was no improvement in the jute trade of Bengal (which began to decline since the year 1928-29) due mainly to the low prices prevailing during the year.

General.—The world-wide economic depression coupled with the instability of certain foreign exchange continued to affect the normal course of the trade of this province during the year 1932-33, and the total value of private merchandise was the lowest for the last thirty years. Exports were hampered by the low prices offered for raw materials and agricultural produce, and by tariff barriers which have been raised in many countries.

The aggregate value of the total trade of the province (excluding treasure) with foreign countries and other Indian ports declined from Rs. 1,32,73 crores in 1931-32 to Rs. 1,22.99 crores during the year 1932-33. This decline was due mainly to the heavy fall under foreign exports, which receded from Rs. 65.14 crores in 1931-32 to Rs. 56.43 crores. Foreign imports alone showed slight improvement, viz., from Rs. 35.48 crores to Rs. 35.83 crores. In the coasting trade there was a general falling off; the imports declining from Rs. 19.74 crores to Rs. 18.90 crores, and exports from Rs. 12.35 crores to 11.82 crores.

Imports.—The import of liquors of all description declined from 1,591,815 gallons valued at Rs. 66.71 lakhs to 1,569,718 gallons valued at Rs. 63.72 lakhs. Due to high protective duties imports of sugar continued to be on the decline, the total quantity coming in amounted to 118,150 tons value at Rs. 1.22 lakhs as against 196,640 tons valued at Rs. 1.89 lakhs. The total quantity of salt imported during the year from all sources rose from 472.11 tons valued at Rs. 108.66 lakhs in 1931-32 to 528,802 tons valued at Rs. 121.53 lakhs.

The total quanity of tobacco imported during the year rose from 1,895,772 lbs. valued at Rs. 39.20 lakhs to 3,269,840 lbs. valued at Rs. 43.75 lakhs. This improvement of the trade was due to the increase in the imports of unmanufactured tobacco, which rose from 1,114,252 lbs. to 2,948,248 lbs. The import of manufactured tobacco (including cigars and cigarettes) receded from 781,520 lbs. valued at Rs. 11.93 lakhs to 321,592 lbs. valued Rs. 11.93 lakhs. Most of the unmanufactured

Rs. 11.93 lakhs. Most of the unmanufactured tobacco came from the United States of America, and the cigarettes and pipe tobacco from the United Kingdom.

The total quantity of mineral oils imported during the year declined from 123,478,479 gallons valued at Rs. 7,19.22 lakhs in 1931-32 to 105,752,461 gallons at Rs. 5,62.05 lakhs. Of this total decrease of 17,726,018 gallons, kerosene alone was responsible for 13,491,558 gallons. Imports of petrol also declined by 4¾ million gallons and fuel oil by over a million gallons. Imports from Burma remained constant. The share of the United States of America fell most.

The motor vehicles trade continued its downward course. The number of vehicles imported during the year was, motor cars, 1,618; motor cycles 202, motor omnibuses, vans and lorries 187, as against 1,783; 285; and 439 respectively in the previous year. The total value of all kinds dropped from Rs. 66.49 lakhs to Rs. 54.80 lakhs. Imports of tyres and tubes also showed a similar decline both in value and quantity. Most of the motor cars and motor cycles came from the United Kingdom, whose share in the trade improved considerably at the expense of the United States of America.

During the year under report there was some improvement in the imports of durgs, medicines and chemicals, and also in those of glassware and earthernware, the value of the former rising from Rs. 1,62.75 lakhs to Rs. 1,67.13 lakhs, and that the latter from Rs. 41.12 lakhs to Rs. 42.56 lakhs.

Imports of machinery and millwork improved in value from Rs. 3,11 lakhs to Rs. 3.81 lakhs. The progress of the indigenous sugar industry is reflected in the large increase in the import of sugar machinery, which was valued at Rs. 1,31.5 lakhs compared with Rs. 27.6 lakhs in 1931-32. Imports of tea machinery also improved from Rs. 5.9 lakhs to Rs. 11.9 lakhs. About 72 per cent of the total imports were of British manufacture, the balance supplied by Germany, the United States of America and Belgium.

The total quantity of iron and steel goods imported during the year rose from 102,038 tons to 102,833 tons but the value dropped from Rs. 178.00 lakhs to Rs. 163.58 lakhs. This improvement was due to larger imports of non-protected goods of iron manufacture. The figures for protected and non-protected goods were 55,295 tons valued at Rs. 86.82 lakhs, and 47,538 tons valued at Rs. 76.76 lakhs respectively. Metals and ores other than iron and steel recorded the highest quantity imported since 1927-28, viz., 519,847 tons, but their value was just about the lowest figures recorded since that year, viz. Rs. 140.43 lakhs as against Rs. 98.62 lakhs in 1931-32. The United Kingdom had, as usual, the biggest share in this trade.

Imports of paper improved from 526,097 cwts. valued at Rs. 62.36 to 601,943 cwts. valued at Rs. 68.36 lakhs. The trade in pasteboard, etc., also improve considerably, the quantity rising from 69,683 cwts. to 129,975 cwts., and the value from Rs. 6.80 lakhs to Rs. 12.48 lakhs. The imports of wood pulp, however, declined from 404,996 cwts. valued at Rs. 32.71 lakhs to 283,181 cwts. at Rs. 19.75 lakhs.

The total value of the cotton goods imported during the year recorded an improvement of Rs. 189.23 lakhs over the preceding years' figure of Rs. 252.32 lakhs. The values of the more important kinds of cotton goods were twists and yarns Rs. 1,10.63 lakhs; piece-goods Rs. 554.68 lakhs and other cotton fabrics Rs. 57.24 lakhs, as against the preceding year's figures of Rs. 84.66 lakhs, Rs. 386.70 lakhs, and Rs. 51.96 lakhs respectively. In quantity, twist and yearn showed a distinct improvement the figure being 16,018,061 lbs., the highest on record since 1927-28. Piece-goods also improved from 223,456,174 lbs. to 351,191,868 lbs. Of this total quantity of piece-goods, 198,461,127 lbs. were grey; 60,028,434 lbs. white and 92,702,307 lbs. coloured, printed or dyed. China was the chief supplier of twist and yarn with Japan and the United Kingdom coming next to her in order. Japan was the chief supplier of every variety of cotton piece-goods, except grey bordered dhuties which came chiefly from the United Kingdom.

During the year under report silk and artificial silk of the total value of Rs. 50.05 lakhs, were imported as against Rs. 48.09 lakhs in the year 1931-32. This figure included Rs. 8.10 lakhs on account of pure silk goods, Rs. 6.31 lakhs under mixed silk and Rs. 35.64 lakhs under artificial silk. In all these varieties Japan was the principal supplier. The United Kingdom came next to Japan in her supply of artificial silk.

The aggregate value of the woollen goods imported during the year under report rose from Rs. 30.15 lakhs to Rs. 46.75 lakhs. The improvement was shared by all the principal items under this head. The figures for the year were braids 7,159 lbs valued at Rs. 16 lakhs; carpets, rugs and blankets 1,719,306 lbs. valued at Rs. 12.49 lakhs; hosiery 118,845 lbs. valued at Rs. 2.40 lakhs; yarn and knitting wool 229,940 lbs. valued at Rs. 4.74 lakhs; piece-goods 2,182,518 yds. valued at Rs. 23.60 lakhs, and shawls 70,514 pieces valued at Rs. 2.48 lakhs. Fifty per cent of the woollen goods was supplied by Italy, the United Kingdom's supply came next with twenty-five per cent. of the total imports.

Of the articles of minor importance, the articles to show improvement in imports, were non-mineral oils from Rs. 44.62 lakhs to Rs. 65.30 lakhs, hardware by Rs. 10 lakhs, also points, jewellery and precious stones, cycles, dyeing and tanning materials, building and engineering materials and toilet requisites. The trade in instruments, apparatus and appliances remained steady, but Japan increased her share of electrical goods by Rs. 6 lakhs at the expense of the European countries. Imports of stationery, wood and timber and soap also maintained their level of last year. The articles showing heavy fall in the imports were provisions and

oilman's stores; spices, for which betelnuts from the Straits Settlements were mainly responsible; grain, pulse and flour; railway carriages, and arms and ammunition, which dropped from Rs. 17.13 lakhs to Rs. 9.66 lakhs. There were also slight decreases in the imports of rubber, tea-chests, boots and shoes, books, apparel and umbrellas. The value of unspecified articles imported by post fell by Rs. 14.62 lakhs to Rs. 65.63 lakhs.

Exports.—The total quantity of grains, pulses and flour exported during the year under report fell below the preceding year's figure of 150,849 tons by 526 tons only, but the value dropped from Rs. 190.24 lakhs to Rs. 162.27 lakhs. This decline was attributed to the fall in the exports of rice from 123,178 tons valued at Rs. 157.87 lakhs to 120,794 tons valued at Rs. 131.18 lakhs, and wheat flour from 2,222 tons valued at Rs. 2.59 lakhs to 950 tons valued at Rs. 1.32 lakhs. Exports of pulse, though increased in quantity from 24,285 tons to 25,664 tons, dropped in value from Rs. 28.87 lakhs to Rs. 27.83 lakhs. The export of cereals, other than rice, rose both in value and quantity, namely, from 1,164 tons valued Rs. 91 lakhs in 1931-32 to 2,915 tons valued at Rs. 1.94 lakhs. Mauritius was again the biggest purchaser of rice.

Although the exports of tea rose in quantity from 294,294,196 lbs. to 323,824,706 lbs., the value, due to a fall in prices on account of over production, dropped from Rs. 1549.80 lakhs to Rs. 1253.26 lakhs. The demand from the United Kingdom rose from 170,176,247 lbs. to 190,000,374 lbs. Canada from 14,090,187 lbs. to 16,676,087 lbs. and the United States of America from 9,608,653 lbs. to 10,915,598 lbs. Imperial preference was an important factor in the improved trade registered with Canada, but the expected response from Australia did not materialise, shipments being the lowest recorded for many years past.

The total quantity of coal exported during the year dropped from 514,943 tons to 451,564 tons and the value from Rs. 54.47 lakhs to Rs. 43.68 lakhs. The exports of lac also showed considerable decline, the total quantity (both manufactured and unmanufactured) falling from 456,572 tons to 415,588 tons, and the total value from Rs. 182.68 lakhs to Rs. 123.81 lakhs. The United Kingdom, the United States of America, Germany and Japan were again the chief customers of Bengal lac, but their purchases were considerably below those of the previous year.

The hides and skins trade of Bengal continued on the decline. The total quantity exported during the year under report was 15,417 tons and the value received amounted to Rs. 196.95 lakhs against 19,368 tons and Rs. 240.45 lakhs respectively in the previous year. The decline was mainly attributed to the fall in the exports of raw hides from 10,710 tons valued at Rs. 63.77 lakhs to 8,349 tons valued at Rs. 43.09 lakhs, and raw skins from 8,544 tons valued at Rs. 169.48 lakhs to 6,911 tons valued at Rs. 143.53 lakhs. Trade in cuttings of raw hides and skins, however, improved from 43 tons to 50 tons, but the value dropped from Rs. .06 lakhs to Rs. .03 lakhs. The exports of dressed hides and skins also showed a rise from 71 tons valued at Rs. 7.14 lakhs to 107 tons valued at Rs. 10.30 lakhs. Germany was again the chief customer of raw hides, with Italy following next. The United States of America and the United Kingdom were the best customers for raw skins.

Considerable decline was also recorded in the exports of metals and ores, the figures for the year being 483,094 tons valued at Rs. 150.04 lakhs, as against 610,870 tons valued at Rs. 200.92 lakhs in 1931-32. This decline was due to less exports of the two principal items under this head, *viz.*, manganese ore, and iron and steel, the former dropped from 149,348 tons valued at Rs. 42.93 lakhs to 137,224 tons valued at Rs. 37.29 lakhs, and the latter from 451,289 tons valued at Rs. 148.72 lakhs to 329,775 tons valued at Rs. 110.02 lakhs. The quantity of pig iron exported during the year was 218,374 tons valued at Rs. 74.30 lakhs as against 350,858 tons valued at Rs. 122.70 lakhs in 1931-32. The United Kingdom was again the best purchaser of metals and ores but her share of the manganese trade came down from 46,967 tons valued at Rs. 14.22 lakhs in 1931-32 to 37,402 tons valued at Rs. 10.28 lakhs. In manganese ore, Japan's trade expanded from 5,979 tons to 30,598 tons. France also increased her demand for manganese from 31,902 tons to 36,921 tons.

There was a further setback in the trade in mica, the total quantity exported during the year was 34,354 cwts valued at Rs. 26.03 lakhs, as against 46,108 cwts. valued at Rs. 31.77 lakhs in 1931-32. Of the total quantity exported during the year under report, black mica amounted to 6,467 cwts. valued at Rs. 13.58 lakhs and mica splittings 27,887 cwts. valued at Rs. 12.45 lakhs. The major part of the decline was shared by the United Kingdom and the United States of America, whose purchases shrank from 18,410 cwts. valued at Rs. 14.93 lakhs and 12,678 cwts. valued at Rs. 7.32 lakhs in 1931-32 to 13,431 cwts. valued at Rs. 12.58 lakhs and 7,881 cwts. valued at Rs. 4.40 lakhs, respectively. Germany's share in the trade, however, rose from 3,301 cwts. valued at Rs. 1.43 lakhs to 5,281 cwts. valued at Rs. 2.41 lakhs. Japan's share also improved slightly, from 4,053 cwts. valued at Rs. 2.06 lakhs to 4,268 cwts. valued at Rs. 2.84 lakhs.

The exports of oilseeds, vegetable oils, and oilcakes declined in value from Rs. 161.19 lakhs in the previous year to Rs. 107.80 lakhs. The total quantity of oilseeds exported during the year was 50,794 tons, valued at Rs. 57.79 lakhs as against 87,428 tons valued at Rs. 107.40 lakhs in 1931-32. Of this total quantity, oilseeds alone formed 47,159 tons valued at Rs. 52.24 lakhs; castor seeds 3,347 tons valued at Rs. 4.52 lakhs as against 10,391 tons valued at Rs. 13.00 lakhs; tea seeds, 52 tons valued at Rs. .65 lakhs as against 609 tons valued at Rs. 7.36 lakhs, and other seeds 236 tons valued at Rs. .38 lakhs, as against 848 tons valued at Rs. 1.36 lakhs. Vegetable oils of the aggregate quantity of 382,832 gallons valued at Rs. 5.91

lakhs were shipped during the year, compared with 437,210 gallons valued at Rs. 7.02 lakhs in 1931-32.

Exports of raw cotton recorded a fall from 4,004 tons valued at Rs. 22.32 lakhs in 1931-32 to 3,749 tons valued at Rs. 21.83 lakhs during the year under report. The United States of America made considerable reduction in her purchases during the year.

Exports of hemp during the year showed a little improvement, the total quantity amounted to 201,650 cwts. valued at Rs. 22.69 lakhs, compared with 169,777 cwts. valued at Rs.19.22 lakhs in 1931-32. Germany was the best purchaser of raw hemp with the United Kingdom coming next.

The jute trade of Bengal, which is practically her monopoly trade, did not fare any better during the year under report. Although the total exports of jute and jute manufactures improved in quantity by 7,312 tons over the preceding year's figure of 1,213,672 tons, the value realised fell by Rs. 124.66 lakhs below the preceding year's figure of Rs. 32,24.77 lakhs. In spite of the low level of prices, exports of raw jute declined slightly, in particular to the United Kingdom. Shipments from Calcutta dropped from 551,284 tons to 542,462 tons, and from Chittagong, from 33,395 tons to 19,147 tons. The average shipment price was Rs. 30-12-4 per bale of 400 lbs. as compared with Rs. 33-10-3 in 1931-32, Rs. 37-1-2 in 1930-31, and Rs. 59-14-6 in 1929-30. There was a slight improvement in the exports of gunny bags, from 387,854,629 pieces valued at Rs. 10,91.31 lakhs in 1931-32, to 414,360,740 pieces valued at Rs. 11,13.27 lakhs, but this was counterbalanced by smaller shipments of gunny cloth, which receded from 1,019,692,002 yds. worth Rs. 10,41.78 lakhs to 1,010,258,684 yds. worth Rs. 10,21.31 lakhs. Germany was the biggest purchaser of raw jute, and next to her came the United Kingdom and then France. Australia took the largest number of gunny bags, with the United Kingdom a close second. Most of the gunny cloth went to the United States of America.

Dyeing and tanning substances of the aggregate quantity of 499,190 cwts. worth Rs. 29.57 lakhs were exported during the year as against 561,857 cwts. valued at Rs. 32.94 lakhs in the previous year. Smaller demand for Myrobalans were responsible for this decline in the trade. The total quantity of Myrobalans exported during the year was 467,790 cwts. valued at Rs. 25.27 lakhs as against 549,915 cwts. valued at Rs. 29.85 lakhs in the previous year. The United Kingdom was the principal purchaser of this commodity.

Of the articles of minor importance, woollen manufacture showed the marked improvement of Rs. 6.26 lakhs due mainly to a better demand for carpets and rugs from the United Kingdom and the United States of America. Exports of paraffin wax also recovered as the result of large shipments to Portuguese East Africa partly counterbalanced by smaller shipments to China. Shipments of drugs and medicines to Hongkong rose from Rs. 6.99 lakhs to Rs. 13.25 lakhs. The demand from Belgium for bones dropped from Rs. 26.59 lakhs to Rs 13.33 lakhs. Exports of provisions and oilman's stores declined by Rs. 3.67 lakhs mainly due to smaller quantities of *ghi* shipped to the Straits Settlements. Exports of opium due to restricted consumption, dropped to Rs. 11.24 lakhs. Shipments of unmanufactured tobacco, manures, saltpetre and apparel also declined. The value of articles exported by post fell from Rs. 22.1 lakhs to Rs. 18.80 lakhs.

Trade of Chittagong.—Chittagong is the only other port of Bengal open to foreign trade. The total value of imports into this port from foreign countries dropped further from Rs. 82.01 lakhs to Rs. 72.46 lakhs. Imports of Salt mostly from Aden expanded from 27,053 tons to 48,698 tons. Tea chests and chemicals maintained their importance but practically all other articles, particularly galvanized sheets, and plates, wrought iron tubes, etc., cotton goods and railway carriages and wagons, showed substantial decrease. About 75 per cent. of the imports came from the United Kingdom.

Exports from Chittagong to the foreign countries also dropped heavily from Rs. 6,21.93 lakhs to Rs. 3,80.75 lakhs. Although exports of tea increased in quantity from 78 million lbs. to nearly 90 million lbs. but as the prices ruled low, the value realised declined by Rs. 1,83.84 lakhs. Export of jute dropped from 33,395 tons to 18,147 tons and of paraffin from 10,031 tons to 4,950 tons. Approximately 94 per cent. of this trade was with the United Kingdom.

Coasting Trade.—The total value of the trade of Calcutta with other Indian ports, British as well as non-British, was Rs. 27,85.22 lakhs, as compared with Rs. 27,95.77 lakhs in 1931-32. The value of the total imports was Rs. 17,27.62 lakhs against Rs. 17,08.95 lakhs in 1931-32, and exports Rs. 10,57.60 lakhs against Rs. 10,86.82 lakhs.

Imports of grey piece-goods from Bombay advanced from Rs. 3,40 lakhs to Rs. 4,90 lakhs. Imports of wheat, flour and salt from Karachi improved. Imports of raw cotton and manufactured tobacco from Madras improved considerably but those of cotton goods, ground-nuts and cocoanut declined. There was also considerable falling off in the imports of rice, mineral oils and timber from Burma. Imports from non-British Indian ports improved from Rs. 49.44 lakhs to Rs. 69.28 lakhs.

The decline in the exports to Bombay was due to smaller shipments of jute manufactures, paper and tea. There was improvement in the exports of gunny bags, copper and iron. Madras purchased larger quantities of rice and iron but took less coal, paper and gunny bags. Exports to Burma were affected by smaller demands for gunny bags, coal, spices and tobacco. Exports to non-British Indian ports improved considerably from Rs. 18,96 lakhs to Rs. 36,83 lakhs.

Administration.

The present form of administration in Bengal, dates from January 1921. In 1912 the Government of the Province underwent an important change, when, in accordance with the Proclamation of His Majesty the King-Emperor at Delhi, the Province was raised from the status of a Lieutenant-Governor to that of a Governor-in-Council, thus bringing it into line with the Presidencies of Madras and Bombay. In 1921, under the Reform Scheme, the Local Government was reconstituted, certain of the departments being placed under the control of Ministers appointed from among elected members of the Legislative Council. There are normally four members of the Executive Council who are in charge of the "reserved subjects", and three Ministers, who are in charge of the "transferred subjects."

Bengal is administered by five Commissioners, the divisions being those of the Presidency Burdwan, Rajshahi, Dacca and Chittagong. The unit of administration is the District Magistrate and Collector. As Collector he supervises the ingathering of the revenue and is the head of all the Departments connected with it, while as District Magistrate he is responsible for the administration of criminal justice in the district. The immediate superior of the District Magistrate is the Divisional Commissioner. Commissioners are the channels of communication between the local officers and the Government. In certain revenue matters they are, in their turn, subject to the Board of Revenue in Calcutta; in other matters they are under the direct control of Government.

Justice.

The administration of justice is entrusted to the High Court of Calcutta which consists of the Chief Justice who is a Barrister and 15 Puisne Judges including one additional judge who are Barristers, Civilians or Vakils. Below the High Court are the District and Additional Judges, the Small Causes Court and Subordinate Judges and Munsifs. Of these officers, the District and Additional Judges and a certain number of Subordinate Judges are also endowed with the powers of a Criminal Court while the remainder have jurisdiction in Civil matters only. Criminal Justice is administered by the High Court, the Courts of Session and the Courts of the various classes of Magistrates On its appellate side, the High Court disposes of appeals from the order of a Court of Session, and it also confirms, modifies or annuls sentences of death passed by Sessions Courts. Calcutta has six Stipendiary Presidency Magistrates, including one temporary Additional Magistrate in charge of the Traffic Court. One of the Presidency Magistrates is in charge of the Children's Court, is helped by Hony. Women Magistrates. It has also two Municipal Magistrates and it possesses a Court of Small Causes with Judges who dispose of cases of the class that are usually heard in County Courts in England.

In addition a number of Union Benches and Courts have been established in selected rural areas for the disposal by honorary agency of petty criminal cases and civil disputes.

Local Self-Government.

By Bengal Act III of 1884, and its subsequent amendments, which hitherto regulated municipal bodies in the interior, the powers of Commissioner of municipalities were increased and the elective franchise was extended. Bengal Act III of 1884 was repealed by Act XV of 1932 by which material changes have been introduced, *e.g.*, the franchise of the electors have been further widened, women have been enfranchised, the proportion of elected commissioners has been increased and the term of office of the Commissioner has been extended from three to four years. Municipal expenditure now comprises a large number of objects, including veterinary institutions, employment of health officers, vaccinators and sanitary inspectors, the training and employment of female medical practitioners, the provision of model dwelling houses for the working classes, the holding of industrial, sanitary and health exhibitions and the improvement of breed of cattle. The Commissioners also have large powers in regard to the water supply and the regulation of buildings.

The Municipal Government of Calcutta is governed by Act III of 1923. This Act, which replaces Act III of 1899, makes the Corporation paramount in matters relating to municipal administration. The Act provides for the appointment of a Mayor, who replaces the chairman of the old Act, a Deputy Mayor, and Executive Officer, and Deputy Executive officers, all elected by the Corporation. The appointment of the Chief Executive Officer is subject to the approval of Government. The total number of councillors, after the enactment of the Calcutta Municipal (Second Amendment Act, 1932, is 91 with 5 Aldermen elected by the Councillors. Of the 91 seats, 81 are elected, of which 21 are reserved for Muhammadans. Ten of the councillors are nominated by Government and the rest elected by the general or special constituencies. In order to improve the insanitary and congested areas of the city, the Calcutta Improvement Trust has been created with extensive powers. In the mofussil, district and local boards exercise considerable powers, with regard to public works, education and medical relief.

Bengal Act V of 1919 introduces the new system of self-government by the creation of village authorities vested with the powers and duties necessary for the management of village affairs and entrusted with powers of self-taxation. The new village authority, called the union board, replaces gradually the old chaukidari panchayats and the union committees and deals with the village police, village roads, water supply, sanitation, primary schools and dispensaries. The Act also empowers Government to create out of the members of the union boards, village benches and courts for the trial of petty criminal and civil cases arising within the union. The Act has been extended to all districts in the Presidency except Midnapore and up to March 1933 over 4,701 Union Boards were actually constituted.

Public Works.

The Public Works Department consists of Public Works and Railway Departments and is under the charge of Secretary to Government in the Department of Agriculture and Industries,

The Public Works Department deals with questions regarding the construction of public buildings and roads.

The Railway Department deals with questions regarding acquisition of lands required by the several Railways, the alignment of new lines of Railways, and with Tramway projects.

There is a Chief Engineer who is the principal professional adviser of Government.

Marine.

The Marine Department deals with questions connected with the administration of the port of Calcutta and inland navigation, including the control and administration of Government launches except the police launches, and the Government Dockyard, Narayanganj.

Irrigation.

The Irrigation Department deals with irrigation, navigation, flood protection by means of embankments and drainage, the latter including relief from congestion of drainage by regulating the available supplies of water to suit the requirements of agriculture combined with the supply of water for irrigation in cases in which a supply is available.

Police.

The Bengal Police force comprises the Military Police, the District Police, the Railway Police, and the River Police. The Bengal Police are under the control of the Inspector-General of Police, the present Inspector-General being a member of the Imperial Police Service. Under him are Deputy Inspectors-General for the Dacca Range, the Rajshahi range, the Presidency range, the Burdwan range and the Bakarganj range and also one Deputy Inspector-General in Charge of the C.I.D. and the Intelligence Branch. Each district is in charge of a Superintendent, and some of the more important districts have one or more Additional Superintendents. The Railway Police is divided into three distinct charges, each under a Superintendent. The River Police is also under a Superintendent. The cadre comprises Assistant Superintendents, Deputy Superintendents, Inspectors, Sub-Inspectors, Sergeants, Assistant Sub-Inspectors, head constables and constables. There is also a Village Police, composed of daffadars and chowkidars, who receive a monthly salary which is collected from the villages or unions by the Panchayat or Union Board. There is a training college and school at Sardah in the district of Rajshahi where newly appointed officers and men of the Bengal Police learn their duties. The Calcutta City Police is a separate force maintained by Government under a Commissioner who is responsible direct to Government. The Commissioner has under him Deputy Commissioners, Assistant Commissioners, Inspectors, Sub-Inspectors, Sergeants, Assistant Sub-Inspectors, head constables and constables. A school for the training of recruits for the Calcutta Police force has been established at Calcutta. The annual cost of the Police is over 277 lakhs.

The head of the Medical Department is the Surgeon General with the Government of Bengal. In the districts the Civil Surgeons are responsible for medical work. There are 44 hospitals and dispensaries in Calcutta, 11 of which are supported by the Government and 801,150 persons were treated at these institutions of whom 55,063 were in-patients. In the Mofussil districts there are 1,178 hospitals and dispensaries, the number of patients treated in them as well as in several huts, fairs, melas, subsidised and temporary dispensaries and in various medical centres was 9,190,434. This includes 82,847 in-patients.

Education.

In the Presidency of Bengal education is imparted partly through Government agency and partly through private bodies, assisted to some extent by Government grants-in-aid. Government maintains four Arts Colleges in Calcutta (of which one is a college for women, one is for Mahomedans and one the Sanskrit College), one at Hughli, one at Krishnagar, three, including the Islamic Inter College, at Dacca, one at Rajshahi and one at Chittagong. It also maintains two training colleges, one at Calcutta and one at Dacca, for teachers who teach in secondary schools through the medium of English, and 5 normal schools, one in each division, for the training of teachers in secondary schools who teach through the medium of the vernacular: also an engineering college at Sibpur and an engineering school at Dacca, two medical colleges, a veterinary college, a school of art and a commercial school in Calcutta, and a weaving school at Serampore. It also provides at the headquarters of all districts except Burdwan and Midnapore, and also at certain other mofussil centres, English high schools for the education of boys, while to some Government Arts Colleges high schools are attached. In Calcutta there are five Government high schools for boys, two of which are attached to the Presidency College and one to the Sanskrit College. Government high schools for girls exist only in the headquarters stations of Calcutta, Dacca, Mymensingh, Comilla and Chittagong. The other secondary schools, with the exception of a few middle schools managed either by Government or by municipal and district boards, are under private control. The administration of primary education in all areas, which are not under municipalities, rests with the district boards, grants being given from provincial revenues to the boards, which contribute only slightly from their own funds. Only in backward localities are such schools either entirely managed, or directly aided, by Government. Apart from the institutions referred to above, 80 institutions called Guru Training Schools are maintained by the Department for the training of primary school teachers. For the education of Mahomedans, there are senior Madrasas at Calcutta, Dacca, Chittagong, Hughli and Rajshahi which are managed by Government. There are also certain Government institutions for technical and industrial education. All institutions for technical and industrial education (except B. E. College, the Ahsanullah School of Engineering, Dacca, the Government Commercial Institute and the Government School of Art, Calcutta) are now under the control of the Director of Industries. A large proportion of educational work of every grade is under the control of various missionary bodies, which are assisted by Government grants-in-aid.

The municipalities are required to expend a certain proportion of their ordinary income on education. They are mainly responsible for primary education within their jurisdiction, but schools in these areas are eligible also for grants from Government. These bodies maintain a high school at Burdwan, a high school at Santipur a high school at Kushtia and a high school at Chittagong.

In 1931-32 there were in the Presidency :—

RECOGNISED INSTITUTIONS FOR MALES.

	Institutions.	Scholars.
Universities	2	1,857
Arts Colleges	45	20,359
Professional Colleges ..	15	5,040
High Schools	1,122	269,309
Middle Schools	1,864	161,599
Primary Schools ..	44,643	1,725,385
Special Schools	2,818	119,103

RECOGNISED INSTITUTIONS FOR FEMALES.

Arts Colleges	6	508
Professional Colleges ..	3	53
High Schools	64	16,285
Middle Schools	71	8,882
Primary Schools ..	18,076	466,745
Special Schools	44	2,162

UNRECOGNISED SCHOOLS.

Males	1,243	51,327
Females	311	11,377

The Department is administered by a Director of Public Instruction, assisted by an Assistant Director, a special officer appointed temporarily, an Assistant Director for Muhammadan Education and a Director of Physical Education. Each division is in charge of a Divisional Inspector assisted by a certain number of Additional or Second Inspector and Assistant Inspectors for Mahommedan Education according to the requirements of the several divisions. Similarly the administrative charge of the primary education of each district is in the hands of a District Inspector assisted by Sub-Divisional Inspectors and Sub-Inspectors of Schools, the latter class of officers being in some instances helped by officers of humbler status called Assistant Sub-Inspectors and Inspecting Pandits and Maulvis. High education is controlled by the Universities of Calcutta and Dacca established in 1857 and 1921, respectively administered by the Chancellor (the Governor of Bengal), the Vice-Chancellor (appointed by Government) and a number of ex-officio, elected and nominated fellows. The University of Calcutta maintains a Law College, called University Law College, Calcutta. Dacca University also has a Law Department attached to it. Calcutta University is mainly an examining body, but it has now made itself responsible for advanced teaching for which purpose it employs an agency which is mainly distinct from the staffs of the affiliated Colleges.

The percentage of scholars to the total populations :—

	Recognised Schools.	All Schools.
Males	8.46	8.66
Females	2.46	2.52
Total ..	5.58	5.71

The University at Dacca is of the residential type. There is a Board for Secondary and Intermediate Education at Dacca. It conducts the Matriculation and Intermediate Examinations for the students of Institutions at Dacca and also the Islamic Matriculations and Intermediate Examinations.

The Education of Europeans is mainly conducted by private agency, assisted by Government grants. Government however maintain a special Inspector, and also a school for boys, a school for girls (both residential) at Kurseong, and attached to the latter a Training College (for women only).

THE FINANCES OF BENGAL.

Estimated Revenue for 1933-34.

The figures are in Thousands of Rs.

Heads of Revenue.	Sanctioned Estimate 1932-33.	Sanctioned Estimate 1933-34.
	Rs.	Rs.
Salt	6,00	5,50
Land Revenue	3,15,69	3,12,38
Excise	1,68,00	1,39,00
Stamps	2,95,00	2,85,50
Forest	18,00	15,50
Registration	20,25	19,00

Estimated Revenue for 1933-34—contd.

The figures are in Thousands of Rs.

Heads of Revenue.	Sanctioned Estimate 1932-33.	Sanctioned Estimate 1933-34.
	Rs.	Rs.
Scheduled Taxes ..	14,00	11,80
Subsidised Companies ..	92	30
Irrigation, Navigation, Embankment and Drainage Works for which Capital Accounts are kept	—5,06	—1,86

THE FINANCES OF BENGAL—*contd.*

Estimated Revenue for 1933-34—contd.

The figures are in Thousands of Rs.

Heads of Revenue	Sanctioned Estimate 1932-33.	Sanctioned Estimate 1933-34.
	Rs.	Rs.
Irrigation, Navigation, Embankment and Drainage Works for which no Capital Accounts are kept ..	2,36	1,79
Interest	4,71	4,31
Administration of Justice.	10,00	13,91
Jails and Conviet Settlements	7,65	7,90
Police	11,54	10,93
Ports and Pilotage ..	73	91
Education	13,74	13,52
Medical	10,87	10,25
Public Health	1,45	1,38
Agriculture	6,71	6,21
Industries	7,03	8,03
Miscellaneous Departments	3,19	13,56
Civil Works	22,50	14,38
Transfer from Famine Relief Funds	71	56
Receipts in aid of Superannuation	1,36	1,28
Stationery and Printing	4,88	5,25
Miscellaneous	9,44	9,14
Miscellaneous Adjustments between Central and Provincial Governments	..	..

Estimated Revenue for 1933-34—contd.

The figures are in Thousands of Rs.

Heads of Revenue	Sanctioned Estimate 1932-33.	Sanctioned Estimate 1933-34.
	Rs.	Rs.
Extraordinary receipts ..	1,16	1,09
Receipts in England ..	1	1
Total Revenue receipts	9,52,84	9,11,53
Famine Relief Fund ..	69	57
Deposit Account—Imperial Council of Agricultural Research	62	49
Depreciation Fund for Government presses ..	1,15	1,00
Advances from Provincial Loans Fund, Government of India ..	15,83 1,59,51	22,53 2,09,66
Appropriation for Reduction or Avoidance of Debt	9,18	9,30
Subvention from Central Road Development Account	6,50	13,70
Suspense	6,10	5,30
Recoveries of loans and advances by the Government of Bengal.	10,84	15,92
Total Receipts on Capital Account	2,10,42	2,78,47
Total	11,63,26	11,90,00
Total Opening balance ..	21,48	12,78
Grand Total	11,84,74	12,02,78

ESTIMATED EXPENDITURE FOR 1933-34.

The figures are in Thousands of Rs.

Heads of Revenue.	Sanctioned Estimate 1932-33	Sanctioned Estimate 1933-34.
	Rs.	Rs.
Land Revenue	41,25	40,23
Excise	17,80	17,77
Stamps	5,38	4,82
Forest	16,13	15,84
Forest capital outlay charged to Revenue ..	1,20	48
Registration	18,99	18,32
Scheduled taxes	15	5

The figures are in Thousands of Rs.

Heads of Revenue.	Sanctioned Estimate 1932-33.	Saanctioned Estimate 1933-34.
	Rs.	Rs.
Interest on works for which capital accounts are kept	18,24	18 81
Irrigation—Other Revenue expenditure financed from ordinary revenues..	11,37	14,68
Irrigation,—Other Revenue expenditure financed from Famine Relief Grants ..	..	..
Construction of Irrigation, Navigation, Embankment and Drainage works	..	—1

ESTIMATED EXPENDITURE FOR 1933-34—contd.

The figures are in Thousands of Rs.

Heads of Revenue.	Sanctioned Estimate 1932-33. Rs.	Sanctioned Estimate 1933-34. Rs.
Interest on ordinary debt..	5,76	11,04
Interest on other obligations	1	3
Reduction or Avoidance of Debt	9,18	9,30
General Administration ..	1,18,80	1,22,49
Administration of Justice..	97,35	98,14
Jails and Convict Settlements	50,51	50,01
Police	2,20,85	2,27,37
Ports and Pilotage.. ..	4,85	4,78
Scientific Departments ..	29	30
Education { Reserved ..	12,71	12,54
Education { Transferred ..	1,16,46	1,15,75
Medical	51,88	50,71
Public Health	39,84	39,77
Agriculture	24,80	24,83
Industries	11,38	12 05
Miscellaneous Departments.	2,12	2,01
Civil Works..	85,56	81,35
Famine Relief	1,30	56
Superannuation Allowances and Pensions	49,40	53,60
Commutation of pensions financed from ordinary revenues	8,00	..
Stationery and Printing ..	21,17	20,52
Miscellaneous	11,61	21,29
Expenditure in England ..	37,77	41,20
Total expenditure from ordinary revenue ..	11,12,20	11,30,63

The figures are in Thousands of Rs.

Heads of Revenue.		Sanctioned Estimate 1932-33. Rs.	Sanctioned Estimate 1933-34. Rs.
Forest capital outlay not charged to Revenue— In England		..	..
Construction of Irrigation, Navigation, Embankment and Drainage works not charged to Revenue ..	In India	14,71	13,24
	In England	16	20
Civil works not charged to Revenue	In India	2,41	1,80
	In England	..	..
Commuted value of pension (not charged to revenue)		..	6,50
Famine Relief Fund ..		71	56
Deposit Account—Imperial Council of Agricultural Research		68	49
Depreciation Fund for Government presses ..		21	1,41
Repayments to the Government of India of Advances from Provincial Loans Fund ..		9,18	9,30
Subvention from Central Road Development Account		15,98	8,64
Suspense		6,15	5,20
Loans and Advances by the Government of Bengal ..		10,35	12,02
Total expenditure on Capital account		60,54	59,36
Total expenditure		11,72,74	11,89,99
Closing balance in Famine Relief Fund		12,00	12,79
Other closing balances ..		..	..
Total closing balance ..		12,00	12,79
GRAND TOTAL ..		11,84,74	12,02,78

Administration.

GOVERNOR AND PRESIDENT IN COUNCIL.

His Excellency The Right Hon. Sir John Anderson, P.C., G.C.B., G.C.I.E.

PERSONAL STAFF.

Private Secretary, J. D. Tyson, C.B.E., I.C.S.

Military Secretary, Colonel R. B. Butler, C.B.E., M.C.

Honorary Physicians:—Lt.-Col. J. D. Sandes, I.M.S., Civil Surgeon of Darjeeling.

Aide-de-Camp, Capt. L. H. Methuan, O.B.E., M.C., The Argyle and Sutherland Highlanders. Lieut. A. P. Sykes, The King's Royal Rifle Corps. Lieut. E. W. H. Worrall, The Somerset Light Infantry.

Hony. Aide-de-Camp:—
Sardar Bahadur S. W. Lad Su La, C.B.E.
Lieut.-Col. A. H. Bishop, Mc. V.D., Commanding The Calcutta Presidency Battalion.
Lieut.-Col. J. A. Polewhele, V.D., Commanding Northern Bengal Mounted Rifles.
Captain L. W. R. T. Turbelt, O.B.E., R.I.M., Principal Officer, Mercantile Marine Dept.
Lieut.-Col. W. R. Elliot, M.C., Commanding the Calcutta Scottish.

Indian Aide-de-Camp, Risaldar Ishar Singh, Hudson's Horse.

Hony. Indian Aide-de-Camp, Honorary Lieut. Gobordhan Gurung, Subedar Major, Late of 2-10th Gurkha Rifles.

Commandant, H. E. The Governor's Body Guard:—Captain T. M. Lunham, Poona Horse 17th Queen Victoria's Own Cavalry).

ADMINISTRATION—*contd.*

Members of Council.

The Hon. Sir Charu C. Ghosb, Kt.

The Hon. Alhadj Sir Abdelkerim Ghuznavi, Kt.

The Hon. Mr. R. N. Reid, C.S.I., C.I.E., I.C.S.

The Hon. Mr. J. A. Woodhead, C.I.E., I.C.S

Ministers.

The Hon. Mr. Khwaja Nazimuddin, C.I.E. (Education).

The Hon. Nawab Kazi Ghulam Mohiuddin Faroqui, Khan Bahadur (Public Works and Industries).

The Hon. Mr. Bijoy Prasad Singh Roy.

(Local Self-Government).

Bengal Legislative Council.

The Hon. Raja Sir Manmatha Nath Ray Chaudhuri, Kt., of Santosh (President).

Mr. Razur Rahman Khan, B.L. (Dy. President).

Secretariat.

Chief Secretary to Government, G. P. Hogg, C.I.E., I.C.S.

Secretary, Revenue Department, O. M. Martin, I.C.S.

Secretary, Finance, Commerce and Marine Departments, D. Gladding, I.C.S.

Secretary, Legislative Department, G. G. Hooper, I.C.S.

Secretary, Agriculture and Industries, J. D. V. Hodge, I.C.S.

Secretary, L. S. G. Dept., G. S. Dutt, I.C.S.

Secretary, Judicial Department, N. G. A. Edgley, I.C.S.

Secretary, Education Department, H. R. Wilkinson, C.I.E., I.C.S.

Miscellaneous Appointments.

Member, Board of Revenue—F. A. Sachse, C.I.E., I.C.S.

Director of Public Instruction, J. M. Boltomby M.A., I.E.S.

Inspector-General of Police, T. J. A. Craig.

Commissioner, Calcutta Police, L. H. Colson.

Surgeon-General, Col. D. P. Goil, I.M.S.

Collector of Customs, Calcutta, G. N. Bower, B.A.

Commissioner of Excise and Salt, S. K. Haldar, I.C.S.

Accountant-General, J. C. Nixon, I.C.S., C.I.E.

Inspector-General of Prisons, Lt.-Col. R. E. Flowerdew, I.M.S.

Postmaster-General, M. L. Pasricha, C.I.E.

Inspector-General of Registration, Khan Bahadur Shamsuddin Ahmad, B.L.

Director of Agriculture, G. P. Heetor, M.A., D.S.C.I.

Protector of Emigrants, Lt.-Col. Arthur Denham White, I.M.S., M.D.

Superintendent, Royal Botanic Garden, Calcutta, C. C. Calder.

Labour Commissioner, R. N. Gilchrist, M.A., I.E.S.

Curator of Herbarium, Royal Botanic Gardens, Kalipada Biswas.

Lieutenant-Governors of Bengal.

Frederick J. Halliday	1854
John P. Grant	1859
Cecil Beadon	1862
William Grey	1867
George Campbell	1871
Sir Richard Temple, Bart., K.C.S.I. ..	1874
The Hon. Ashley Eden, C.S.I.	1877
Sir Steuart C. Bayley, K.C.S.I. (*Offg.*) ..	1879
A. Rivers Thompson, C.S.I., C.I.E. ..	1882
H. A. Cockerell, C.S.I. (*Officiating*) ..	1885
Sir Steuart C. Bayley, K.C.S.I., C.I.E. ..	1887
Sir Charles Alfred Elliott, K.C.S.I. ..	1890
Sir A. P. MacDonnell, K.C.S.I. (*Offg.*) ..	1893
Sir Alexander Mackenzie, K.C.S.I. Retired 6th April 1898. ..	1895
Charles Cecil Stevens, C.S.I. (*Offg.*) ..	1897
Sir John Woodburn, K.C.S.I. Died, 21st November 1902.	1898
J. A. Bourdillon, C.S.I. (*Officiating*) ..	1902
Sir A. H. Leith Fraser, K.C.S.I.	1903
Lancelot Hare, C.S.I., C.I.E. (*Offg.*) ..	1906
F. A. Slacke (*Officiating*)	1906
Sir E. N. Baker, K.C.S.I. .. .. .. Retired 21st September 1911.	1908
F. W. Duke, C.S.I. (*Officiating*)	1911

The Office of Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal was abolished on April 1st, 1912, when Bengal was raised to a Governorship.

Governors of the Presidency of Fort William in Bengal.

The Rt. Hon. Baron Carmichael of Skirling, G.C.I.E., K.C.M.G. ..	1912
The Rt. Hon. Earl of Ronaldshay, G.C.I.E.	1917
The Rt. Hon. Lord Lytton	1922
The Rt. Hon. Sir Stanley Jackson, P.C., G.C.I.E.	1927
The Rt. Hon. Sir John Anderson, P.C., G.C.B., G.C.I.E.	1932

BENGAL LEGISLATIVE COUNCIL.

The Hon'ble Raja Sir Manmatha Nath Ray Chaudhuri, Kt., of Santosh, *President.*
Razur Rahman Khan, B.L., *Deputy President.*
Secretary: Mr. J. W. McKay, I.S.O. *Asst. Secretary*: Mr. K. Ali Afzal, Bar-at-Law.

MEMBERS OF THE EXECUTIVE COUNCIL.

Ex-officio—

The Hon'ble Sir Provash Chunder Mitter, Kt., C.I.E.
" " Alhadj Sir Abdelkerim Ghuznavi, Kt.
" " Mr. J. A. Woodhead, C.I.E., I.C.S.
" " Mr. R. N. Reid, C.I.E., I.C.S.

MINISTERS.

" " Nawab K. G. M. Faroqui, Khan Bahadur.
" " Mr. Khwaja Nazimuddin, M.A. (Cantab.), Bar-at-Law, C.I.E.
" " Sir Bijoy Prasad Singh Roy, KT.

Official Nominated Members—

Mr. G. P. Hogg, C.I.E.
Mr. W. H. Nelson.
Mr. D. Gladding.
Mr. N. G. A. Edgley.
Mr. H. P. V. Townend.
Mr. L. R. Fawcus.
Mr. H. C. V. Philpot.
Mr. H. R. Wilkinson, C.I.E.
Mr. B. R. Sen.
Mr. R. N. Gilchrist
Mr. S. N. Roy, C.I.E. (No. 1.)
Mr. J. M. Bottomley.
Mr. S. C. Mitter.
Mr. G. G. Hooper.

Nominated Non-Officials—

Rev. B. A. Nag.
Rai Sahib Rebati Mohan Sarkar.
K. C. Ray Chaudhuri.
Maulvi Latafat Hussain.
D. J. Cohen.
Khan Bahadur Maulvi Hafizar Rahman Chaudhuri.
P. N. Guha.
Mukunda Behary Mullick.

Elected Members.

Name of Members.	Name of Constituency.
Babu Jatindra Nath Basu	Calcutta North (Non-Muhammadan).
Mr. S. M. Bose, Bar-at-Law	Calcutta East (Non-Muhammadan).
Seth Hunuman Prosad Poddar	Calcutta West (Non-Muhammadan).
Rai Dr. Haridhan Dutt Bahadur	Calcutta Central (Non-Muhammadan).
Sir Hari Sankar Paul	Calcutta South Central (Non-Muhammadan).
Dr. Sir Nilratan Sircar, Kt., M.D.	Calcutta South (Non-Muhammadan).
Munindra Deb, Rai Mahasai	Hooghly Municipal (Non-Muhammadan).
Dr. Amulya Ratan Ghose	Howrah Municipal (Non-Muhammadan).
Babu Satyendra Nath Roy	24-Parganas Municipal, North (Non-Muhammadan).
Rai Jogesh Chandra Sen Bahadur	24-Parganas Municipal, South (Non-Muhammadan).
Babu Prafulla Kumar Guha	Dacca City (Non-Muhammadan).
Mr. Saileswar Singh Roy	Burdwan North (Non-Muhammadan).
Babu Jitendralal Bannerjee	Birbhum (Non-Muhammadan).
Mr. J. N. Gupta, C.I.E., M.B.E.	Bankura West (Non-Muhammadan).
Babu Satya Kinkar Sahana	Bankura East (Non-Muhammadan).
Babu Hoseni Rout	Midnapore North (Non-Muhammadan).
Mr. R. Maiti, Bar-at-Law	Midnapore South (Non-Muhammadan).
Rai Sahib Sarat Chandra Mukhopadhaya	Midnapore South-East (Non-Muhammadan).
Rai Satish Chandra Mukharji Bahadur	Hooghly Rural (Non-Muhammadan).
Babu Haribansa Roy	Howrah Rural (Non-Muhammadan).
Babu Sarat Chandra Mittra	24-Parganas Rural Central (Non-Muhammadan).
Mr. P. Banerji	24-Parganas Rural South (Non-Muhammadan).
Rai Debendra Nath Ballabh Bahadur	24-Parganas Rural North (Non-Muhammadan).

Name of Members.	Name of Constituency.
Mr. Narendra Kumar Basu	Nadia (Non-Muhammadan).
Srijut Taj Bahadur Singh	Murshidabad (Non-Muhammadan).
Babu Amulyadhan Roy	Jessore South (Non-Muhammadan).
Babu Jitendra Nath Roy	Jessore North (Non-Muhammadan).
Babu Suk Lal Nag	Khulna (Non-Muhammadan).
Rai Keshab Chandra Banarji Bahadur	Dacca Rural (Non-Muhammadan).
Dr. Naresh Chandra Sen Gupta	Mymensingh West (Non-Muhammadan).
Babu Satish Chandra Ray Chowdhuri, B.L. ..	Mymensingh East (Non-Muhammadan).
Rai Sahib Akshoy Kumar Sen	Faridpur North (Non-Muhammadan).
Mr. Sarat Chandra Bal	Faridpur South (Non-Muhammadan).
Mr. B. C. Chatterjee, Bar-at-Law	Bakarganj North (Non-Muhammadan).
Babu Lalit Kumar Bal	Bakarganj South (Non-Muhammadan).
Rai Kamini Kumar Das Bahadur, M.B.E. ..	Chittagong (Non-Muhammadan).
Babu Khetter Mohan Ray	Tippera (Non-Muhammadan).
Babu Hem Chandra Roy Choudhuri	Noakhali (Non-Muhammadan).
Babu Kishori Mohan Chaudhuri	Rajshahi (Non-Muhammadan).
Vacant	Dinajpur (Non-Muhammadan).
Rai Sahib Panchanan Barma, M.B.E.	Rangpur West (Non-Muhammadan).
Babu Nagendra Narayan Ray, B.L.	Rangpur East (Non-Muhammadan).
Dr. Jogendra Chandra Chaudhuri	Bogra *cum* Pabna (Non-Muhammadan).
Mr. Shanti Shekhareswar Roy	Malda (Non-Muhammadan).
Mr. Prosanna Deb Raikat	Jalpaiguri (Non-Muhammadan).
Mr. A. Raheem, C.I.E.	Calcutta North (Muhammadan).
Mr. H. S. Suhrawardy, M.A. (Oxon and Cal.), B.Sc., B.C.L. (Oxon), Barrister-at-Law.	Calcutta South (Muhammadan).
Maulvi Shaik Rahim Baksh	Hooghly *cum* Howrah Municipal (Muhammadan).
Maulvi Muhammad Solaiman	Barrackpore Municipal (Muhammadan).
Maulvi Muhammad Sadatullah	24-Parganas Municipal (Muhammadan).
Nawabzada Khwaja Muhammad Afzul, Khan Bahadur.	Dacca City (Muhammadan).
Maulvi Abul Kasem	Burdwan Division North (Muhammadan).
Maulvi Abdul Karim	Burdwan Division South (Muhammadan).
Mr. A. F. M. Abdur Rahman	24-Parganas Rural (Muhammadan).
Khan Bahadur Maulvi Azizul Haque	Nadia (Muhammadan).
Maulvi Abdus Samad	Murshidabad (Muhammadan).
Maulvi Syed Majid Baksh	Jessore North (Muhammadan).
Maulvi Syed Nausher Ali	Jessore South (Muhammadan).
Maulvi Abdul Quasam, M.A., B.L.	Khulna (Muhammadan).
Maulvi Abdul Ghani Chowdhury, B.L.	Dacca West Rural (Muhammadan).
Maulvi Azizur Rahman	Mymensingh North-West (Muhammadan).
Maulvi Nur Rahman Khan Eusufji	Mymensingh South-West (Muhammadan).
Maulvi Abdul Hamid Shah	Mymensingh East (Muhammadan).
Maulvi Abdul Hakim	Mymensingh Central (Muhammadan).
Khan Bahadur Maulvi Alimuzzaman Chaudhuri.	Faridpur North (Muhammadan).
Maulvi Tamizuddin Khan	Faridpur South (Muhammadan).
Maulvi Muhammad Hossain	Bakarganj North (Muhammadan).
Mr. A. K. Fazl-ul Huq	Bakarganj West (Muhammadan).

Name of Members.	Name of Constituency.
Maulvi Nural Absar Choudhury	Chittagong North (Muhammadan).
Haji Badi Ahmed Choudhury	Chittagong South (Muhammadan).
Maulvi Syed Osman Haidar Chaudhury.. ..	Tippera North (Muhammadan).
Khan Bahadur Muhammad Abdul Momin ..	Noakhali East (Muhammadan).
Maulvi Muhammad Fazlullah	Noakhali West (Muhammadan).
Maulvi Mohammed Basiruddin	Rajshahi North (Muhammadan).
Haji Lalli Mohammed	Rajshahi South (Muhammadan).
Maulvi Hassan Ali	Dinajpur (Muhammadan).
Mr. A. F. Rahman	Rangpur West (Muhammadan).
Kazi Emdadul Hoque	Rangpur East (Muhammadan).
Mr. Altaf Ali	Bogra (Muhammadan).
Khan Sahib Maulvi Muazzam Ali Khan ..	Pabna (Muhammadan).
Nawab Musharruf Hosain, Khan Bahadur ..	Malda *cum* Jalpaiguri (Muhammadan).
Mr. C. G. Ashworth	Presidency and Burdwan (European).
,, W. L. Armstrong	Do.
,, A. R. E. Lockhart	Do.
,, J. W. R. Steven	Dacca and Chittagong (European).
,, R. H. Ferguson	Rajshahi (European).
,, L. T. Maguire	Anglo-Indian.
,, E. T. McCluskie	Do.
Raja Bhupendra Narayan Sinha Bahadur, of Mashipur.	Burdwan Landholders.
Mr. Sarat Kumar Roy	Presidency Landholders.
Mr. Arun Chandra Singha..	Chittagong Landholders.
Kumar Sahib Shekhareswar Ray..	Rajshahi Landholders.
Mr. Syamaprosad Mookerjee, Bar-at-Law ..	Calcutta University.
Rai Shashanka Kumar Ghosh Bahadur, C.I.E. ..	Dacca University.
Mr. H. H. Burn	Bengal Chamber of Commerce.
,, W. H. Thompson	Do.
,, C. R. Sumner	Do.
,, H. Birkmyre	Do.
,, C. C. Miller	Do.
,, G. R. Dain, C.I.E.	Do.
G. A. Mason	Indian Jute Mills Association.
,, W. A. M. Walker	Do.
,, C. K. Nicholl	Indian Tea Association.
,, J. B Ross	Indian Mining Association.
,, H. R. Norton	Calcutta Trades Association.
,, Surendra Nath Law	Bengal National Chamber of Commerce.
Maharaja Sris Chandra Nandy, of Kasimbazar..	Do.
Rai Badridas Goenka Bahadur, C.I.E.	Bengal Marwari Association.
Mr. Ananda Mohan Poddar	Bengal Mahajan Sabha.
,, J. B. Kindersley	Expert—Bengal Cess (Amendment) Bill, 1933.
Rai Mahendra Nath Gupta Bahadur	Do.
Rai Shailendra Nath Banarji Bahadur ..	Expert—Bengal Water-ways Bill, 1933.

The United Provinces.

The United Provinces of Agra and Oudh lie in practically the centre of Upper India. They are bounded on the north by Tibet, on the north-east by Nepal, on the east and south-east by Bihar, on the south by two of the Chota-Nagpur States of the Central India Agency and the Saugor district of the Central Provinces, and on the west by the States of Gwalior, Dholpur, Bharatpur, Sirmoor, and Jubbal, and by the Punjab. Their total area amounts to 106,248 square miles, to which may be added the area of the three Indian States of Rampur, Tehri-Garhwal and Benares with an area of 5,943 square miles, giving a total of 112,191 square miles. The total population is 49,614,833.

The Provinces, originally termed the North-Western Provinces and so amalgamated in 1877, receiving their present designation in 1902, include four distinct tracts of country: portions of the Himalayas, including the Kumaon division which consists of three hill districts, two of which are entirely in the hills and one is half in the submontane belt, the sub-Himalayan tract; the great Gangetic plain, and portions of the hill systems of Central India including Bundelkhand. The Gangetic plain is protected by an extensive Canal system, which though somewhat liable to run short of water in extremely dry years, is of great benefit in all ordinary years and years of limited drought. The first two of these tracts are fertile and support a very sparse population and the Central Indian plateau is almost equally infertile, though better populated. The soil of the Gangetic plain, however, possesses an extreme fertility and here the density of population varies from 542 persons per square mile in the west to 555 in the centre and 753 in the east, which gives the Provinces as a whole a greater population pressure on the soil than any other Province in India save Delhi and Bengal. In the south there are low rocky hills, broken spurs of the Vindhyan mountains, covered with stunted trees and jungle, and in the north the lower slopes of the Himalayas, clothed with dense forest, affording excellent big and small game shooting, and rising beyond in a tangled mass of ridges, ever higher and higher, until is reached the line of the eternal snows, but the greater part of the provinces consists of level plain, teeming with highly-cultivated fields and watered by three rivers—the Ganges, Jumna, and Gogra.

The People.

The population is mainly Hindu, 84.4 per cent. ranking as such whilst Mahomedans number 15 per cent., the total of all other religions being 0.6 per cent. composed of Christians (Europeans and Indians), Jains, Sikhs, Parsis, Buddhists and Jews. Included among the Hindus are the Arya Samajists, followers of the Arya Samaj sect, which obtains widely in the Punjab and has extended its influence to the United Provinces. The three main physical types are Dravidian, Aryan and Mongoloid, the latter being confined to the Himalayan and sub-Himalayan districts and the former to South Mirzapur and Bundelkhand, whilst the high-caste Aryans frequent the Western districts of the Provinces. Most of the people, however, show a mixed Arya-Dravidian origin. Three languages are spoken by the great majority of the people in the plains—Western Hindi, Eastern Hindi and Bihari; Urdu, or Hindustani is a dialect of Western Hindi, though it contains a large admixture of Persian and Arabic words, which makes it a *lingua franca*.

Industries.

The chief industry is agriculture, which is the principal source of livelihood of 71.1 per cent. of the population and a subsidiary source of income to a further 8.2 per cent. The soils of the Provinces fall into three groups: the valley soils of the Himalayas, the main alluvium and the Central Indian alluvium; the chief characteristic soil or the Central Indian alluvium is the black soil, with a lighter variant, though here also there are light loams and gravel. The Himalayan soils are of local origin and vary with the nature of the rock from which they have been formed, whilst the main alluvium soils are sand, clay and loam, the loam being naturally the most productive. The soil generally yields excellent crop of rice, millet, maize, linseed, cotton, wheat, sugarcane, pulses, barley and poppy, rice being grown mostly in low-lying, heavy clays. The greater part of the Provinces is highly cultivated, the rainfall varies from 50 to 60 inches in the Hills, to 40 inches in the Benares and Gorakhpur Divisions, whilst the Agra Division receives only about 25 to 30 inches annually. Drought seriously affected Bundelkhand and the Agra Division. in the past, but improved drainage, and irrigation (a protective system of irrigation works exists and is being extended) have enabled a complete recovery to be made. Commodity prices showed a slight but steady upward movement till July when wheat in particular commenced to drop steadily. Generally the position of those solely dependent on agricultural produce is far from satisfactory. In addition to a low level of prices, yields as secured from kharif sown crops have been below par. The only fact offsetting the above is the generally satisfactory prospect of the present rabi crops. Land is held mostly on the ryotwari tenure in Bundelkhand and Kumaon, on zemindari tenure in Agra and taluqdari tenure in Oudh. The principal landowners in Oudh are the Taluqdars, some of whom own very large estates. The area held in taluqdari tenure amounts to 54 per cent. of the total area in Oudh.

Manufactures.

The provinces are not rich in minerals. Iron and copper are found in the Himalayan districts, and there were mines of importance there formerly, but owing to high cost of production and inaccessibility, most of them have been

closed. Gold is found in minute quantities by washing the sands in some of the rivers in the hills. Limestone is found in the Himalayas and in the Etawah district, and stone is largely quarried in the Mirzapur district. Cotton is ginned and spun throughout the Western districts of the provinces as a home industry; and weaving by means of handlooms, is carried on in most districts. Cawnpore is the chief centre for cotton spinning and weaving mills. According to the census of 1931, 45,128 persons were employed on cotton ginning, cleaning and pressing and 408,033 on spinning and weaving. Silk weaving used to be confined to Benares (where the famous 'Kimkhab' brocade is made) but considerable work is now done at Shahjahanpur and Mau and some at Agra as well. Embroidery work is done at Lucknow, where the noted 'Chikan' work of cotton on muslins is produced, and in Benares, where gold and silver work on silk, velvet, crepe and sarsenet obtains. Benares uses local gold thread for embroidery work and 'Kamkhab' weaving. The glass industry is important at Firozabad, Bahjoi, Balawali and Naini (Allahabad). Moradabad is noted for its lacquered brass-work, Benares for brassware-engraving and repousse, Farrukhabad for its calico prints and Agra for its carpets and marble and alabaster articles; glazed pottery is made at Chunar and Khurja and clay figures of men and fruits at Lucknow.

The making of brass utensils at Mirzapur, Farrukhabad and Oel (District Kheri); the carving and inlay work of Nagina and Saharanpur, the art silk industry of Mau, the lock and brass fittings industry of Aligarh, the copper utensil industry of Almora, the durries of Agra and Bareilly, the pottery of Nizamabad (District Azamgarh) and the ivory work of Lucknow also deserve mention.

Cawnpore is the chief industrial centre. It has tanneries, soap factories, oil mills, cotton, woollen and other mills. The woollen mill is the largest in India. Lucknow possesses an important paper-mill. There are cotton ginning and pressing factories at Aligarh, Meerut and Bareilly and cotton mills at Agra, Hathras, Lucknow, Benares and Moradabad. Many sugar mills have been recently started, mainly in the Gorakhpur and Rohilkhand divisions. Excellent furniture is made at Bareilly mostly on cottage lines.

The largest trade centres are Cawnpore, Allahabad, Mirzapur, Benares, Lucknow, Meerut, Aligarh, Hathras, Muttra, Agra, Farrukhabad, Moradabad, Chandausi, Bareilly, Saharanpur, Muzaffarnagar, Ghaziabad, Khurja, Gorakhpur, Ghazipur, Pilibhit and Shahjahanpur.

Administration.

The Province was until the close of 1920 administered by a Lieutenant-Governor, chosen from the ranks of the Indian Civil Service. Under the Reform scheme the Province was raised to the status of a Governor-in-Council, the Governor being assisted by two members of the Executive Council in charge of the Reserved Subjects and two Ministers from Jan. 12, 1926, in charge of the Transferred Subjects. The medium for the transaction of public business is the Secretariat, the Staff of which consists of 7 Secretaries (including Chief Secretary) and 4 Deputy Secretaries including the Director of Public Instruction and the Deputy Legal Remembrancer who are *ex-Officio* Deputy Secretaries in the Education and Judicial Departments respectively. The Chief Secretary is in charge of Appointment, General Administration, Executive, Political, Newspaper and Police Departments; the Finance Secretary deals mainly with the Finance Department; the Revenue Secretary is in charge of the Revenue, Scarcity, Ecclesiastical and Forest Departments and also the Buildings and Roads branch of the Public Works Department; the Education Secretary looks to the Education, Industries, Agriculture and Excise Departments; the L. S. G. Secretary to the local Self-Government, Municipal, Medical and Public Health Departments and the Judicial Secretary is in charge of the Judicial and Legislative Departments. The seventh Secretary belongs to the Public Works Department (Irrigation Branch) and is also Chief Engineer for the Irrigation Branch of the P.W.D. Government spends the cold weather, October to April, in Lucknow and Allahabad, mostly in Lucknow, though the Secretariat remains throughout the year at Allahabad. The Governor and the Secretaries spend the hot weather in Naini Tal, but during the monsoon the Governor tours the plains, as he does also in the cold weather. The Board of Revenue is the highest court of appeal in revenue and rent cases, being the chief revenue authority in the province. There are forty-eight British districts, thirty-six in Agra and twelve in Oudh, average area 2,200 square miles and average population a million. Each district is in charge of a District Officer, termed a Collector and Magistrate in Agra and a Deputy Commissioner in Oudh and Kumaon. The districts are grouped together in divisions. Each division is under a Commissioner, except the Kumaun division, the charge of which is held by the Deputy Commissioner, Naini Tal, in addition to his duties. There are ten divisions, having an average area of nearly 10,600 square miles and an average population of nearly 5 millions. The districts are sub-divided into *tahsils*, with an average area of 500 square miles and an average population of 236,000. Each *Tahsil* is in charge of a *Tahsildar*, who is responsible for the collection of revenue, and also exercises judicial powers. *Tahsils* are divided into *parganas* which are units of importance in the settlement of land revenue. Subordinate to the *Tahsildars* are *naib tahsildars* and *kanungos*. Ordinarily there are three *kanungos* and one *naib tahsildar* to a *tahsil*. The *Kanungos* supervise the work of the *patwaris*, or village accountants, check their papers and form a link direct between the villagers and Government. For judicial purposes (revenue and criminal), the District Officer assigns a sub-division, consisting of one or more *tahsils*, as the case may be to each of his subordinates, who may be covenanted civilians (Joint and Assistant Magistrates and Collectors) or members of the Provincial Service (Deputy Collectors and Magistrates). The Commissioners

of the Rohilkhand Division is Political Agent for the Indian States of Rampur and Tehri-Garhwal and the Commissioner of Benares is the Political Agent for Benares State.

Justice.

Justice is administered by the High Court of Judicature at Allahabad in the province of Agra and by the Chief Court of Oudh sitting at Lucknow which are the final appellate authorities in both criminal and civil cases. The former consists of a Chief Justice and eight permanent and two temporary puisne judges five of whom including the Chief Justice are Indians, and the latter consists of a Chief Judge and four judges four of whom including the Chief Judge are Indians. There are thirty-two posts (twenty-four in Agra including two posts temporarily held in abeyance and eight in Oudh) of district and sessions judges of which nine are held by Indians not belonging to the Indian Civil Service as they have been listed to the provincial service and the bar. They have both original and appellate jurisdiction in civil and criminal cases and occasional appellate jurisdiction in rent cases. District Officers and their assistants including tahsildars, preside in criminal courts as magistrates and as collectors and assistant collectors, in rent and revenue courts and dispose of a good deal of the work. Kumaun has been brought under the Civil jurisdiction of the High Court from 1st April 1926. The deputy and assistant commissioners exercise inferior civil powers in this division which has no separate civil courts. In the rest of the provinces there are subordinate judges, judges of small cause courts and munsifs who dispose of a large number of civil suits. In Agra the jurisdiction of a subordinate judge extends to all original suits without pecuniary limit and a munsif can hear cases ordinarily of a value not exceeding Rs. 2,000, and if specially empowered up to Rs. 5,000. In Oudh the ordinary jurisdiction of a subordinate judge extends to suits valuing not more than Rs. 20,000 and the ordinary jurisdiction of a munsif to suits of Rs. 2,000 value, provided that in special cases the limit of pecuniary jurisdiction can be removed altogether in the case of a subordinate judge and that of the munsif raised up to Rs. 5,000. Appeals from munsif always lie to the district judge while those from the subordinate judges go to the High Court or the Chief Court except in cases of a value of Rs. 5,000 or less which are heard by the district judge. Small cause court judges try suits to the value of Rs. 500. There are also honorary munsifs limited to Rs. 200 suits, and village munsifs whose jurisdiction is fixed at Rs. 20.

Local Self-Government.

The units of local self-government are the district and municipal boards which, with the exception of three municipal boards, have non-official Chairman. The municipal boards having an annual income of Rs. 50,000 or over have executive officers to whom certain administrative powers are reserved. The administrative functions of the municipal and district boards are performed by the Chairman and Executive Officer or the secretary, but the boards themselves are directly responsible for most of the administration. The district boards obtain 45% of their income from Government grants. The other chief sources of income is the local rate levied from the landowners. Some of the boards have recently imposed a tax on circumstance and property. The chief source of municipal income is the octroi or terminal tax and toll which is an octroi in modified form. Local opinion is strongly in favour of indirect as opposed to direct taxation for municipal purposes.

Public Works.

The Public Works Department is divided into the Buildings and Roads branch and the Irrigation branch. The Buildings and Roads branch is administered by a Civilian Secretary and the principal administrative officer is a Chief Engineer. The Irrigation branch is administered by two Secretaries to Government who are also Chief Engineers. The Province is divided into circles and divisions both for buildings and roads and for irrigation purposes. Each circle is in charge of a Deputy Chief Engineer or a Superintending Engineer, or and each division is in charge of an Executive Engineer. The whole of the irrigation works constructed or maintained by Government are administered by the Irrigation branch. All metalled roads maintained from Provincial funds and construction of all buildings costing more than Rs. 20,000 are in charge of the Buildings and Roads branch. In the Irrigation branch one of the Chief Engineers is in charge of Eastern Canals comprising the Sarda Canal and the canals in Bundelkhand and Mirzapur and the other is in charge of Western Canals comprising Ganges Canals, Eastern Jumna Canal and Agra Canal. The Sarda Canal—a work of the first magnitude was opened in 1928 and has introduced irrigation into most of the districts of Oudh. In connection with the Ganges Canal an important hydro-electric scheme the scope of which covers seven western districts of the province is now in operation. It is capable of further development and will ultimately give a total output of 36,900 killowatts. The energy is distributed by means of 882 miles of High Tension lines to provide some 70 towns of 5,000 population and over in the seven districts, with cheap power for light, fans and minor industries. The energy is also used for irrigation pumping from rivers, and low level canals as well as from tube and open wells. The total cost of the first stage of the scheme excluding pumping projects for irrigation is 138 lakhs.

Police.

The Police Force is administered by an Inspector-General, with three Deputies and one Assistant, forty-six Superintendents, forty-one Assistant Superintendents and sixty-five Deputy Superintendents. There is a Police Training School at Moradabad. There is a C. I. D. forming a separate detective department, under a Deputy Inspector-General with three assistants. The armed police of the three police ranges have recently been rearmed with the ·410 musket, the ·476 musket and the Martini Henri rifle having formed their late armament. The administration of the Jail Department is in charge of an Inspector-General of Prisons, who is a member of the Indian Medical Service.

Education.

Education is maintained in part by the State and partly by means of grants-in-aid. There are five universities, the four residential universities of Allahabad, Lucknow, Aligarh (Muslim) and Benares (Hindu) and the affiliating University of Agra. The last named was established in 1927 and consists, besides six affiliated colleges situated outside the United Provinces, of the eight colleges, formerly associated with Allahabad University on its external side, *viz.*, the Agra and St. John's Colleges at Agra, the Christ Church, D.A.V. and Sanatan Dharma Colleges at Cawnpore, the Meerut College, Meerut, the Bareilly College, Bareilly and St. Andrew's College, Gorakhpur. There are Intermediate Colleges which prepare boys for the high school and intermediate examinations conducted by the Board of High School and Intermediate Education, which controls high school and intermediate education. The Isabella Thoburn College at Lucknow and the Crosthwaite Girls' College at Allahabad impart university education to Indian girls and the Theosophical National Girls' School and Women's College at Benares, the Muslim Girls' Intermediate College at Aligarh. Mahila Vidyalaya Intermediate College at Lucknow teach up to the intermediate stage. In addition to these there are A. V. High Schools, English Middle and vernacular Lower Middle schools and primary schools throughout the province for the education of Indian Girls; they are controlled by Chief Inspectrees of Girls. Schools under instructions from the Education Department. The St. George's Intermediate College, Mussoorie, the Philander-Smith College, Naini Tal, the St. Joseph's College, Naini Tal, and the Martiniere College, Lucknow, are the well-known institutions for European and Anglo-Indian children in the province which teach upto the intermediate stage. Besides these, there are many excellent educational institutions for European boys and girls both in the hills and plains which are attended by students from all over India. Government maintain Training Colleges for teachers in Lucknow, Allahabad and Agra, and there are training departments attached to the Aligarh Muslim University and the Benares Hindu University. There is a Government Engineering College at Roorkee (Thomason College), a School of Art and Crafts in Lucknow and an Agricultural College, and a Technological Institute at Cawnpore; there is also a non-Government Agricultural Institute at Naini, Allahabad. Education in law is given at the four residential universities and at the Agra and Meerut colleges, and at the Dayanand Anglo-Vedic and Sanatan Dharma Colleges at Cawnpore and at the Bareilly College. Instruction in commerce for the B. Com. degree of the Agra University is given in the Sanatan Dharma and the D. A. V. Colleges at Cawnpore and in the St. John's College at Agra; a commerce department for B. Com. degree is also attached to Allahabad and Lucknow Universities. The King George's Medical College, Lucknow, now merged in the Lucknow University, prepares candidates for the M.B.B.S. degree of the Lucknow University. Besides this there are two medical schools at Agra for males and females; and also a College of Ayurveda and Tibbiya is attached to the Benares Hindu and the Aligarh Muslim Universities respectively. Public schools for secondary and primary vernacular education are almost entirely maintained or aided by district and municipal boards and vernacular education is almost entirely in their hands.

Medical.

The Medical Department is in charge of an Inspector-General of Civil Hospitals, who is assisted by a lady Superintendent for Medical aid to women in the administration of the Dufferin fund affairs. A Civil Surgeon is in charge and is responsible for the medical work of each district and in a few of the larger stations he has an assistant. In two stations (Ranikhet and Roorkee) Medical Officers in military employ hold collateral civil charge. There are 109 Provincial Medical service officers in charge of important Moffusil dispensaries and on the reserve list and a large number of Provincial subordinate medical service officers. Lady doctors and women sub-assistant surgeons visit *purdanashin* women in their own homes and much good work is done in this manner. Maternity and Child Welfare Centres have been opened in almost all the districts of the province.

The best equipped hospitals for Indian patients are the Thomason Hospital at Agra, King George's Hospital and the Balrampur Hospital at Lucknow, the Prince of Wales Hospital, Cawnpore, King Edward VII Hospital, Benares, the Civil Hospital at Allahabad (for Europeans, Anglo-Indians and Indians living in European style) and Saint Mary's Cottage Hospital, Mussoorie. The Ramsay Hospital for Europeans at Naini Tal is a first class institution and there are also the Lady Dufferin Hospitals. King George's Medical College, Lucknow, is one of the best equipped colleges in the country, with a staff of highly efficient professors, and the hospital attached to it is the first in the Province. The Queen Mary's Hospital for women and children, completed in 1932, is also attached to the King George's Medical College and provides clinical material for the instruction of students in midwifery and gynaecology. There are also male and female medical schools at Agra. As the X-Ray Institute at Dehra Dun has been closed, it is proposed to institute classes of instruction in X-ray diagnosis and therapy at the King George's Medical College, Lucknow, where every facility for such work would be forthcoming. The scheme is, however, held up owing to lack of funds. There are sanatoria for British soldiers in the hills. The King Edward VII Sanatorium at Bhowali in the district of Naini Tal is an up-to-date and well-equipped institution for the treatment of European and Indian consumptives. In addition five centres for the treatment of tubercular patients have been established at Agra, Allahabad, Benares, Cawnpore and Lucknow. There are mental hospitals for Indian non-criminal lunatics at Agra and Bareilly and for criminal lunatics at Benares. Arrangements for the treatment of active cases of Leprosy have been made at most of the headquarters hospitals. The Shrimati Bhagwan Dei Leper Home at Cawnpore provides special facilities for the treatment of leprosy.

THE FINANCES OF THE UNITED PROVINCES.

As explained in the chapters on the new constitution of India, under the Reforms Act of 1919, the financial position of the Provinces underwent a remarkable change. The Provinces are, for all practical purposes, financially independent of the Government of India. The contribution payable by the Local Government has been remitted entirely by the Government of India with effect from the year 1928-29. As the finances of the Provinces thus become of greater importance, the position is set out in some detail in the following pages:—

ESTIMATED REVENUE FOR 1933-34.

Principal Heads of Revenue.

	Rs.
Taxes on Salt	
Taxes on Income	8,000
Land Revenue	....
Excise	5,83,08,140
Stamps	1,30,26,000
Forests	1,81,00,000
Registration	45,55,400
Scheduled Taxes	12,87,000
	....
Total	9,52,84,540

Railways.

Subsidised Companies	90,000

Irrigation.

Works for which capital accounts are kept—	
(1) Productive Works—	
Net receipts	1,17,72,801
(2) Unproductive Works—	
Net receipts	54,700
Total, net receipts	1,18,27,501
Works for which no capital accounts are kept	17,000
Total Irrigation	1,18,44,501

Debt Services.

Interest	13,82,500
Total	13,82,500

Civil Administration.

Administration of Justice	14,05,220
Jails and Convict Settlements	5,24,700
Police	1,69,100
Education	11,05,000
Medical	2,93,100
Public Health	1,42,100
Agriculture	5,31,000
Industries	1,79,200
Miscellaneous Departments	63,020
Total	44,12,440

Buildings, Roads and Miscellaneous Public Improvements—	
Civil Works—(*a*) ordinary	3,37,000
(*b*) Transfer from Central Road Development Account	1,84,999
	5,21,999

Miscellaneous.

	Rs.
Transfers from Famine Relief Fund	7,440
Receipts in aid of superannuation	1,72,000
Stationery and Printing	5,97,500
Miscellaneous	7,55,000
Total	15,31,940
Extraordinary receipts	....
Miscellaneous adjustments between the Central and Provincial Governments	....
Total Revenue	11,50,67,920

Debt, deposits and advances :—	Rs.
(*a*) Government Press Depreciation Fund	45,000
(*b*) Famine Relief Funds	23,15,200
(*c*) Loans and advances by Provincial Governments	29,80,000
(*d*) Advances from Provincial Loans Funds	35,51,000
(*e*) Appropriation for reduction or avoidance of Debt-Sinking Fund	14,00,000
(*f*) Transfer from Famine Relief Fund for repayment of advances from the Provincial Loans Fund	5,00,000
(*g*) Subventions from Central Road Development Account	5,70,000
(*h*) Subventions from the Imperial Council Agricultural Research and Indian Central Cotton Committee	51,728
Total	93,29,228
Total receipts	12,43,97,148
Opening Balance	—1,20,90,602
Grand Total	11,23,06,546

ESTIMATED EXPENDITURE FOR 1933-34.

Direct demands on the Revenues.

Taxes on Income	....
Land Revenue	74,77,627
Excise	11,80,899
Stamps	3,31,162
Forests	27,46,060
Forest Capital outlay charged to revenue	14,650
Registration	4,63,721
Total	1,22,14,119

Railway Revenue Account.

State Railways—Interest on debt	8190
Subsidised companies	540
Total	8,730

Irrigation Revenue Account.

Works for which capital accounts are kept—	Rs.
Interest on Irrigation Works ..	1,08,49,940
Other revenue irrigation expenditure financed from ordinary revenues	—9,600
Total ..	1,08,40,340

Irrigation Capital Account (charged to revenue).

Construction of Irrigation Works—	
A.—Financed from ordinary revenues	94,900

Debt Services.

Interest on ordinary debt	38,70,112
Sinking Fund	14,00,000
Payment to the Provincial loans fund	....
Total ..	52,70,112

Civil Administration.

General Administration	1,30,85,037
Administration of Justice	71,07,437
Jails and Convicts' Settlements ..	33,18,685
Police	1,60,73,063
Scientific Departments	23,162
Education	1,92,64,209
Medical	32,53,373
Public Health	19,43,892
Agriculture	29,48,650
Industries	11,35,166
Miscellaneous Departments ..	76,374
Exchange	....
Total ..	6,83,19,048

Buildings, Roads and Miscellaneous Public Improvements.

Civil Works—(*a*) Provincial expenditure	45,57,804
(*b*) Improvement and communications from Central Road Development Account	1,84,999
Total ..	47,42,803

Miscellaneous.

	Rs.
Famine Relief and Insurance—	
A—Famine Relief	7,440
B—Transfers to Famine Insurance Fund	....
Superannuation Allowances and Pensions	64,89,340
Stationery and Printing	12,53,504
Miscellaneous	11,34,799
Extraordinary Charges	37,000
Total ..	89,22,083
Expenditure in England—	
Secretary of State	1,89,600
High Commissioner	40,58,400

Irrigation and other capital expenditure not charged to revenue.

(*a*) Construction of irrigation works .. .. .. } (*c*) Hydro-electric scheme ..	14,08,500
(*d*) Outlay on Improvement of public health	....
(*e*) Outlay on Agricultural improvement	....
(*b*) Forest outlay	....
Total ..	14,08,500
Debt, and Deposits Advances—	
(*a*) Famine Relief Fund ..	....
(*b*) Civil Contingencies Fund ..	....
(*c*) Loans and Advances by Local Governments ..	11,29,000
(*d*) Sinking Fund Investment Account	14,00,000
(*e*) Government Press Depreciation Fund	15,000
(*f*) Repayment of Advances from Provincial Loans Fund	16,63,746
60-B. Payment of Commuted Value of Pensions ..	9,79,700
60 Civil Works	21,566
60-A. Other Provincial Works not charged to revenue.	....
61. Payments to Retrenched Personnel	35,160
Transfer from Famine Relief Fund for repayment of advances from the Provincial Local Fund ..	5,00,000
Subventions from Central Road Development Account ..	1,84,999
Famine Relief Fund—Transfer to revenue	7,440
Charges against grants from the Imperial Council and Agriculture Research Indian Central Cotton Committee	51,728
Total ..	59,58,339
Total Disbursements ..	12,20,56,974
Closing Balance ..	—97,50,428
Grand Total ..	11,23,06,546

Administration.

Governor.—His Excellency Sir Malcolm Hailey, M.A., G.C.S.I., G.C.I.E., I.C.S. (Sir Harry Haig, K.C.S.I., C.I.E., I.C.S., *Governor-Designate.*)

Private Secretary.—Capt. L. A. M. Bates.

Aides-de-Camp.—Capt. D. de G. Lambert and Capt. M. N. E. Macmullan.

Executive Council.

The Hon'ble Mr. E. A. H. Blunt, C.I.E.

The Hon'ble Kunwar Jagdish Prasad, C.S.I., C.I.E., O.B.E.

Ministers.

The Hon'ble Nawab Sir Muhammad Yusuf, Kt., Bar-at-Law.

The Hon'ble Mr. J. P. Srivastava, M.Sc., A.M.S.T.

Secretariat.

Chief Secretary to Government, J. M. Clay, C.I.E., O.B.E., I.C.S.

Local Self-Government and Public Health Secretary, P. Mason, I.C.S.

Revenue and P. W. D. (B. & R.) Secretary to Government, H. A. Lane, C.I.E., I.C.S.

Judicial Secretary, J. J. W. Allsop, I.C.S.

Industries and Education Secretary, P. M. Kharegat, I.C.S.

Finance Secretary, J. L. Sathe, I.C.S.

Secretary to Government. Irrigation Branch, W. L. Stampe, C.I.E., I.S.E.

Miscellaneous Appointments.

Opium Agent, Ghazipur, G. S. V. Paterson.

Chief Conservator of Forests, F. Canning, I.F.S.

Director of Public Instruction, A. H. Mackenzie, M.A., B.Sc., C.S.I., C.I.E.

Inspector-General of Police, H. R. Roe, C.I.E.

Inspector-General of Civil Hospitals, Lt.-Col. H. C. Buckley, I.M.S.

Director of Public Health, Lieut-Colonel W. A. Mearns, I.M.S.

Commissioner of Excise and Inspector-General of Registration, R. T. Shivdasani, I.C.S.

Inspector-General of Prisons, Lt.-Col. C. E. Palmer, M.A., M.B., I.M.S.

Director of Agriculture, R. G. Allan, M.A.

Lieutenant-Governors of the North Western Provinces.

Sir C. T. Metcalfe, Bart., G.C.B.	1836
The Right Hon. the Governor-General in the North-Western Provinces (Lord Auckland).	1838
F. C. Robertson	1840
The Right Hon. the Governor-General in the North-Western Provinces (Lord Ellenborough).	1842
Sir G. R. Clerk, K.C.B.	1843
James Thomson. Died at Bareilly ..	1843
A. W. Begbie, *In charge*	1853
J. R. Colvin. Died at Agra	1853
E. A. Reade, *In charge*	1857
Colonel H. Fraser, C.B., Chief Commissioner, N.-W. Provinces.	1857
The Right Hon'ble the Governor-General administering the N.-W. Provinces (Viscount Canning).	1858
Sir G. F. Edmonstone	
R. Money, *In charge*	1859
The Hon. Edmund Drummond	1863
Sir William Muir, K.C.S.I.	1863
Sir John Strachey, K.C.S.I.	1868
Sir George Couper, Bart., C.B.	1874
	1876

Lieutenant-Governors of the North-Western Provinces and Chief Commissioners of Oudh.

Sir George Couper, Bart., C.B., K.C.S.I.	1877
Sir Alfred Comyns Lyall, K.C.B.	1882
Sir Auckland Colvin, K.C.M.G., C.I.E. ..	1887
Sir Chas. H. T. Crosthwaite, K.C.S.I. ..	1892
Alan Cadell (*Officiating*)	1895
Sir Antony P. MacDonnell, K.C.S.I. (*a*) ..	1895
Sir J. J. D. LaTouche, K.C.S.I.	1901

(*a*) Afterwards (by creation) Baron MacDonnell.

Lieutenant-Governors of the United Provinces of Agra and Oudh.

Sir J. J. D. LaTouche, K.C.S.I.	1902
Sir J. P. Hewett, K.C.S.I., C.I.E.	1907
L. A. S. Porter, C.S.I. (*Officiating*)	1911
Sir J. S. Meston, K.C.S.I.	1912
Sir Harcourt Butler, K.C.S.I., C.I.E. ..	1918

Governors of the United Provinces.

Sir Harcourt Butler, K.C.S.I., C.I.E. ..	1920
Sir William Marris, K.C.I.E.	1921
Sir Samuel Perry O'Donnell, K.C.I.E., C.S.I. (*Officiating*).	1926
Sir Alexander Muddiman, K.C.S.I., C.I.E. Died at Naini Tal.	1928
Capt. Nawab Muhammad Ahmad Said Khan of Chhatari, C.I.E., M.B.E. In-charge.	1928
Sir Malcolm Hailey, G.C.S.I., G.C.I.E. ..	1928
Sir George Banerofft, K.C.S.I.	1930
Sir Malcolm Hailey, G.C.S.I., G.C.I.E. ..	1931
Captain Nawab Sir Muhammad Ahmad Said Khan of Chhatari, K.C.S.I., K.C.I.E., M.B.E., LL.D.	1933
Sir Malcolm Hailey, G.C.S.I., G.C.I.E. ..	1933

UNITED PROVINCES LEGISLATIVE COUNCIL.

PRESIDENT.

The Hon'ble Sir Sita Ram, Kt., M.A., LL.B.

DEPUTY PRESIDENT.

Nawabzada Muhd. Liaquat Ali Khan, M.A. (Oxon), Bar-at-Law.

ELECTED MEMBERS.

Body, Association or Constituency represented.	Name.
Allahabad, Jaunpur and Mirzapur Districts (Muhammadan Rural).	The Hon. Nawab Sir Muhammad Yusuf, Kt. Bar.-at-Law, Minister of Local Self-Government.
Upper India Chamber of Commerce	The Hon'ble Mr. J. P. Srivastava, Minister of Education.
Agra City (non-Muhammadan Urban)	Mr. Perma.
Cawnpore City (non-Muhammadan Urban) ..	Rai Bahadur Babu Awadh Behari Lal.
Allahabad City (non-Muhammadan Urban) ..	Rai Bahadur Babu Kamta Prasad Kakkar, B.A., LL.B.
Lucknow City (non-Muhammadan Urban) ..	Chaudhri Ram Dayal.
Benares City (non-Muhammadan Urban) ..	Chaudhri Jagarnath.
Bareilly City (non-Muhammadan Urban) ..	The Hon'ble Sir Sita Ram, Kt., M.A., LL.B.
Meerut-*cum*-Aligarh (non-Muhammadan Urban)	Chaudhri Baldeva.
Moradabad-*cum*-Shahjahanpur (non-Muhammadan Urban).	Rai Sahib Sahu Jwala Saran Kothiwala.
Dehra Dun district (non-Muhammadan Rural)..	Mr. Tappu Ram.
Saharanpur District (non-Muhammadan Rural).	Pandit Moti Lal Bhargava.
Muzaffarnagar (non-Muhammadan Rural) ..	Raja Bahadur Kushalpal Singh, M.A., LL.B.
Meerut District (North) (non-Muhammadan Rural.)	Chaudhri Ram Chandra.
Meerut District (South) (non-Muhammadan Rural.)	Chaudhri Ghasita.
Bulandshahr District (East) (non-Muhammadan Rural).	Rai Bahadur Chaudhri Raghuraj Singh.
Bulandshahr District (West) (non-Muhammadan Rural.)	Chaudhri Arjuna Singh.
Aligarh District (East) (non-Muhammadan Rural).	Rao Bahadur Thakur Pratap Bhan Singh.
Aligarh District (West) (non-Muhammadan Rural)	Rao Sahib Thakur Shiva Dhyan Singh.
Muttra District (non-Muhammadan Rural) ..	Kunwar Girwar Singh.
Agra District (non-Muhammadan Rural) ..	Pandit Joti Prasad Upadhyaya, M.A., LL.B.
Mainpuri District (non-Muhammadan Rural) ..	Chaudhri Dhirya Singh, M.B.E.
Etah District (non-Muhammadan Rural) ..	Rao Krishna Pal Singh.
Bareilly District (non-Muhammadan Rural) ..	Rai Sahib Kunwar Dhakan Lal.
Bijnor District (non-Muhammadan Rural) ..	Thakur Balwant Singh Gahlot.
Budaun District (non-Muhammadan Rural) ..	Rai Bahadur Brij Lal Badhwar.
Moradabad District (non-Muhammadan Rural)..	Rao Bahadur Kunwar Sardar Singh.
Shahjahanpur District (non-Muhammadan Rural)	Rai Bahadur Manmohan Sahai.
Pilibhit District (non-Muhammadan Rural) ..	Babu Ram Bahadur Saksena.
Jhansi District (non-Muhammadan Rural) ..	Lala Shyam Lal.
Jalaun District (non-Muhammadan Rural) ..	Babu Kamta Nath.
Hamirpur District (non-Muhammadan Rural) ..	Kunwar Jagbhan Singh, B.A., LL.B.
Banda District (non-Muhammadan Rural) ..	Thakur Keshava Chandra Singh M.Sc., LL.B.

Body, Association or Constituency represented.	Name.
Farrukhabad District (non-Muhammadan Rural).	Mr. Brijnandan Lal, Bar.-at-Law.
Etawah District (non-Muhammadan Rural) ..	Rao Narsingh Rao.
Cawnpore District (non-Muhammadan Rural) ..	Chaudhri Ram Adhin.
Fatehpur District (non-Muhammadan Rural) ..	Mr. Bhondu Ram.
Allahabad district (non-Muhammadan Rural) ..	Maharao Raja Bahadur Ram Singh Rao Bahadur
Benares District (non-Muhammadan Rural) ..	Chaudhri Bharos.
Mirzapur District (non-Muhammadan Rural) ..	Pandit Shri Sadayatan Pande.
Jaunpur District (non-Muhammadan Rural) ..	Raja Sri Krishna Dutt Dube.
Ghazipur District (non-Muhammadan Rural) ..	Rai Bahadur Babu Jagadeva Rai.
Ballia District (non-Muhammadan Rural) ..	Mr. Dahari.
Gorakhpur District (West) (non-Muhammadan Rural).	Rai Sahib Rai Rajeshwari Prasad, M.A., LL.B.
Gorakhpur District (East) (non-Muhammadan Rural).	Babu Adya Prasad, B.A., LL.B.
Basti District (non-Muhammadan Rural) ..	Rai Bahadur Thakur Shiva Pati Singh.
Azamgarh District (non-Muhammadan Rural) ..	Thakur Giriraj Singh, B.A., LL.B.
Naini Tal District (non-Muhammadan Rural) ..	Pandit Prem Ballabh Belwal.
Almora District (non-Muhammadan Rural) ..	Thakur Jang Bahadur Singh Bisht, B.A., LL.B.
Garhwal District (non-Muhammadan Rural) ..	Sardar Bahadur Thakur Narayan Singh Negi.
Lucknow District (non-Muhammadan Rural) ..	Pandit Brahma Dutt *alias* Bhaiya Sahib.
Unao District (non-Muhammadan Rural) ..	Rai Bahadur Thakur Hanuman Singh.
Rae Bareli District (non-Muhammadan Rural) .	Rai Bahadur Lal Sheo Pratap Singh.
Sitapur District (non-Muhammadan Rural) ..	Kunwar Diwakar Prakash Singh.
Hardoi District (non-Muhammadan Rural) ..	Thakur Muneshwar Bakhsh Singh, B.A., LL.B.
Kheri District (non-Muhammadan Rural) ..	Thakur Jeindra Bahadur Singh.
Fyzabad District (non-Muhammadan Rural) ..	Raja Jagdambika Pratap Narayan Singh.
Gonda District (non-Muhammadan Rural) ..	Raja Ambikeshwar Pratap Singh.
Bahraich District (non-Muhammadan Rural) ..	Raja Birendra Bikram Singh.
Sultanpur District (non-Muhammadan Rural) ..	Rai Bahadur Kunwar Surendra Pratap Sahi.
Partabgarh District (non-Muhammadan Rural)	Mr. C. Y. Chintamani.
Bara Banki District (non-Muhammadan Rural).	Rai Rajeshwar Bali, O.B.E., B.A.
Allahabad-*cum*-Benares (Muhammadan Urban).	Mr. Zahur Ahmad, Bar.-at-Law.
Lucknow-*cum*-Cawnpore (Muhammadan Urban)	Syed Ali Zaheer, Bar.-at-Law.
Agra and Meerut-*cum*-Aligarh (Muhammadan Urban).	Khan Bahadur Mr. Muhammad Abdul Bari, Bar.-at-Law.
Bareilly and Shahahanpur-*cum*-Moradabad, (Muhammadan Urban).	Syed Yusuf Ali.
Dehra Dun District (Muhammadan Rural) ..	Khan Bahadur Muhammad Maqsud Ali Khan.
Saharanpur District (Muhammadan Rural) ..	Shah Nazar Husain.
Meerut District (Muhammadan Rural)	Captain Nawab Muhammad Jamshed Ali Khan, M.B.E.
Muzaffarnagar District (Muhammadan Rural) ..	Nawabzada Muhammad Liaquat Ali Khan, M.A. (Oxon), Bar.-at-Law.
Bijnor District (Muhammadan Rural)	Hafiz Muhammad Ibrahim, B.A., LL.B.
Bulandshahr District (Muhammadan Rural) ..	Mr. Muhammad Rahmat Khan.
Aligarh, Muttra and Agra Districts (Muhammadan Rural).	Khan Bahadur Haji Muhammad Obaidur Rahman Khan.
Mainpuri, Etah and Farrukhabad Districts (Muhammadan Rural).	Khan Bahadur Muhammad Hadiyar Khan.
Etawah, Cawnpore and Fatehpur Districts (Muhammadan Rural).	Khan Bahadur Hafiz Hidayat Husain, I.C.S., B.A., Bar.-at-Law.
Jhansi Division (Muhammadan Rural)	Khan Bahadur Maulvi Saiyid Habibullah.

Body Association or Constituency represented.	Name.
Benares, Ghazipur, Ballia and Azamgarh Districts (Muhammadan Rural).	Mr. M. Nisarullah, B.A.
Gorakhpur District (Muhammadan Rural) ..	Khan Bahadur Saiyid Zahid Ali Sabzposh.
Basti District (Muhammadan Rural)	Khan Bahadur Shaikh Ghulam Husain.
Moradabad (North) (Muhammadan Rural) ..	Khan Bahadur Hafiz Ghazan-Farullah.
Moradabad (South) (Muhammadan Rural) ..	Khan Bahadur Saiyid Jafer Hosain, Bar-at-Law.
Budaun District (Muhammadan Rural) ..	Shaikh Afzal-ud-din Hyder.
Shahjahanpur District (Muhammadan Rural) ..	Khan Bahadur Maulvi Muhammad Fazlur Rahman Khan, B.A., LL.B.
Bareilly District (Muhammadan Rural) ..	Khan Bahadur Sirdar Muhammad Shakirdad Khan.
Kumaun Division-*cum*-Pilibhit (Muhammadan Rural).	Khan Sahib Muhammad Imtiaz Ahmad.
Gonda and Bahraich Districts (Muhammadan Rural).	Raja Saiyid Muhammad Sa'adat Ali Khan.
Kheri and Sitapur Districts (Muhammadan Rural).	Shaikh Muhammad Habibullah, O.B.E.
Hardoi, Lucknow and Unao Districts (Muhammadan Rural).	Raja Saiyid Ahmad Ali Khan Alvi, M.B.E.
Fyzabad and Bara Banki Districts (Muhammadan Rural).	Raja Sir Muhammad Ejaz Rasul Khan, Kt. C.S.I.
Sultanpur, Partabgarh and Rae Bareli Districts (Muhammadan Rural).	Raja Saiyid Muhammad Mehdi.
European	Mr. L. M. Medley.
Agra Landholders (North)	Rai Sahib Lala Anand Sarup.
Agra Landholders (South)	Rai Bahadur Lala Bihari Lal.
Taluqdars	Chaudhri Muhammad Ali. Thakur Rampal Singh. Rai Bahadur Kunwar Bisheshwar Dayal Seth, B.SC., F.C.S. Raja Jagannath Bakhsh Singh.
Upper India Chamber of Commerce	Mr. E. M. Souter.
United Provinces Chamber of Commerce ..	Rai Bahadur Babu Vikramajit Singh, B.A., LL.B.
Allahabad University	Babu Gajadhar Prasad, M.A., LL.B.

EX-OFFICIO MEMBERS.

The Hon'ble Mr. E. A. H. Blunt, C.I.E., O.B.E., I.C.S.

The Hon'ble Kunwar Jagdish Prasad, C.S.I., C.I.E., O.B.E., I.C.S.

NOMINATED MEMBERS.

Mr. J. M. Clay, C.I.E., O.B.E., I.C.S.

Mr. J. L. Sathe, I.C.S.

Mr. P. Mason, I.C.S.

Mr. P. M. Kharegat, I.C.S.

Mr. H. A. Lane, C.I.E., I.C.S.

Mr. J. J. W. Allsop, I.C.S.

Mr. A. H. Mackenzie, C.S.I., C.I.E., I.E.S.

Mr. A. C. Turner, M.B.E., I.C.S.

Rai Bahadur P. C. Mogha, B.A., LL.B.

Khan Bahadur Saiyid Ain-ud-din, B.A.

Saiyid Abdul Hasan, B.Sc., LL.B.

Mr. E. F. Oppenheim, C.I.E., I.C.S.

Lieut.-Col. W. A. Mearns, I.M.S.

Colonel A. H. Proctor, I.M.S.

Mr. F. Canning, I.F.S.

Mr. D. L. Drake-Brockman, I.C.S.

Mrs. Kailash Srivastava.

Khan Bahadur Maulvi Fasik-ud-din.

Captain K. O. Carleton, M.A., Bar.-at-Law, (Anglo-Indian Community).

Mr. E. Ahmad Shah, M.A., D. Litt. (Indian Christian Community).

Rai Sahib Babu Rama Charana, B.A., LL.B. (Depressed Classes).

SECRETARY TO THE LEGISLATIVE COUNCIL.

Babu Surendranath Ghosh

Mr. G. S. K. Hydrie, B.A., LL.B., Bar.-at-Law, Superintendent.

The Punjab.

The Punjab or land of the five rivers, is so called from the five rivers by which it is enclosed, namely, the Jhelum, Chenab, Ravi, Beas and Sutlej. Together with the North-West Frontier Province and the Indian State of Jammu and Kashmir which lie to the north, the Punjab occupies the extreme north-western corner of the Indian Empire, and with the exception of the above-mentioned province comprises all of British India north of Sind and Rajputana and west of the river Jumna. Previous to October 1912, the Punjab with its feudatories embraced an area of 136,330 square miles and a population at the Census of 1911 of 24,187,750 (inclusive of 28,587 trans-frontier Baluchis), that is to say, about one-thirteenth of the area and population of the Indian Empire. But the formation of a separate province of Delhi reduced the area and population of the Punjab by about 450 square miles and 380,000 souls, respectively. The total population of the Province in 1931, including the Baloch tribes on the border of the Dehra Ghazi Khan District, was 23,490,857 of whom 4,910,005 were in the Indian States.

Physical Features.

The greater part of the Punjab consists of one vast alluvial plain, stretching from the Jumna in the east to the Suleman Range in the west. The north-east is occupied by a section of the Himalayas and the Salt Range forms its north-western angle. A few small spurs of the Aravalli mountain system traverse the extreme south-east and terminate in the Ridge at Delhi. The Punjab may be divided into five natural divisions. The Himalayan tract includes an area of 22,000 square miles, with a scanty population living scattered in tiny mountain hamlets. The Salt Range tract includes the districts of Attock, Rawalpindi and Jhelum and part of Shahpur district. Its physical configuration is broken and confused and the mountainous tracts of Murree and Kahuta approximate closely in characteristics to the Himalayan tract. Except in the hills, the rainfall leaves little margin for protection against distress in unfavourable seasons and irrigation is almost unknown. Skirting the base of the hills and including the low range of the Siwaliks, runs the narrow sub-montane tract. This tract, secure in an ample rainfall, and traversed by streams from the hills, comprises some of the most fertile and thickly populated portions of the province. Its population of over four millions is almost agricultural and pastoral but it includes one large town in Sialkot. Of the plains of the Punjab, the eastern portion covers an area of some 36,000 square miles with a population of 10¾ millions. East of Lahore, the rainfall is everywhere so far sufficient that cultivation is possible without irrigation in fairly favourable seasons, but over the greater part of the area the margin is so slight that, except where irrigation is employed, any material reduction in the rainfall involves distress, if not actual famine. Within the eastern plains lie the large cities of Lahore and Amritsar, and the population in comparison with the western Punjab is largely urban. The western plains cover an area of 59,000 square miles, with a population of a little over six millions. The rainfall in this area, heaviest in the north and east and decreasing towards the west and south is everywhere so scanty that cultivation is only possible with the aid of artificial irrigation or upon the low-lying river-banks left moist by the retreating floods. In this very circumstance, these tracts find their security against famine, for there cultivation is almost independent of rain, a failure of which means nothing worse than a scarcity of grass. So little rain is sufficient, and absolute drought occurs so seldom that the crops may be said never to fail from this cause. The western plains embrace the great colony areas on the Chenab and Jhelum Canals which now challenge the title of the eastern plains as the most fertile, wealthy and populous portions of the province. Multan and Lyallpur are the largest towns in the western area. Owing to its geographical position, its scanty rainfall and cloudless skies, and perhaps to its wide expanse of untilled plains, the climate of the Punjab presents greater extremes of both heat and cold than any other portion of India. The summer, from April to September, is scorchingly hot, and in the winter, sharp frosts are common. But the bright sun and invigorating air make the climate of the Punjab in the cold weather almost ideal.

States.

The Indian States of the Punjab were formerly in the Political charge of the Punjab Government. In 1921, however, the thirteen most important States, including Patiala, Bahawalpur, Jind and Nabha, were formed into a separate "Punjab States Agency" under the control of the Agent to the Governor-General, Punjab States. The only States remaining in the charge of the Punjab Government are the Simla Hill States, for which the Deputy Commissioner of Simla is Political Officer, and three small States in the Ambala Division, Kalsia, Patandi and Dujana, which are supervised by the Commissioner of Ambala.

The People.

Of the population roughly one-half is Mahomedan, three-eighths Hindu and one-eighth Sikh. Socially the landed classes stand high, and of these the Jats, numbering nearly five millions, are the most important. Roughly speaking, one-half the Jats are Mahomedan, one-third Sikh and one-sixth Hindu. In distribution they are ubiquitous and are equally divided between the five divisions of the province. Next in importance come the Rajputs, who number over a million and a half. The majority of them are Mahomedans by religion,

about a fourth are Hindus and a very few Sikhs. They are widely distributed over the province. Both Jats and Rajputs of the Punjab provide many of the best recruits for the Indian Army. In fact all the agricultural classes of the Punjab, except in the south-western districts, made a magnificent response to the appeal for recruits in the great war and the province's contribution of upwards of 400,000 men to the man power of the Empire speaks for itself. The Gujars are an important agricultural and pastoral tribe, chiefly found in the eastern half of the province and in the extreme north-west. In organisation they closely resemble the Jats and are often absorbed into that tribe. There are many minor agricultural tribes, priestly and religious castes (Brahmans, Sayads and Kureshis), most of whom are landholders, the trading castes of the Hindus (Khatris, Aroras and Banias), the trading castes of the Mahomedans (Khojas, Parachas and Khakhas), and the numerous artisan and menial castes. There are also vagrant and criminal tribes, and foreign elements in the population are represented by the Baluchis of Dera Ghazi Khan and neighbouring districts in the west, who number about half a million and maintain their tribal system, and the Pathans of the Attock and Mianwali districts. Pathans are also found scattered all over the province engaged in horse-dealing, labour and trade. A small Tibetan element is found in the Himalayan districts.

Languages.

The main language of the province is Punjabi, which is spoken by more than half the population. Western Punjabi may be classed as a separate language, sometimes called Lahndi, and is spoken in the north and west. The next most important languages are Western Hindi, which includes Hindustani and Urdu (the polished language of the towns) Western Pahari, which is spoken in the hill tracts; and Rajasthani, the language of Rajputana. Baluchi, Pushto, Sindhi and Tibeto-Burman languages are used by small sections of the population.

Agriculture.

Agriculture is the staple industry of the province affording the main means of subsistence to 60·5 per cent. of the population. It is essentially a country of peasant proprietors. About one-sixth of the total area in British districts is Government property, the remaining five-sixths belonging to private owners, and a large part of the Government land is so situated that it cannot be brought under cultivation without extensive irrigation. Thus the Lower Chenab Canal irrigates 1,939,000 acres of what was formerly waste land, the Lower Jhelum Canal, 4,18,000 acres, and the Lower Bari Doab Canal, adds 1,005,000 acres to this total. On account of the opening of the Sutlej Valley canals an area of about 1,213,000 acres more has been brought under cultivation. Large areas in the hills and elsewhere which are unsuited to cultivation are preserved as forest lands, the total extent of which is about 6,000 square miles. Of the crops grown, wheat is the most important and the development of irrigation has led to a great expansion of the wheat area. Next in importance to wheat is gram. Other important staples are barley, rice, millets, maize, oilseeds (rape, toria and sesamum), cotton and sugarcane. In the canal colonies large areas of American cotton are grown but in the cotton-growing districts the short staple indigenous varieties are predominant. The country being preponderantly agricultural, a considerable proportion of the wealth of the people lies in live-stock. Large profits are derived from the cattle and dairy trades and wool is a staple product in Kulu and Kangra and throughout the plains generally. The production of hides and skins is also an important industry.

Industries.

The mineral wealth of the Punjab is small, rock salt, saltpetre and limestone for road building being the most important products. There are some small coal mines in the Jhelum, Shahpur and Mianwali districts. Gold washing is carried on in most of the rivers not without remunerative results. Iron and copper ores are plentiful but the difficulty of carriage and the absence of fuel have hitherto prevented smelting on a large scale. The Punjab is not a large manufacturing province, the total number of factories being only 673 the majority of which are cotton ginning and pressing factories. Blankets and woollen rugs are produced in considerable quantities and the carpets of Amritsar are famous. Silk weaving is also carried on and the workers in gold, silver, brass, copper and earthenware are fairly numerous. Ivory carving is carried on extensively at Amritsar and Leiah and also in the Patiala State. Mineral oil is being extracted and refined in the Attock and Rawalpindi Districts and a cement factory is established at Wah near Hassanabdal. There is also a match factory at Shahdara and a factory for the hydrogenation and refining of oils at Lyallpur.

Administration.

Prior to the amendment of the Government of India Act in 1919 the head of the administration was a Lieutenant-Governor, drawn from the ranks of the Indian Civil Service. Under the amended Act the province was raised to the status of a Governorship, with an Executive Council and Ministers, the Governor-in-Council being in charge of the Reserved Subjects and the Governor with his Ministers of the Transferred Subjects. The general system of provincial administration under this scheme is sketched in the section "Provincial Governments" (*q. v.*) where is also given a list of the Reserved and Transferred Subjects. Associated with the Governor and the Council and Ministers is an enlarged Legislative Council, with wide powers, whose scope and authority are given in the section "Legislative Councils" (*q.v.*), the system being common to all the major provinces. The business of Government is carried on through the usual Secretariat which consists of four Secretaries, designated (1) Chief, (2) Home, (3) Finance, and (4) Transferred Departments, one Deputy Secretary, two Under-Secretaries, and one Assistant Secretary. In the Public Works Department, there are five Secretaries (Chief Engineers), one in the Buildings and

Roads Branch, one in the Hydro-Electric Branch and three in the Irrigation Branch, while the Legal Remembrancer is also the Secretary to Government in the Legislative Department. The head of the Police Department is Joint Secretary and of Education Department an Under Secretary to Government. The Government winter in Lahore and the summer (from the middle of May to the middle of October) in Simla. Under the Governor, the province is administered by five Commissioners (for Ambala, Jullunder, Lahore, Rawalpindi and Multan) who exercise general control over the Deputy Commissioners—29 in number—each of whom is in charge of a district.

The principal heads of Department in the province are the two Financial Commissioners (who are the highest Court of Revenue jurisdiction, and heads of the departments of Land and Separate Revenue and of Agriculture and the Court of Wards), the five Chief Engineers, the Inspector-General of Police, the Director of Public Instruction, the Inspector-General of Prisons, the Inspector-General of Civil Hospitals, the Director of Public Health, the Chief Conservator of Forests, the Directors of Agriculture and Industries, the Inspector-General of Registration, the Registrar of Co-operative Credit Societies and Joint Stock Companies and the Legal Remembrancer.

Justice.

The administration of justice is entrusted to a High Court, which is the final appellate authority to civil and criminal cases, and has powers of original criminal jurisdiction in cases where European British subjects are charged with serious offences and original civil jurisdiction in special cases. The Court sits at Lahore and is composed of a Chief Justice and eight Puisne Judges (either civilians or barristers), and six temporary Additional Judges, including the Inspecting Judge sanctioned each year for six months. Subordinate to the High Court are the District and Sessions Judges (25 in number) each of whom exercise civil and criminal jurisdiction in a civil and session division comprising one or more districts. In districts in which the Frontier Crimes Regulation is in force the Deputy Commissioner on the finding of a Council of Elders (Jirga) may pass sentence up to seven years' imprisonment.

Local Self-Government.

Local Self-Government is secured in certain branches of the administration by the constitution of District Boards, each exercising authority over a district; of Municipal, Small Town, and Notified Area Committees each exercising authority over an urban area, and of Panchayats, each exercising authority over a revenue estate or a compact group of revenue estates. The funds of District Boards are derived from a cess on the land revenue of the district supplemented by Government grants, profession taxes and miscellaneous fees, and those of Municipal, Small Town, and Notified Area Committees from octroi or terminal tax and other forms of taxation from Government grants and from rents and miscellaneous fees. The Panchayat system is an attempt to revive the traditional village community organisation, the elected committee or Panchayat possessing certain powers in respect of taxation, local option, civil and criminal justice, the abatement of nuisances and other matters. Most of the members of practically all local bodies are now elected and elections are usually keenly contested.

Police.

The Police force is divided into District Police, Railway Police and Criminal Investigation Department. The combined force is under the control of the Inspector-General, who is a member of the gazetted force and has under him three Deputy Inspectors-General in charge of ranges comprising several districts and a fourth Deputy Inspector-General in charge of the Criminal Investigation Department and of the Finger Print Bureau at Phillaur. There is a Police Training School at Phillaur controlled by a Principal of the rank of Superintendent of Police. The Railway Police are under an Assistant Inspector-General. The District Police are controlled by Superintendents, each of whom is in charge of a district and has under him one or more Assistant Superintendents or Deputy Superintendents.

Education.

The strides which have been made in the past decade especially in the concluding years of the period, have brought the Punjab into line with the older and more forward provinces. The advance has not been confined to any one form of education but is spread over all grades and varieties. In addition to institutions maintained in all parts of the province by private enterprise, Government itself maintains fifteen arts colleges (including one for Europeans and one for women), three normal schools for males, twelve training classes, and combined institutions for females, one hundred and twenty secondary schools for boys and girls and fifty centres for vocational training. Apart from these institutions for general education, Government maintains six higher grade professional institutions, *viz.*, the King Edward Medical College and Veterinary College at Lahore, the Agricultural College at Lyallpur, the Engineering College at Moghalpura, the Central Training College, Lahore and the Chelmsford Training College at Ghoragali, and two schools, *viz.*, the Medical School at Amritsar and the Engineering School at Rasul. In addition there are thirty-two technical and industrial schools (thirty for males and two for females) scattered over the province.

The Department of Education is in charge of the Minister for Education who is assisted in the work of administration by the Director of Public Instruction.

Medical.

The Medical Department is controlled by the Inspector-General of Civil Hospitals, who is an officer of the Indian Medical Service holding the rank of Colonel. He is assisted by an officer designated the Assistant Inspector General of Civil Hospitals, who is at present an officer of the Indian Medical Department of the rank of a Civil Surgeon.

Public Health.

The Department of Public Health is controlled by the Director of Public Health (a member of the Indian Medical Service) who has, working under him, three Assistant Directors of Public Health, 34 District Medical Officers of Health, and twenty-eight District Sanitary Inspectors. In addition there is a temporary staff of 10 Sub-Assistant Health Officers and 15 Sanitary Inspectors for assistance in combating epidemic diseases. The ancillary services comprise

(1) A Vaccine Institute which is in charge of the Assistant Director of Public Health, Punjab (Technical) Vaccination, assisted by a Superintendent and which prepares sufficient vaccine lymph to meet the needs not only of the Punjab, but of the Army in Northern India and of several provinces and Indian States in and beyond the confines of India.

(2) An epidemiological bureau, which is in charge of the Epidemiologist to Government where, in addition to routine bacteriological examination, research work in matters bearing upon public health problems is carried out.

(3) An Education Bureau, to which is attached a photographer and a draftsman.

(4) A Chemical Laboratory in charge of a fully trained chemist whose duties comprise the chemical analysis of water samples and food stuffs.

(5) A Public Health Equipment Depot which supplies Government Institutions, local bodies, etc., with reliable disinfectants, vaccine sera, etc.

(6) A Public Health School, the staff of which is responsible for the training of health visitors. The Principal, who is also Inspectress of Health Centres, supervises the maternity and child welfare work throughout the province.

In matters connected with sanitary works the Director of Public Health works in close touch with the Superintending Engineer, Public Health Circle, Punjab, who acts as technical adviser of the Public Health Department in engineering matters. This officer and the Director of Public Health are also the technical advisers of the Sanitary Board whose duty it is to examine and report upon sanitary schemes put forward by local bodies.

Heads of Account.	Budget Estimate, 1933-34.	Heads of Account.	Budget Estimate, 1933-34.
Revenue Receipts.	*(In thousands of Rupees.)*		*(In thousands of Rupees.)*
Principal Heads of Revenue.		XIV—Irrigation—Works for which no capital accounts are kept.	1,91
II—Taxes on Income ..	....	Total ..	4,22,20
V—Land Revenue (gross)..	4,56,75	*Debt Services.*	
Deduct—Revenue credited to Irrigation.	—1,77,96	XVI—Interest	9,40
Total Land Revenue ..	2,78,79	*Civil Administration.*	
VI—Excise	98,37	XVII—Administration of Justice	10,25
VII—Stamps	1,15,97	XVIII—Jails and Convict Settlements.	3,35
VIII—Forests	17,70	XIX—Police	1,70
IX—Registration	8,43	XXVI—Miscellaneous Departments.	8,55
Total ..	5,19,26	Total ..	23,85
Irrigation.		*Beneficent Departments.*	
XIII—Irrigation—Works for which capital accounts are kept—		XXI—Education	17,87
Direct Receipts ..	4,22,74	XXII—Medical	9,12
Indirect credits (Land Revenue due to Irrigation).	1,77,96	XXIII—Public Health	1,35
Gross amount	6,00,70	XXIV—Agriculture	6,82
Deduct—Working Expenses.	—1,80,41	XXV—Industries	3,93
Net XIII—Irrigation Receipts.	4,20,29	Total ..	39,09

Heads of Account.	Budget Estimate, 1933-34.	Heads of Account.	Budget Estimate, 1933-34.
Buildings and Roads.	*(In thousands of Rupees.)*		*(In thousands of Rupees.)*
XXX—Civil Works	16,74	Depreciation Reserve Fund for Government Presses	39
XXX-A—Hydro Electric	11,12	Revenue Reserve Fund	..
Deduct—Working Expenses.	—8,95	Central Road Fund	7,00
Net XXX-A—Hydro Electric scheme.	2,17	Miscellaneous Government account	
Total ..	18,91	Research Fund	158
Miscellaneous.		Total ..	38,85
XXXII—Transfers from Insurance Fund.	....	Total Provincial Receipts.	11,98,11
XXXIII—Receipts in aid of Superannuation.	1,32	Opening Balance	—40,268
XXXIV—Stationery and Printing	2,73	Grand Total ..	12,38,46
XXXV—Miscellaneous ..	17,25	Expenditure Charged to Revenue. *Direct demands on the Revenue.*	
Total ..	21,30	5—Land Revenue	35,88
Contributions and Assignments to Central and Provincial Governments.		6—Excise	9,81
XXXIX-A—Miscellaneous adjustments between the Central and Provincial Governments.	....	7—Stamps	2,01
XL-A—Transfers from the Revenue Reserve Fund	....	8—Forests	19,42
Total Revenue Receipts ..	10,54,01	9—Registration (R.) .. .. (T.)	.. 75
Extraordinary Items.		Total ..	67,87
XL—Extraordinary Receipts ..	30,74	*Irrigation Revenue Account.*	
Total Revenue ..	10,84,75	14—Works for which capital accounts are kept (Interest on debt.)	1,36,38
Advance from Provl. Loans Fund.	50,00	15—Miscellaneous Irrigation Expenditure.	10,35
Loans and Advances by Provincial Governments.		Total ..	1,46,73
Recoveries of loans and advances.	24,58	*Debt Services.*	
Deposits and Advances.		19—Interest on Ordinary Debt ..	—21,29
Famine Relief Fund	1,09	21—Reduction or Avoidance of Debt.	27,88
Appropriations for reduction or avoidance of debt:—		Total ..	—6,59
Sinking Fund for Provincial Loans	1,56	*Civil Administration.*	
Other appropriations	26,32	22—General Administration (Reserved).	1,05,37
		22—General Administration (Transferred).	1,89
		24—Administration of Justice ..	53,14

Heads of Account.	Budget Estimate, 1933-34.	Heads of Account.	Budget Estimate, 1933-34.
	(In thousands of Rupees.)		*In thousands of Rupees.)*
25—Jails and Convict Settlements.	31,64	51-A—Miscellaneous adjustments between the Central and Provincial Governments.	....
26—Police	1,20,99	Total ..	....
37—Miscellaneous Departments (Reserved).	1,43	*Extraordinary Items.*	
37—Miscellaneous Departments (Transferred).	24	52—Extraordinary charges ..	....
Total ..	3,14,70	62-I—Transfers to Revenue Reserve Fund.	....
Beneficent Departments.		Total Revenue Expenditure charged to Revenue.	10,25,28
30—Scientific Departments ..	23		
31—Education (Reserved) ..	5,42	Capital Expenditure Charged to Revenue	
31—Education (Transferred) ..	1,50,60	8-A—Forests	3,66
32—Medical (R.)	10	16—Irrigation Works	....
32—Medical (T.)	44,47	35-A—Industrial Development ..	....
33—Public Health	11,63	41-A—Civil Works	4,55
34—Agriculture	44,38	41-B—Hydro Electric Scheme ..	....
35—Industries	12,03	45-A—Commutation of Pensions.	....
Total ..	2,68,86	Total Capital Expenditure charged to Revenue.	8,21
Buildings and Roads.		Total Expenditure charged to Revenue.	10,33,49
41—Civil Works Reserved ..	1,26		
41—Civil Works Transferred ..	91,92	*Capital Expenditure not charged to Revenue.*	
41-C—Civil Works, Hydro Electric Scheme—Interest on Capital Outlay.	30,17	52-A—Forest Capital Expenditure	....
Total ..	1,23,35	55—Construction of Irrigation Navigation Embankment and Drainage Works.	26,10
Miscellaneous.		56-C—Industrial Development Capital Expenditure.	....
43—Famine	2,00	58—Hydro Electric Scheme Capital Expenditure.	67,54
45—Superannuation Allowances and Pensions.	60,23	60—Civil Works—Capital Expenditure.	....
46—Stationery and Printing (Reserved).	9,15	60 B—Payment of Commuted value of Pensions Capital Expenditure.	11,13
46—Stationery and Printing (Transferred).	69	Total Capital Expenditure not charged to Revenue.	1,04,77
47—Miscellaneous (Reserved) ..	715		
47—Miscellaneous (Transferred)..	17,96	Loans raised in the Market :—	
Total ..	97,18	6½ per cent. Punjab Bonds, 1933	1,04
Contributions and Assignments.		5½ „ „ „ 1937	48
51—Contribution to the Central Government.	....	Total ..	1,52

Heads of Account.	Budget Estimate, 1933-34.	Heads of Account.	Budget Estimate, 1933-34.
	(In thousands of Rupees.)		*(In thousands of Rupees.)*
Advances from Provincial Loans Funds (Repayments).	26,32	Appropriation for reduction or avoidance of Debts :—	
Loans and Advances by Provincial Governments :—		Sinking Fund for Provincial Loans.	1,56
		Suspense	....
Loans and Advances (Reserved).	9,54	Depreciation Reserve Fund for Govt. Presses	48
" " " (Transferred)	4,56	Revenue Reserve Fund ..	....
		Central Road Fund	7,00
		Government Accounts	....
		Reserve Fund Account ..	97
Total ..	14,10	Total ..	10,01
		Total Provincial Disbursements	11,90,21
Deposits and Advances :— Famine Relief Fund	....	Closing Balance ..	48,25
		Grand Total	12,38,46

Administration.

Governor, H. E. Sir Herbert William Emerson, K.C.S.I., C.I.E., C.B.E., I.C.S.

PERSONAL STAFF.

Private Secretary, Major R. T. Lawrence, M.C., Hodson's Horse.

Aides-de-Camp:—Lieut. the Hon'ble W. Edwards, 15th Kings Hussars ; Lieut. L. P. Le-Marchand, 5th Royal Ghurkha Rifles (F.F.)

Indian Aides-de-Camp:—Captain Todar Singh (Hon.); Hon. Captain Sardar Bahadur Mohammed Feroze Khan, M.B.E., Hony. Captain Sardar Bahadur Chanda Sing, I.O.M.

MEMBERS OF COUNCIL.

The Hon'ble Captain Khan Bahadur Sardar Sir Sikander Hyat-Khan, K.B.E. (Revenue).

The Hon'ble Sir H. D. Craik, Bart., C.S.I, I.C.S., (Finance).

MINISTERS.

The Hon'ble Sardar Sir Jogendra Singh, Kt., Minister for Agriculture.

The Hon'ble Dr. Gokul Chand Narang, M.A., Ph.D., Minister for Local Self-Government.

The Hon'ble Malik Sir Firoz Khan Noon, Kt., Minister for Education.

CIVIL SECRETARIAT.

Chief Secretary, F. H. Puckle, C.I.E., I.C.S.

Home Secretary, J. W. Hearn, I.C.S.

Financial Secretary, C. M. G. Ogilvie, C.B.E., I.C.S.

Secretary, Transferred Departments, P. Marsden, I.C.S.

Public Works Department.

Irrigation Branch.

Secretary, (Southern Canals), T. B. Tate.

Secretary, (Northern Canals), A. Murphy, O.B.E.

Secretary, (Construction), F. J. Waller.

Buildings and Roads Branch.

Secretary, D. Macfarlane.

Financial Commissioners, Miles Irving, C.I.E., O.B.E., I.C.S. *(Revenue)*, D. J. Boyd, C.I.E., I.C.S. *(Development.)*

MISCELLANEOUS DEPARTMENTS.

Director of Agriculture, H. R. Stewart, I.A.S.

Director of Land Records and Inspector General of Registration, K. S. Malik Abdul Haq, B.A.

Director of Public Instruction, R. Sanderson, M.A.

Inspector General of Police, J. M. Ewart, C.I.E.

Chief Conservator of Forests, R. N. Parker, I.F.S.

Inspector-General of Civil Hospitals, Colonel C. H. Reinhold, M.C., F.R.C.S.E., I.M.S.

Director of Public Health, Major R. C. Malhotra, O.B.E., I.M.S.

Inspector-General of Prisons, Lt.-Col. F. A. Barker, O.B.E., I.M.S.

Accountant-General, Cyril E. Gwyther, B.A. (Cantab.), F.R.E.S.

Postmaster-General, Major A. Angelo, O.B.E.

LIEUTENANT-GOVERNORS OF THE PUNJAB.

Sir John Lawrence, Bart., G.C.B..	1856
Sir Robert Montgomery, K.C.B	1859
Donald Friell McLeod, C.B.	1865
Major-General Sir Henry Durand, K.C.S.I., C.B., died at Tonk, January 1871.	1870
R. H. Davies, C.S.I.	1871
R. E. Egerton, C.S.I.	1877
Sir Charles U. Aitchison, K.C.S.I., C.I.E...	1882
James Broadwood Lyal	1887
Sir Dennis Fitzpatrick, K.C.S.I.	1892
William Macworth Young, C.S.I... ..	1897
Sir C. M. Rivaz, K.C.S.I.	1902
Sir D. C. J. Ibbetson, K.C.S.I., resigned 22nd January 1908.	1907
T. G. Walker, C.S.I. (Offg.)	1907
Sir Louis W. Dane, K.C.I.E., C.S.I... ..	1908
James McCrone Douie, (Offg.)	1911
Sir M. F. O'Dwyer, K.C.S.I.	1913
Sir Edward Maclagan, K.C.I.E., C.S.I. ..	1919

GOVERNORS OF THE PUNJAB.

Sir Edward Maclagan, K.C.I.E., C.S.I. ..	1920
Sir Malcolm Hailey, K.C.S.I., C.I.E. ..	1924
Sir Geoffrey de Montmorency, G.C.I.E., K.C.S.I., K.C.V.O., C.B.E.	1928
Sir Herbert William Emerson, K.C.S.I., C.I.E., C.B.E., I.C.S.	1933

PUNJAB LEGISLATIVE COUNCIL.

The Hon'ble Chaudhri, Sir Shahab-ud-Din, Kt., K.B., Kangra-*cum*-Gurdaspur (Muhammadan). Rural.– *President.*

MEMBERS AND MINISTERS.

Ex-Officio.

The Hon'ble Captain Sirdar Sikander Hyat Khan, M.B.E., K.B., Revenue Member to Government, Punjab.
The Hon'ble Sir Henry Craik, Bart., C.S.I., I.C.S., Finance Member to Government, Punjab.
The Hon'ble Sardar Sir Jogendra Singh, Kt., Minister for Agriculture (Sikh), Landholders.
The Hon'ble Malik Firoz Khan, Noon, Minister for Education, Shahpur East (Muhammadan), Rural.
The Hon'ble Dr. Gokul Chand Narang, M.A., Ph. D., Minister for Local Self-Government (North-West Towns Non-Muhammadan), Urban.

NOMINATED.

Officials.

Anderson, Mr. J. D., I.C.S., Legal Remembrancer and Secretary to Government, Legislative Department.
Boyd, Mr. D. J., C.I.E., I.C.S., Financial Commissioner, Development.
Fazal Habi, Khan Saheb Shaikh, Director, Information Bureau.
Hearn, Mr. J. W., I.C.S., Home Secretary to Government.
Malhotra, Major R. C., O.B.E., D.P.H., I.M.S., Director of Public Health.
Marsden, Mr. P., I.C.S., Secretary to Government, Transferred Departments.
Miles Iwing, Mr., C.I.E., O.B.E., I.C.S., Financial Commissioner, Revenue.
Ogilvie, Mr. C. M. G., C.B.E., I.C.S., Secretary to Government, Finance Department.
Sanderson, Mr. L., M.A., I.E.S., Director of Public Instruction.
Puckle, Mr. F. H., C.I.E., I.C.S., Chief Secretary to Government.
Staig, Mr. B. M., I.C.S., Joint Secretary to Government, Industries Department.
Murphy, Mr. A., O.B.E., Chief Engineer, Public Works Department, Irrigation Branch.

Non-officials.

Ghani, Mr. M. A.	Representaive of Labouring Classes.
Janmeja Singh, Captain, Sardar Bahadur Sardar, O.B.I.	Representative of the Punjab Officers and Soldiers of His Majesty's Indian Forces.
Labh Chand Mehra, Lala	Representative of General Interests.
Maya Das, Mr. Ernest, B.A.	Representative of Indian Christians.
Mushtaq Ahmad, Gurmani, Khan Bahadur, Mian.	Representative of General Interests.
Rahim Bakhsh, Maulvi, Sir, K.C.I.E.	Representative of General Interests.
Roberts, Mr. Owen.	Representative of the European and Anglo-Indian Communities.
Shave, Dr. (Mrs.) M.C.	Representative of the European and Anglo-Indian Communities.
Sheo Narain Singh, Sardar Bahadur Sardar, C.I.E.	Representative of General Interests.

ELECTED.

Name of Member.	Constituency.
Abdul Ghani Shaikh	West Punjab Towns (Muhammadan), Urban.
Ahmad Yar Khan, Daultana, Khan Bahadur Mian.	(Muhammadan), Landholders.
Akbar Ali, Pir, B.A., LL.B.	Ferozepore (Muhammadan), Rural.
Allah Dad Khan, Chaudhri, B.A.	Ambala Division, North-East (Muhammadan), Rural.
Arjan Singh, Sardar, B.A., LL.B.	Hoshiarpur and Kangra (Sikh), Rural.
Bahadur Khan Sardar, M.B.E.	Dera Ghazi Khan (Muhammadan), Rural.
Balbir Singh, Rao Bahadur Captain, Rao, O.B.E.	Gurgaon (Non-Muhammadan), Rural.
Bansi Lal, Chaudhri	Lahore City (Non-Muhammadan), Urban.
Bhagat Ram, Lala	Jullundur-*cum*-Ludhiana (Non-Muhammadan), Rural.
Bishan Singh, Sardar	Sialkot-*cum*-Gurdaspur (Sikh), Rural.
Buta Singh, Sardar Bahadur Sardar, B.A., LL.B.	Multan Division and Sheikhupura (Sikh), Rural.
Chetan Anand, Lala, B.A., LL.B.	West Punjab Towns (Non-Muhammadan), Urban.
Chhotu Ram, Rao Bahadur Chaudhri, B.A., LL.B.	South-East Rohtak (Non-Muhammadan), Rural.
Chowdhry, Mr. Sajan Kumar	Hissar (Non-Muhammadan), Rural.
Din Muhammad, Khan Bahadur Shaikh, M.A., LL.B.	East and West Central Towns (Muhammadan), Urban.
Faqir Husain Khan, Chaudhri	Amritsar (Muhammadan), Rural.
Fazl Ali, Khan Bahadur Nawab Chaudhri, O.B.E.	Gujrat East (Muhammadan), Urban.

Name of Member.	Constituency.
Gopal Das, Lala	Lahore and Ferozepore-*cum*-Sheikhupura (Non-Muhammadan), Rural.
Gurbachan Singh, Sardar	Jullundur (Sikh), Rural.
Habib Ullah, Khan Bahadur, Sardar	Lahore (Muhammadan), Rural.
Haibat Khan Daha, Khan	Multan East (Muhammadan), Rural.
Afzal Haq, Chaudhri	Hoshiarpur-*cum*-Ludhiana (Muhammadan), Rural.
Jagdev Khan Kharal, Rai	Lyallpur North (Muhammadan), Rural.
Jaswant Singh, Guru	Ferozepore (Sikh), Rural.
Jawahar Singh Dhillon, Sardar, B.Sc. (Agri.) (Wales), M.S.P. (London).	Lahore (Sikh), Rural.
Jyoti Prasad, Lala, B.A., LL.B.	South-East Towns (Non-Muhammadan), Urban.
Kesar Singh, Rai Sahib Chaudhri	Amritsar-*cum*-Gurdaspur (Non-Muhammadan) Rural.
Labh Singh, Mr., M.A., LL.B. (Cantab.)	Rawalpindi Division and Lahore Division North, (Non-Muhammadan), Rural.
Malak, Mr. Muhammad Din	Lahore City (Muhammadan), Urban.
Mamraj Singh Chohan, Kanwar, B.A., LL.B.	Ambala-*cum*-Simla (Non-Muhammadan) Rural.
Manohar Lal, Mr., M.A.	Punjab University.
Lekhvati, Shrinathi	North-East Towns (Non-Muhammadan), Urban.
Mohan Singh, Sardar Bahadur Sardar	Rawalpindi Division and Gujranwala (Sikh), Rural.
Mohindar Singh, Sardar	Ludhiana (Sikh), Rural.
Mubarak Ali Shah, Sayad	Jhang (Muhammadan), Rural.
Muhammad Abdul Rahman Khan, Chaudhri.	Jullundur (Muhammadan), Rural.
Muhammad Amin Khan, Khan Bahadur, Malik, O.B.E.	Attock (Muhammadan), Rural.
Muhammad Eusoof, Khwaja	South-East Town (Muhammadan), Urban.
Muhammad Hayat, Qureshi, Khan Bahadur Mian, C.I.E.	Shahpur West (Muhammadan), Rural.
Muhammad Hasan, Khan Sahib, Makhdum, Shaikh.	Muzaffargarh (Muhammadan), Rural.
Muhammad Jamal Khan Leghari, Khan Bahadur, Nawab.	Baluch Tumandars (Landholders).
Muhammad Raza Shah Gilani, Makhdumzada, Sayad.	Multan West (Muhammadan), Rural.
Muhammad Sadiq, Shaikh	Amritsar City (Muhammadan), Urban.
Muhammad Sarfaraz Ali Khan, Raja	Jhelum (Muhammadan), Rural.
Muhammad Yasin Khan, Chaudhri, B.A., LL.B.	Gurgaon-*cum*-Hissar (Muhammadan), Rural.
Mukand Lal Puri, Mr., M.A.	Punjab Industries.
Mukerji, Rai Bahadur Mr. P.	Punjab Chamber of Commerce and Trades Association Commerce.
Muzaffar Khan, Khan Bahadur Captain Malik.	Mianwali (Muhammadan), Rural.
Narendra Nath, Diwan Bahadur Raja, M.A.	Punjab Landholders (General).
Nathwa Singh, Chaudhri	Karnal (Non-Muhammadan), Rural.
Nazir Husain, Chaudhri, B.A., LL.B.	Gujrat West (Muhammadan), Rural.
Nihal Chand Aggarwal, Lala	East and West Central Towns (Non-Muhammadan), Urban.
Noor Ahmed Khan, Khan Sahib Mian	Montgomary (Muhammadan), Rural.
Nur Khan, Khan Sahib, Risaldar Bahadur	Rawalpindi (Muhammadan), Rural.
Nurulah, Mian, B. Com. (London), F.R.E.S.	Lyallpur South (Muhammadan), Rural.
Panchani Chand, Thakur	Kangra (Non-Muhammadan), Rural.
Pandit, Mr. Nanak Chand, M.A.	Hoshiarpur (Non-Muhammadan), Rural.
Raghbir Singh, Honorary Lieutenant Sardar, O.B.E.	Amritsar (Sikh), Rural.
Ramji Das, Lala	Amritsar City (Non-Muhammadan), Urban.
Ram Sarup, Chaudhri	North-West Rohtak (Non-Muhammadan), Rural.
Ram Singh, 2nd-Lieut- Sardar	Ambala Division (Sikh), Rural.
Riasat Ali, Chaudhri, B.A., LL.B.	Gujranwala (Muhammadan), Rural.
Sampuran Singh, Sardar	Lyallpur (Sikh), Rural.
Sewak Ram, Rai Bahadur, Lala	Multan Division (Non-Muhammadan), Rural.
Shah Muhammad, Chaudhri	Sheikupura (Muhammadan), Rural.
Ujjal Singh, Sardar, Sahib Sardar, M.A.	Sikh (Urban).
Zafrulla Khan, Chaudhri, B.A., LL.B.	Sialkot (Muhammadan), Rural.

Mr. Abnasha Singh, Bar-at-Law, Secretary, Legislative Council, Cecil Hotel, Simla.

Hakim Ahmed Shujaa, B.A., Assistant Secretary, Legislative Council, Metropole Hotel, Simla.

Burma.

The Province of Burma lies between Assam on the North-West and China on the North-East, and between the Bay of Bengal on the West and South-West and Siam on the South-East. Its area is approximately 261,000 square miles, of which 192,000 are under direct British Administration, 7,000 are unadministered and 62,000 belong to semi-independent Native States. The main geographical feature of the country is the series of rivers and hills running fan-like from North to South with fertile valleys in between widening and flattening out as they approach the Delta. Differences of elevation and rainfall produce great variations in climate. The coastal tracts of Arakan and Tenasserim have a rainfall of about 200 inches, the Delta less than half that amount. The hot season is short and the monsoon breaks early. The maximum shade temperature is about 96°, the minimum about 60°. North of the Delta the rainfall decreases rapidly to 30 inches in the central dry zone which lies in a "rain shadow" and has a climate resembling that of Bihar. The maximum temperature is twenty degrees higher than in the wet zone, but this is compensated by a bracing cold season. To the north and east of the dry zone lie the Kachin hills and the Shan plateau. The average elevation of this tableland is 3,000 feet with peaks rising to 9,000. Consequently it enjoys a temperate climate with a rainfall of about 70 inches on the average. Its area is over 50,000 square miles. There is no other region of similar area in the Indian Empire so well adapted for European colonization. The magnificent rivers, the number of hilly ranges (Yomas) and the abundance of forests, all combine to make the scenery of Burma exceedingly varied and picturesque.

The People.

The total population of Burma at the census of 1931 was 14,667,146. There were 9,092,214 Burmans, 1,037,406 Shans, 1,367,673 Karens, 153,345 Kachins, 348,994 Chins, 534,985 Arakanese and Yanbye, 336,728 Talaings and 138,739 Palaungs. There is also a large alien population of 193,594 Chinese and 1,017,825 Indians, while the European and Anglo-Indian population numbered 30,441, and Indo-Burmans, 182,166.

The Burmans, who form the bulk of the population, belong to the Tibetan group and their language to the Tibeto-Chinese family. They are essentially an agricultural people, 80 per cent. of the agriculture of the country being in their hands. The Burmese and most of the hill tribes also, profess Buddhism, but Arimism, or the worship of nature spirits, is almost universal. The interest taken by the Burmese in the course of the war, their response to the call for recruits and their generous contributions to war loans and charitable funds seem to show that their apathy towards the government of the country is giving way to an intelligent loyalty to British rule.

In appearance the Burman is usually somewhat short and thick set with Mongolian features. His dress is most distinctive and exceedingly comfortable. It consists of a silk handkerchief bound round his forehead, a loose jacket on his body and a long skirt or longyi tied round his waist, reaching to his ankles. The Burmese women, perhaps the most pleasing type of womanhood in the East, lead a free and open life, playing a large part in the household economy and in petty trading. Their dress is somewhat similar to the men's minus the silk kerchief on the head, and the longyi is tucked in at the side instead of being tied in front. A well dressed and well groomed Burmese lady would, for grace and neatness, challenge comparison with any woman in the world.

Communications.

The Irrawaddy, and to a less extent the Chindwin, afford great natural thoroughfares to the country. At all seasons of the year these rivers, especially the Irrawaddy, are full of sailing and steam craft. In the Delta the net-work of waterways is indeed practically the only means of communication. The Irrawaddy Flotilla Company, with a fine fleet of mail, cargo and ferry boats, gives the Irrawaddy and the Delta rivers and creeks a splendid river service.

The Burma Railways has a length of 2,057·25 miles open line. The principal lines are from Rangoon to Mandalay; from Mandalay to Myitkyina, the most northern point in the system; the Rangoon-Prome line; and the Pegu-Martaban line, which serves Moulmein on the further bank of the Salween River.

Industry.

Agriculture is the chief industry of the province and supports nearly three-fourths of the population. The nett total cropped area is 16¼ million acres of which nearly ¾ million acres are cropped more than once. Irrigation works supply water to nearly 1 million acres. India is very largely dependent on Burma for her supplies of kerosene, benzine and petrol which rank second to rice in order of importance. Teak wood is exported in large quantities from Burma to India.

Forests play an important part in the industrial life of the Province. The forest reserves cover some 34,705 square miles, while unclassed forests are estimated at about 1,48,576 square miles. Government extracts some 72,731 tons of teak annually, private firms, of whom the Bombay Burma Trading Corporation and Steel Brothers are the chief, extract over 2,52,297 tons. Other timber extracted by licensees amounts to over 2,37,804 tons and firewood over 10,45,161 tons.

Tin and wolfram are found chiefly in the Tavoy and Mergui Districts. Wolfram and tin are found together in most mining areas in Tavoy, the proportion varying from almost pure tin to almost pure wolfram. There has been on improvement in the price of tin.

There was a slight improvement in the output of tin and wolfram during the year 1932, as compared with the output of 1931. Silver lead

and zinc ore are extracted by the Burma Corporation at Bawdwin in the Northern Shan States. Copper in small quantities is also found there. There are small deposits of Molybdenite in Tavoy and Mergui and of plantinum in Myitkyina. The Burma Ruby Mines, Ltd. which had the sole right to work for precious stones in the Mogok Stone Tract of the Katha District surrendered their lease on the 30th June 1931. Mining is now carried out by native miners working under licenses. There was no output of precious stones from the ruby mines in 1932. The output of amber in 1932 was 11.442 cwt. The output of Burmese Jadeite during 1932 compared with that of the previous year showed an increase of 260.78 cwts. but the value depreciated considerably owing mainly to the inferior quality of mineral obtained. Conditions in China also contributed to a fall in value. The oldest and largest oil field in the province is at Yenangyaung in the Magwe District where the Burma Oil Company has its chief wells. There was a decrease in the output from the wells in the Yenangyaung oilfield due to a natural decline in the production of the wells. There was an increase in the output of the Chindwin District which is ascribed to five new wells in the Indaw Oilfield being brought into operation during the year. There was also an increase in the output in the Pakokku District due to the greater activity of the operators. The output of petroleum during 1932 exceeded that of 1931 by 3,655,727 gallons the increase being mainly from wells in the Pakokku District and the Chauk Oilfield of the Magwe District. The Burma Oil Company take their oil to the refineries at Rangoon by pipe line from the Yenangyaung and Singu Oilfields. Other companies take it down by river flats. The area under rubber is 1,10,445 acres.

Manufactures.

There are 1,093 factories, more than half of which are engaged in milling rice and nearly one-seventh are sawmills. The remainder are chiefly engineering works, cotton ginning mills, oil mills for the extraction of oil from groundnuts, printing presses, ice and aerated water factories and oil refineries connected with the petroleum industry. The total number of persons employed in establishments under the Indian Factories Act in 1932 was 90,578. Perennial factories employed 42,652 and seasonal factories 47,926. At the Census of 1931, 1,850,176 or 29.79 per cent. of the total population were engaged outside agriculture and production.

As is the case in other parts of the Indian Empire, the imported and factory made article is rapidly ousting the home-made and indigenous. But at Amarapura in the Mandalay District a revival has taken place of hand silk-weaving. Burmese wood-carving is still famous and many artists in silver still remain, the finish of whose work is sometimes very fine. Bassein and Mandalay parasols are well known and much admired in Burma. But perhaps the most famous of all hand-made and indigenous industries is the lacquer work of Pagan with its delicate patterns in black, green, and yellow traced on a ground-work of red lacquer over bamboo. A new art is the making of bronze figures. The artists have gone back to nature for their models, breaking away from the conventionalized forms into which their silver work had crystallized and the new figures display a vigour and life that make them by far the finest examples of art the province can produce.

Administration.

Burma, which was at that time administered as a Lieutenant-Governorship, was deliberately excluded from the operation of the Reform Act of 1919. It was felt that the Province differed so markedly from the other Provinces in the Indian Empire that its requirements should be separately considered. After repeated discussions the question was referred to a special Burma Reforms Committee, which in 1922 recommended that all the essential provisions of the Reform Act should be applied to the Province. This recommendation was accepted and its proposals became law. Under this Act Burma became a Governor's Province, with an executive council and ministers, and conforms to the provinces recreated under the Act of 1919 (q.v.). The main difference is in the size of the electorate. Under the franchise accepted, the rural electorate is estimated at 1,979,450 and the urban electorate has been put as high as 99,882. The Legislative Council consists of 103 members, of which 80 are elected and the balance nominated. Owing to the special status of women in Burma, female franchise was adopted from the beginning.

Burma is divided administratively into Upper Burma (including the Shan States and Chin Hills) and Lower Burma. The Shan States are administered by the Chiefs of the States, subject to the supervision of the Commissioner, Federated Shan States, who is also Superintendent for the Southern Shan States, and the Superintendent of the Northern Shan States. The Northern and Southern Shan States were formed into a Federation on the 1st October 1922, and are designated the F. S. States. The other Shan States in Burma are subject to the supervision of the Commissioner, Sagaing Division. The Civil, Criminal and Revenue administration is vested in the Chief of the State, subject to the restrictions contained in the sanad. The law administered is the customary law of the State.

Under the Governor are eight Commissioners of divisions, three in Upper, four in Lower Burma, and one in the Federated Shan States.

Justice.

The administration of Civil and Criminal Justice is under the control of the High Court of Judicature at Rangoon, which consists of a Chief Justice and ten other permanent Judges. The Superior Judicial Service consists of District and Sessions Judges; there are also separate Provincial and Subordinate Judicial Services.

All village headmen have limited magisterial powers and a considerable number are also invested with civil jurisdiction to a limited extent.

In pursuance of the policy of decentralization steps were taken in 1917 to restore to the village headmen the power and influence which they possessed in Burmese times before the centralizing tendencies of British rule made them practically subordinate officers of the administration.

Public Works.

The P.W.D. comprises two Branches, *viz.*, the B. & R. Branch the Irrigation Branch.

The B. & R. Branch of this Department which is under the Ministry of Forests is administered by one Chief Engineer. There is also a Personal Assistant to the Chief Engineer. There are four permanent Superintending Engineers in charge of Circles, two of which are stationed at Rangoon and two at Maymyo. One post of Superintending Engineer has continued to be in abeyance for reasons of retrenchment. These are officers of the administrative rank.

Those of the executive rank are the Executive Engineers and Assistant Executive Engineers who number 25 (twenty five), including the Personal Assistant to the Chief Engineer, on the cadre of the Indian Service of Engineers. Besides this there is also the Burma Engineering Service (Class I) which has been constituted for the purpose of gradually replacing the Indian Service of Engineers in the B. & R. Branch; so far 18 appointments have been made to the latter service. There are 16 officers in service at present.

Further, there are the following officers belonging to the specialist services who are stationed at Rangoon :—

(1) One Superintending Engineer, Public Health Circle.
(2) Two Sanitary Engineers.
(3) One Electrical Inspector.
(4) Two Electrical Engineers.
(5) One Consulting Architect.
(6) One Superintendent of Stores.
(7) One Assistant Superintendent of Stores.

The Irrigation Branch of the P.W.D., which is under the control of the Hon'ble Finance Member, is administered by the Chief Engineer, P.W.D., Burma Irrigation Branch, who is assisted by a Personal Asstt. There are four permanent Superintending Engineers in charge of Circles, two of whom are stationed at Rangoon and two at Maymyo. One of these posts in the headquarters at Rangoon is temporarily held in abeyance on account of the financial stringency. These are officers of the Administrative rank.

Those of the Executive rank are the Executive Engineers and Asst. Executive Engineers who number 20 on this cadre of the Indian Service of Engineers. Besides this there is also the Burma Engineering service, which is a Provincial Service.

Further, there is a River Training Expert. On account of reduction of works due to the financial stringency the number of temporary Engineers recruited locally and in England to augment the permanent staff has been reduced to one each.

Police.

The Police Force is divided into: Civil, Military and Rangoon Town Police. The first two are under the control of the Inspector-General of Police, the latter is under the orders of the Commissioner of Police, Rangoon, an officer of the rank of Deputy Inspector-General. There are five other Deputy Inspectors-General, one each for the Northern, Southern and Western Ranges, one for the Railway and Criminal Investigation Department, and one for the Military Police.

A special feature of Burma is the Military Police. Its officers are deputed from the Indian Army. The rank and file are recruited from natives of India with a few Kachins, Karens and Chins. The experiment of recruiting Burmese on a small scale has been successful. The organisation is military, the force being divided into battalions. The object of the force is to supplement the regular troops in Burma. Their duties, apart from their military work, are to provide escorts for specie, prisoners, etc., and guards for Treasuries, Jails and Courts.

Education.

Under the Minister for Education there is the Director of Public Instruction with an Assistant Director, both belonging to the Indian Educational Service. There are nine Inspectors of Schools drawn from the Indian Educational Service, and the Burma Educational Service (class I) while the Burma Educational Service (class II) provides seven Assistant Inspectors. There is one Asstt. Inspector of School Physical Training, appointed on a Temporary basis. There are also two Inspectresses of Schools. There is a Chief Educational Officer for the Federated Shan States.

A centralized, teaching and residential University for Burma, has been established in Rangoon. It now provides courses in Arts, Science, Law, Education, Economics, Engineering, Medicine and Forestry.

English and A. V. Schools are controlled by the Education Dept. A remarkable feature of education in Burma is the system of elementary education evolved, generations ago, by the genius of the people. Nearly every village has a monastery (hpoongyi-kyaung); every monastery is a village school and every Burman boy must, in accordance with his religion, attend that school, shaving his head and for the time wearing the yellow robe. At the hpoongyi-kyaungs the boys are taught reading and writing and an elementary native system of arithmetic. The result is that there are very few boys in Burma who are not able to read and write. Vernacular education is in the hands of Local Educational authorities.

Among special institutions, the Government Technical Institute, Insein, provides courses in Mechanical, Civil and Electrical Engineering and the Agricultural College, Mandalay, courses in Agriculture. The Mary Chapman Training College for Teachers and School for the Deaf exists in Rangoon and schools for the blind, at Moulmein and Rangoon.

A liberal scheme of State Scholarships provides for the despatch of 12 scholars to Europe each year.

Medical.

The control of the Medical Department is vested in an Inspector-General of Civil Hospitals. Under him are 37 Civil Surgeons. There is also a Director of Public Health, two Assistant Directors of Public Health, the senior of whom is also Director, Public Health Institute, at which there is now a Public Analyst (which post is at present held in abeyance for purposes of economy) and to which is also attached a Malaria Bureau, an Inspector-General of Prisons, three whole time Superintendents of Prisons, a Chemical Examiner and Bacteriologist and a Superintendent of the Mental Hospital. There is also a post of Hygiene Publicity Officer, which for the present is held in abeyance.

The Pasteur Institute was opened in Rangoon in July 1915. The Director is a member of the Indian Medical Service.

THE FINANCES OF BURMA.

In common with the other Provinces of India, the financial arrangements between the Gov-ment of India and the Government of Burma underwent a remodelling in consequence of the onstitution of the Province on the lines of the other Indian Provinces. The Province obtained stantial financial independence. The present position is set out in the following statement:—

ESTIMATED RECEIPTS FOR 1933-34.

REVENUE RECEIPTS—ORDINARY.

	Rs.
tes on Income	....
.. ..	5,06,000
d Revenue	5,37,50,000
ise	88,85,000
ips	59,96,000
st	88,32,000
istration	5,58,000
eduled Taxes	13,48,000
gation, etc., Works with apital Accounts	36,25,000
gation, etc., Works (No Capital ccounts)..	1,63,000
rest	8,27,000
inistration of Justice ..	9,62,000
s and Convict Settlements ..	8,33,000
ce	10,49,000
ts and Pilotage	2,09,000
cation	5,42,000
dical	1,07,000
lic Health	1,49,000
iculture	1,32,000
ustries	10,000
ellaneous Departments ..	5,03,000
l Works	11,34,000
ipts in Aid of Superannuation.	93,000
tionery and Printing	1,55,000
ellaneous	19,45,000
Total (*a*) ..	9,26,13,000

REVENUE RECEIPTS—EXTRAORDINARY.

raordinary Receipts	....
Total (*a*) & (*b*).. ..	9,26,13,000

(c) DEBT HEADS.

opriation for Reduction or oidance of Debt	12,85,000
eciation Fund—Government esses	89,500
eciation Fund—Commercial ncerns	....
s and Advances by Provincial vernment	31,32,700
Deposits	8,82,800
nces from Provincial Loans nd	....
Total (*c*) ..	53,90,000
Total (*a*), (*b*) & (*c*) ..	9,80,03,000
Opening Balance	1,000
Grand Total ..	9,80,04,000

ESTIMATED DISBURSEMENTS FOR 1933-34.

(A) EXPENDITURE CHARGED TO REVENUE.

	Rs.
Land Revenue	58,06,000
Excise	18,61,000
Stamps	1,29,000
Forest	67,22,000
(A) Forest Capital Outlay ..	54,000
Registration	1,64,000
Scheduled Taxes	2,000
Interest on Works with Capital Accounts	27,50,000
Other Revenue Expenditure ..	4,89,000
Construction of Irrigation, etc., Works	....
Interest on Ordinary Debt ..	—1,36,000
Interest on other Obligations ..	....
Appropriation for Reduction or Avoidance of Debt	12,85,000
General Administration	97,93,000
Administration of Justice ..	59,87,000
Jails and Convict Settlements ..	13,62,000
Police	1,78,77,000
Ports and Pilotage	7,10,000
Scientific Departments	55,000
Education	84,71,000
Medical	39,55,000
Public Health	10,19,000
Agriculture	17,34,000
Industries	2,50,000
Miscellaneous Departments ..	3,71,000
Civil Works	92,35,000
Famine	....
Superannuation Allowances and Pensions	62,65,000
Stationery and Printing	8,99,000
Miscellaneous	10,86,000
Extraordinary Charges	....
Total (*a*) ..	8,99,95,000

(B) EXPENDITURE NOT CHARGED TO REVENUE.

Capital Outlay on Forests.. ..	....
Construction of Irrigation, etc., Works	27,85,000
Civil Works	4,16,000
Other Provincial Works	....
Payment of Commuted Value of Pensions	4,38,000
Payments to Retrenched Personnel	21,000
Total (*b*) ..	36,60,000
Total (*a*) & (*b*).. ..	9,36,55,000

(C) DEBT HEADS.

Depreciation Fund—Government Presses	43,000
Loans and Advances	19,51,200
Civil Deposits	32,800
Advances from Provincial Loans Fund	16,44,000
Total (*c*) ..	36,71,000
Total (*a*), (*b*) & (*c*) ..	9,73,36,000
Closing Balance ..	6,78,000
Grand Total ..	9,80,04,000

Administration.

Governor, H. E. Sir Hugh Lansdown Stephenson, K.C.S.I., K.C.I.E.
Private Secretary, Captain Frederick William Springett Watkins, The Scinde Horse.
Aides-de-Camp, Lieutenant D. C. S. Sinclair, 2nd Battn. The Royal Berkshire Regiment; S. V. McCoy, 2nd Lancers (Gardner's Horse).
Honorary Aides-de-Camp, Lieutenant-Colonel A. Lethbridge, I.A.; Captain P. C. H. Lane, R.I.M.
Indian Aides-de-Camp, Subadar-Major Lasang Gam, late of the 3-20th Burma Rifles; Naib Commandant Atta Mohamed Khan, Khan Bahadur, Reserve Battn., Burma Military Police.

EXECUTIVE COUNCIL.

The Hon'ble Mr. Thomas Couper, C.S.I., M.A., I.C.S.
The Hon'ble U Ba, K.S.M., B.A.

Ministers.

The Hon. U Ba Pe.
The Hon. Dr. Ba Maw.

Miscellaneous Appointments.

Director of Agriculture, A. McKerral, C.I.E., M.A., B.Sc.
Commissioner, Federated Shan States, Taunggyi Southern Shan States, J. Clague, C.I.E., I.C.S.
Superintendent, Northern Shan States, J. Shaw.
Director of Public Instruction, J. M. Symns, M.A., I.E.S.
Inspector-General of Police, Lt.-Col. C. de M. Wellborne, O.B.E., I.A.
Chief Conservator of Forests, S. F. Hopwood, M.C.
Inspector-General of Civil Hospitals, Col. C. A. Gill, K.H.S., M.R.C.P. (Lon.), D.P.H. (Eng.), D.T.M. & H. (Lon.), I.M.S.
Director of Public Health, Major E. Cotter, M.B., D.P.H.
Inspector-General of Prisons, Lt.-Col. P. K. Tarapore, I.M.S.
Commissioner of Excise, A. R. Morris, B.A., I.C.S.
Financial Commissioner (Reserved Subjects), I. G. Lloyd, B.A., I.C.S.
Postmaster-General, G. A. Hopkins.

Chief Commissioners of Burma.

Lieut.-Colonel A. P. Phayre, C.B. ..	1862
Colonel A. Fytche, C.S.I.	1867
Lieut.-Colonel R. D. Ardagh	1870
The Hon. Ashley Eden, C.S.I.	1871
A. R. Thompson, C.S.I.	1875
C. U. Aitchison, C.S.I.	1878
C. E. Bernard, C.S.I.	1880
C. H. T. Crosthwaite	1886
Sir C. E. Bernard, K.C.S.I.	1883
C. H. T. Crosthwaite, C.S.I.	1887
A. P. MacDonnell, C.S.I. *(a)*	1889
Alexander Mackenzie, C.S.I.	1890
D. M. Smeaton	1892
Sir F. W. R. Fryer, K.C.S.I.	1895

(a) Afterwards (by creation) Baron MacDonnell.

Lieutenant-Governors of Burma.

Sir F. W. R. Fryer, K.C.S.I.	1897
Sir H. S. Barnes, K.C.S.I., K.C.V.O. ..	1903
Sir H. T. White, K.C.I.E.	1905
Sir Harvey Adamson, Kt., K.C.S.I., LL.D.	1910
Sir Harcourt Butler, K.C.S.I., C.I.E. ..	1915
Sir Reginald Craddock, K.C.S.I. ..	1917

Governors of Burma.

Sir Harcourt Butler, G.C.I.E., K.C.S.I. ..	1922
Sir Charles Innes, K.C.S.I., K.C.I.E., I.C.S.	1927
Sir Hugh Lansdown Stephenson, K.C.S.I., K.C.I.E.	1932

SECRETARIES, DEPUTY SECRETARIES, UNDER-SECRETARIES, Etc., TO GOVERNMENT.

W. Booth-Gravely, C.I.E., M.A., I.C.S...	Chief Secretary, Home and Political Department.
W. H. Payton, B.A., I.C.S.	Secretary, Finance Department.
H. G. Wilkie, B.A., I.C.S.	Secretary, Education Department.
G. N. Martin, I.C.S.	Secretary, Revenue Department.
R. G. McDowall, M.A., I.C.S.	Secretary, Reforms Office.
P. C. Fogarty, B.A., I.C.S.	Secretary, Forest Department.
U. Saw Hla Pru (2), A.T.M.	Secretary, Judicial Department.
R. M. MacDougall, M.A., I.C.S.	Secretary, Local Government Department.
A. H. Seymour, M.A., I.C.S.	Deputy Secretary, Finance Department.
A. K. Potter, B.A., I.C.S.	Under-Secretary, Home and Political Department.
F. B. Arnold, B.A., I.C.S.	Under-Secretary, Finance Department.
U. Aung Than (1), B.A.	Under-Secretary, Forest Department.
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U. Kyaw Din, A.T.M., B.A.	Under-Secretary, Judicial Department.
D. Fishwick, B.A., I.C.S.	Under-Secretary, Local Government Department.
U. Kyin, M.Sc., I.C.S.	Under-Secretary, Education Department.
C. S. Sastri, B.A.	Assistant Secretary, Finance Department.
H. W. Boyne	Assistant Secretary, Home and Political Department.
W. A. Curties	Registrar, Home and Political and Judicial Departments.
P. N. Sen	Registrar, Education and Local Government Departments.
J. N. B. Rosario	Registrar, Finance and Revenue Departments.
C. Pullaiya Sastri	Registrar, Forest Department.

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I. G. Lloyd, C.S.I., B.A., I.C.S.	Financial Commissioner.
A. J. S. White, O.B.E., B.A., I.C.S. ..	Secretary to Financial Commissioner.
B. K. Biswas, B.Sc.	Registrar.

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Vacant.
Vacant.
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U Po Yin, K.S.M., Merchant.
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U Tun Aung.
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Tilla Mohamed Khan.
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U Lu Pe.
U Sein Win.
Vacant.
U Min Oh.
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U Maung Gyi (Letpadan).
C. P. Khin Maung.
U On Maung.
U San Lu.
U Ba Tin.
U Ba
U Ba Thaw.
Dr. Ba Maw, Bar-at-Law.
C. H. Campagnac, M.B.E., Bar-at-Law.
Sir Oscar de Glanville, Kt., C.I.E., O.B.E., Law.
R. T. Stoneham.
C. S. Wodehouse.
U Ba Glay.
Chan Chor Khine.
W. C. Penn.
U Tun Pe.
Khan Bahadur Ahmed Chandoo.

Bihar and Orissa.

Bihar and Orissa lies between 19°-02′ and 27°-30′ N. latitude and between 82°-31′ and 88°-26′ E. longitude and includes the three provinces of Bihar, Orissa and Chota Nagpur, and is bounded on the north by Nepal and the Darjeeling district of Bengal; on the east by Bengal and the Bay of Bengal; on the south by the Bay of Bengal and Madras; and on the west by the United Provinces of Agra and Oudh and the Central Provinces.

The area of the territories which constitute the Governorship of Bihar and Orissa is 83,180 square miles inclusive of the area of large rivers. The States in Orissa and Chota Nagpur which were included in the Province of Bihar & Orissa have since the 1st April 1933 been transferred to the control of the Agent to the Governor-General, Eastern States and no longer form part of the Province. Two of the provinces of the Governorship of Bihar and Orissa, *viz.*, Bihar and Orissa, consist of great river valleys, the third, Chota Nagpur, is a mountainous region which separates them from the Central Indian Plateau. Orissa embraces the rich deltas of the Mahanadi and the neighbouring rivers and is bounded by the Bay of Bengal on the south-east and walled in on the north-west by the hilly country of the Tributary States. Bihar lies on the north of the Province and comprises the valley of the Ganges from the spot where it issues from the territories of the Governor of the United Provinces of Agra and Oudh till it enters Bengal near Rajmahal. Between Bihar and Orissa lies Chota Nagpur. Following the main geographical lines there are five Civil Divisions with headquarters at Patna, Muzaffarpur (for Tirhut), Bhagalpur, Cuttack (for Orissa) and Ranchi (for Chota Nagpur). The headquarters of Government are at Patna. The new capital which lies between the Military Cantonment of Dinapore and the old civil station of Bankipore is known as "Patna," the old town being called "Patna City."

The People.

The Province has a population of 42,329,583 persons. Even so with 451 persons per square mile, Bihar and Orissa is more thickly populated than Germany. There are only four towns, which can be classed as cities, namely, Patna, Gaya, Jamshedpur and Bhagalpur. During the last ten years the population of Patna has been steadily increasing. Hindus form an overwhelming majority of the population. Though the Muhammadans form about one-tenth of the total population they constitute more than one-fifth of urban population of the province. Animists account for 5·9 per cent. These are inhabitants of the Chota Nagpur plateau and the Santal Parganas, the latter district being a continuation of the plateau in a north-easterly direction.

Industries.*

The principal industry is agriculture, Bihar, more especially North Bihar, being the "Garden of India." Rice is the staple crop but the spring crops, wheat, barley, and the like are of considerable importance. It is estimated that the normal area cultivated with rice is 14,091,300 acres or about 48 per cent. of the cropped area of the Province. Wheat is grown on 1,220,900 acres, barley on 1,356,400 acres, maize or Indian-corn on 1,644,700 the latter being an autumn crop. Oil-seeds are an important crop, the cultivation having been estimated by the demand for them in Europe. It is estimated that 1,876,800 acres of land are annually cropped with oil-seeds in the Province. There is irrigation in Shahabad, Gaya, Patna and Champaran districts in Bihar and in Balasore and Cuttack in Orissa. The Indigo industry is steadily on the decline, the total area sown having decreased from 342,000 acres in 1896 to 25,000 acres in 1923. The principal cause of this was the discovery of the possibilities of manufacturing synthetic or chemically prepared indigo on a commercial scale. Its place as a crop manufactured for export has been largely taken by sugarcane, the cultivation of which has been considerably extended owing to the high prices given by sugar factories. In the district of Purnea and in Orissa, and parts of the Tirhut Division jute is grown, but the acreage varies according to the price of jute. The last serious famine was in 1895-96, but there was a serious shortage of foodstuffs in the south of the Province in 1919. In any year in which monsoon currents from either the Bay of Bengal or the Arabian Sea are unduly late in their arrival or cease abruptly before the middle of September the agricultural situation is very grave. It may be said that for Bihar the most important rainfall is that known as the *hatia*, due towards the end of September or up to middle of October. Rain at this time not only contributes materially to an increased outturn of the rice crop, but also provides the moisture necessary for starting the spring or *rabi* crops.

Manufactures.

Opium was formerly, with indigo, the chief manufactured product of Bihar, but in consequence of the agreement with the Chinese Government the Patna Factory has been closed. At Monghyr the Peninsular Tobacco Company have erected one of the largest cigarette factories in the world and as a result tobacco is being grown much more extensively. The Tata Iron and Steel Works at Jamshedpur in Singhbhum district are also one of the largest in the world and numerous subsidiary industries are springing up in their vicinity. The most important of these are the Tinplate Company of India, Agricultural Implements, Ltd., Enfield

* The figures given in this paragraph relate to British territory only.

Cable Company of India, Enamelled Ironware, Limited, and Indian Steel Wire Products. The population of Jamshedpur is rapidly approaching 100,000 and it consumes 1½ million tons of coal annually. This part of the province has also some of the richest and most extensive iron mines in the world and supplies the iron and steel works in both Bengal and Bihar and Orissa with raw materials, but the raising of coal is still the most important of the mineral industries in the province. The coalfields in the Manbhum District have undergone an extraordinary development in the past twenty years, while valuable new fields are being developed at Ramgarh, Bokaro and Karanpura in Hazaribagh. This same district is the most important mica mining centre in the world both on account of the quality as well as the size of its output. Manbhum, Palamau, Ranchi, the Santal Parganas and Gaya are also the chief centres for the production of lac and the manufacture of shellac, the latter of which is exported from India to the value of ten crores annually.

Administration.

The Province on first constitution was administered by a Lieutenant-Governor-in-Council, thus being unique in India as the only Lieutenant Governorship with a Council. Under the Reform Act of 1919 it was raised to the status of a Governorship, with an Executive Council and Ministers. The principles of the provincial administration are fully explained in the section. The Provincial Governorships, where the division of the administration into Reserved Subjects, in charge of the Governor and his Executive Council, and Transferred Subjects, in charge of the Governor and Ministers chosen from the Legislative Council, is set out in detail. In all these respects Bihar and Orissa is on the same plane as the other Provinces in India.

Public Works.

The Public Works Department in the Province of Bihar and Orissa consists of two separate branches, *viz.*:—(1) the Buildings and Roads which includes Railways and the Public Health Engineering Branch and (2) Irrigation. Each has a Chief Engineer, who is also Secretary to the Local Government with an Engineer Officer as Under-Secretary in the Buildings and Roads branch and a non-professional Assistant Secretary, in the Irrigation branch under him. The Electrical work of the Province is carried out by an Electric Inspector and an Electrical Engineer and a staff of subordinates.

Justice.

The administration of justice is controlled by the High Court of Judicature at Patna. In the administration of civil justice below the High Court are the District Judges as Courts of Appeal, the Subordinate Judges and the Munsiffs. The jurisdiction of a District Judge or Subordinate Judge extends to all original suits cognizable by the Civil Courts. It does not, however, include the powers of a Small Cause Court, unless these be specially conferred. The ordinary jurisdiction of a Munsif extends to all suits in which the amount or value of the subject matter in dispute does not exceed Rs. 1,000 though the limit may be extended to Rs. On the criminal side the Sessions Judge appeals from Magistrates exercising first powers while the District Magistrate is appellate authority for Magistrates exerc second and third class powers. The Di Magistrate can also be, though in point of be very rarely is, a court of first instance. usual in most districts for a Joint Magistra a Deputy Magistrate to receive complaints police reports, cases of difficulty or import being referred to the District Magistrate wi responsible for the peace of the district. In non-regulation districts the Deputy Com sioner and his subordinates exercise civil po and hear rent suits.

Land Tenures.

Estates in the Province of Bihar and O are of three kinds, namely, those permane settled from 1793 which are to be found in Patna, Tirhut and Bhagalpur divisions, t temporarily settled as in Chota Nagpur parts of Orissa, and estates held direct by G ernment as proprietor or managed by the Co of Wards. The passing of the Bengal Tena Act (VIII of 1885) safeguarded the rights of cultivators under the Permanent Settlement Further, the Settlement Department under supervision of the Director of Land Reco makes periodical survey and settlement ope tions in the various districts both permanen and temporarily settled. In the former, rights of the undertenants are recorded and tested, while in the latter there is the re-sett ment of rents. In the re-settlement proceedin rents are fixed not only for the landlords but a for all the tenants. A settlement can be order by Government on application made by lar lords or tenants.

The tenures of Orissa are somewhat differe Under the zamindars, that is, the proprieto who took settlement from Government and p revenue to Government direct, is a class of su ordinate proprietors or proprietary tenu holders, who were originally village headm dealing more or less direct with the reven authorities. They have a variety of name such as *mukadam*, *padhan*, *maurusi*, *sarbarah pursethi*, *khariddar* and *shikmi* zamindar These sub-proprietors or proprietary tenu holders pay their revenue through the zamin dars of the estates within which their land lie. In Chota Nagpur and the Santal Pa ganas, the rights of village headmen have bee recognised. The headman collects the ren and is responsible for them minus a deductio as remuneration for his trouble.

Both Orissa and Chota Nagpur have their ow Tenancy Acts. In the district of the Santa Parganas, the land tenures are governed b Regulations III of 1872 and II of 1886 and i the district of Sambalpur by the Central Pro vinces Land Revenue Act, 1881 and the Centra Provinces Tenancy Act, 1898.

Police.

The Departments of Police, Prisons an Registration are each under the general directio of Government, supervised and inspecte by an Inspector-General with a staff of assis tants. The Commissioner of Excise and Sal is also Inspector-General of Registration.

Under the Inspector-General of Police are four Deputy Inspectors-General and 29 Superintendents. There are also 24 Assistant Superintendents of Police and 28 Deputy Superintendents. The force is divided into the District Police, the Railway Police and the Military Police. A Criminal Investigation Department has also been formed for the collection and distribution of information relating to professional criminals and criminal tribes whose operations extend beyond a single district and to control, advise, and assist in investigations of crime of this class and other serious action which its assistance may be invoked. There are three companies of Unmounted Military Police and one company of Mounted Military Police which are maintained as reserves to deal with serious and organised disturbances and perform no ordinary civil duties.

Education.

The position of education in the Province, with the numbers attending schools, is set out in the section Education and the tables attached thereto (*q. v.*) showing in great detail the educational status of the administration.

There is a University at Patna, whose functions are described under the Indian Universities. (*q. v.*)

Medical.

The Medical Department is under the control of the Inspector-General of Civil Hospitals who is a Member of the Indian Medical Service. Under him there are 21 Civil Surgeons who are responsible for the medical work of the districts at the headquarters of which they are stationed. 61 Dispensaries are maintained by Government in addition to 611 Dispensaries maintained by Local bodies, Railways, private persons, etc. 7,587,129 patients including 92,544 in-patients were treated in all the dispensaries in 1931. The total income of the dispensaries maintained by Government and Local Bodies including that of the private aided institutions amounted to Rs. 35,05,631.

A large mental hospital for Europeans has been opened at Ranchi which receives patients from Northern India. A similar institution for Indians has been opened at Ranchi since September 1925 for the treatment of patients from Bihar and Orissa and Bengal. A sanitorium at Itki in the district of Ranchi has also been established for the treatment of tuberculosis. An institute for radium treatment has also been established at Patna. Centres for anti-rabic treatment have been started at Patna and Cuttack.

A medical college has been opened at Patna and the Medical School which was in existence at Patna has been transferred to Darbhanga.

THE FINANCES OF BIHAR AND ORISSA.

As Bihar now enjoys practical financial autonomy, the finances are set out in greater detail

(In thousands of Rupees.)

Revenues and Receipts.	*Budget Estimate.* 1933-34.
II.—Taxes on Income ..	3,17
III.—Salt	3,00
V.—Land Revenue ..	1,79,57
VI.—Excise	1,27,01
VII.—Stamps	1,07,50
VIII.—Forest	6,39
IX.—Registration	13,50
XIII.—Irrigation, Navigation, Embankment and Drainage Works for which capital accounts are kept	19,17
XIV.—Irrigation, Navigation, Embankment and Drainage Works for which no capital accounts are kept	99
XVI.—Interest	4,92
XVII.—Administration of Justice.	5,46
XVIII.—Jails and Convict Settlements	4,32
XIX.—Police	1,82
XX.—Ports and Pilotage ..	4
XXI.—Education	7,46
XXII.—Medical	2,11
XXIII.—Public Health	1,61
XXIV.—Agriculture	2,41
XXV.—Industries	2,22
XXVI.—Miscellaneous Departments.	32
XXX.—Civil Works	8,66

(In thousands of Rupees.)

Revenues and Receipts.	*Budget Estimate.* 1933-34.
XXXII.—Transfers from Famine Relief Fund	..
XXXIII.—Receipts in aid of Superannuation	99
XXXIV.—Stationery and Printing..	2,51
XXXV.—Miscellaneous	3,35
XXXIXA.—Miscellaneous adjustments between the Central and Provincial Governments	..
XL.—Extraordinary receipts ..	..
TOTAL REVENUE ..	5,08,50
Loans and Advances by the Provincial Government (Recoveries) ..	7,24
Advances from the Provincial Loans Fund	..
Grants from Imperial Council of Agricultural Research	71
Transfers from Famine Relief Fund.	11,26
Famine Relief Fund	9,34
Subvention from Central Road Development Account	3,30
Appropriation for Reduction or Avoidance of Debt	58
Suspense	1,75
TOTAL RECEIPTS ..	5,42,68
Opening Balance .. (*a*)	52,34
GRAND TOTAL ..	5,95,02

(*a*) Includes Subventions from Central Road Development Account 7,02, Grants from Imperial Council of Agricultural Research 13, Famine Relief Fund 30,85.

THE FINANCES OF BIHAR AND ORISSA—*contd.*

(In thousands of Rupees.)

Expenditure.	*Budget Estimate.* 1933-34.
5.—Land Revenue	17,24
6.—Excise	15,09
7.—Stamps	2,18
8.—Forests	7,20
8A.—Forest Capital outlay charged to Revenue..	18
9.—Registration	6,30
14.—Interest on Irrigation Works for which capital accounts are kept	20,45
15.—Irrigation Revenue Account—Other Revenue Expenditure financed from ordinary Revenue.	1,51
16.—Irrigation Capital Account—Construction of Irrigation, Embankment and Drainage Works	....
19.—Interest on Ordinary Debt ..	56
20.—Interest on other obligations..	1,01
21.—Appropriation for reduction or avoidance of debt	58
22.—General Administration ..	75,84
24.—Administration of Justice ..	39,75
25.—Jails and Convict Settlements..	20,81
26.—Police	86,26
27.—Ports and Pilotage	2
30.—Scientific Departments ..	31
31.—Education	81,22
32.—Medical	26,25
33.—Public Health	11,43
34.—Agriculture	13,84
35.—Industries	8,51
37.—Miscellaneous Departments ..	71
41.—Civil Works	38,94
43.—Famine	43
45.—Superannuation Allowances and Pensions	35,11
45A.—Commutations of Pensions Financed from ordinary Revenue	....

(In thousands of Rupees.)

Expenditure.	*Budget Estimate.* 1933-34.
46.—Stationery and Printing ..	8,07
47.—Miscellaneous	1,9
51.—Contribution to Central Government by the Provincial Government	....
51A.—Miscellaneous adjustments between the Central and Provincial Governments	....
52.—Extraordinary payments ..	9
Total expenditure charged to Revenue	5,21,1
Commuted value of pensions ..	3,0
Payments to Retrenched Personnel.	4
Loans and Advances by the Provincial Government	8,3
Advances from the Provincial Loans Fund (Repayments)	5
Grants from Imperial Council of Agricultural Research	7
Transfers from Famine Relief Fund (Repayments.)	7,0
Famine Relief Fund	11,2
Subvention from Central Road Development Account	2,4
Suspense	1,0
Total expenditure not charged to revenue	35,1
Reserve for unforeseen ..	1,0
Total expenditure	5,57,3
Closing balance ..	(b) 37,0
GRAND TOTAL ..	5,95,0
Provincial { Surplus	....
Provincial { Deficit	14,6

(b) Includes Subventions from Central Road Development Account 7,85, Grants from Imperial Council of Agricultural Research 13, Famine Relief Fund 2893.

ADMINISTRATION.

GOVERNOR.

His Excellency Sir James David Sifton, K.C.S.I., K.C.I.E., I.C.S.

PERSONAL STAFF.

Private Secretary, Captain P. J. Clarke.
Aide-de-Camp, Lieut. G. C. Drake-Brockman and Lieut. C. W. H. Rice.
Honorary Aides-de-Camp, Lieut.-Col. A. L. Danby, Captain D. J. Manfield, Captain W. O. Henderson, Risaldar Major Muhammad Reza Khan, Bahadur.

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The Hon'ble Babu Nirsa Narayan Singh.

Ministers.

The Hon'ble Sir Ganesh Dutta Singh, Kt. (Local Self-Government).
Mr. Sayid Abder Aziz, Bar-at-Law.

SECRETARIAT.

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Secretary to Government, Finance Department, H. C. Prior, I.C.S.
Secretary to Government, Revenue Department, J. W. Houlton, I.C.S.
Secretary to Government, Judicial Department, A. C. Davies, I.C.S.
Secretary to Government (P. W. D.), Irrigation Branch, F. A. Betterton.
Buildings and Roads Branch, J. G. Powell.
Secretary to Government, Education and Divisional Departments, B. K. Gokhale, I.C.S. (onleave)

MISCELLANEOUS APPOINTMENTS.

Director of Public Instruction, G. E. Fawcus, M.A., C.I.E.
Inspector-General of Police, R. J. Hirst, B.A., C.I.E. (on leave).
Lt.-Col. A. E. J. C. McDowell.
Conservator of Forests, Earnest Benskin.
Inspector-General of Civil Hospital, Lt.-Col. J. A. S. Phillips (in addition as D.P.H.).
Director of Public Health, Lt.-Col. J. A. S. Phillips.
Inspector-General of Prisons, Major O. R. Ungers.
Director of Agriculture, Daulat Ram Sethi (Offg.)

GOVERNORS OF BIHAR AND ORISSA.

Lord Sinha of Raipur, P.C., K.C. ..	1920	Sir Hugh Lansdown Stephenson, K.C.S.I., K.C.I.E.	1927
Sir Henry Wheeler	1921	H. E. Sir James David Sifton, K.C.I.E., C.S.I., I.C.S.	1932

Bihar and Orissa Legislative Council.

The Hon'ble Babu Rayandhari Sinha, M.A., B.L. (*President.*)
Rai Bahadur Lakshmidhar Mahanti. (*Deputy President*).

Mr. S. Anwar Yusoof, Bar-at-Law, (*Secretary.*)
Babu Raghu Nath Prasad, M.A., B.L. (*Assistant Secretary*).

EXECUTIVE COUNCIL.

The Hon'ble Raja Rajendra Narayan Bhanja Deo, O.B.E.

The Hon'ble Mr. J. T. Whitty, C.S.I., C.I.E.

MINISTERS.

The Hon. Syed Abdul Aziz, Bar-at-law... .. — West Patna (Muhammadan Rural).
The Hon'ble Sir Ganesh Datta Singh, Kt. .. — East Patna (Non-Muhammadan Rural).

MEMBERS.

NOMINATED OFFICIALS.

Mr. P. C. Tallents, C.I.E.
,, H. C. Prior.
,, W. G. Lacey.
,, S. R. Zaman.
,, J. W. Houlton.
,, J. G. Powell.

Mr. A. C. Davies.
,, F. A. Betterton.
,, G. E. Fawcus, C.I.E.
,, Lt. Col. J. A. S. Phillips.
,, Lt.-Col. A. E. J. C. McDowell.
,, J. A. Hubback, C.S.I.

NOMINATED NON-OFFICIALS

Babu Siva Shankar Jha (Expert).
Babu Gur Sahay Lal (Expert).
Mr. J. Thomas, European.
Mr. W. H. Meyrick, Bihar Planters.
Mr. Ian A. Clerk, Indian Mining Association.
Raja Bahadur Harihar Prashad Narayan Singh Patna Division Land-holders.
Mr. A. E. D'Silva, (Anglo-Indian Community).
Rev. Brajananda Das, (Depressed classes).
Rai Bahadur Kedar Nath, Nominated.
Mr. R. Chandra, (Indian Christian Community).
Khan Bahadur Shah Muhammad Yahya C.I.E.

Babu Bimalal Charan Singh.
Rai Sahib Sri Ballabh Das.
Babu Ram Narayan (Depressed classes).
Rai Bahadur Ram Ranvijaya Singh (Industrial interest other than Planting and Mining).
Rai Bahadur Harendra Nath Banerji (Labouring classes).
Rai Bahadur Birendra Nath Chakravartti (Domiciled Bengali Community).
Mr. Sagram Hembrome (Aborigines).
Mr. Garbett Captain Manki (Aborigines).

ELECTED.

Name.	Constituencies.
Mahanth Manmohan Das	North-East Darbhanga (Non-Muhammadan Rural).
Vacant	West Patna (Non-Muhammadan Rural)
Maulavi Saiyid Muhammad Hafeez	Patna University.
Rai Bahadur Dalip Narayan Singh	Bhagalpur Division Landholders.
Babu Chandreshvar Prashad Narayan Sinha ..	Tirhut Division Landholders.
Babu Maheshvari Prashad Narayan Deo ..	Chota Nagpur Division Landholders.
Babu Jagadeva Prashad Singh	North Saran (Non-Muhammadan Rural).
Babu Sardananda Kumar	South-East Darbhanga (Non-Muhammadan Rural).
Babu Ramasray Prashad Chaudhuri	Samastipur (Non-Muhammadan Rural).
Babu Harekrishna Chaudhuri	North-West Darbhanga (Non-Muhammadan Rural).
Babu Sri Narayan Mahtha	East Muzaffarpur (Non-Muhammadan Rural).
Babu Rameshvar Prashad Singh	East Gaya (Non-Muhammadan Rural).
Mr. Saiyid Muhammad Athar Hussain	Shahabad (Muhammadan Rural).
Mr. Muhammad Yunus	West Patna (Muhammadan Rural).
Khan Bahadur Abdul Wahab Khan	Bhagalpur Division (Muhammadan Urban).
Mr. Saiyid Moin-ud-din Mirza	Kishanganj (Muhammadan Rural).
Khan Bahadur Haji Muhammad Bux Chaudhuri.	Purnea (Muhammadan Rural).
Maulavi Abdul Aziz Khan	Santal Parganas (Muhammadan Rural).
Babu Kalyan Singh	Hazaribagh (Non-Muhammadan Rural).
Rai Bahadur Haldhar Prashad Singh	North Bhagalpur (Non-Muhammadan Rural).
Bhaiya Rudra Pratap Deo	Palamau (Non-Muhammadan Rural).
Babu Shyam Narayan Singh Sharma	Patna (Non-Muhammadan Urban)
Rai Bahadur Sarat Chandra Ray	Ranchi (Non-Muhammadan Rural).
Rai Bahadur Lakshmidhar Mahanti	North Cuttack (Non-Muhammadan Rural).
Babu Haribar Das	Orissa Division (Non-Muhammadan Urban).
Rai Bahadur Loknath Misra	South Puri (Non-Muhammadan Rural).
Babu Brajamohan Panda	Sambalpur (Non-Muhammadan Rural).
Babu Birabar Narayan Chandra Dhir Narendra.	Orissa Division Landholders.
Babu Shib Chandra Singha	Santal Parganas (North) (Non-Muhammadan Rural.)
Babu Devendra Nath Samantas	Singhbhum (Non-Muhammadan Rural).
Babu Rameshwar Pratap Sahi	North Muzaffarpur (Non-Muhammadan Rural).
Babu Badri Narayan Singh	West Muzaffarpur (Non-Muhammadan Rural).
Babu Rudra Pratap Singh	Central Bhagalpur (Non-Muhammadan Rural).
Babu Bishundeo Narayan Singh	North-West Monghyr (Non-Muhammadan Rural).
Maulavi Khalifir Rahman	Gaya (Muhammadan Rural).
Maulavi Muhammad Abdul Ghani	Tirhut Division (Muhammadan Urban).
Maulavi Shaikh Muhammad Shafi	Darbhanga (Muhammadan Rural).
Khan Bahadur Habibur Rahman	Chota Nagpur Division (Muhammadan Rural).
Maulavi Abdul Wadood	Champaran (Muhammadan Rural).
Maulavi Muhammad Hasan Jan	Muzaffarpur (Muhammadan Rural).

ELECTED—*concld.*

Name.	Constituencies.
Khan Bahadur Saghir-ul Haq	Saran (Muhammadan Rural).
Mr. Saiyid Muhammad Mehdi	Monghyr (Muhammadan Rural).
Maulavi Shaikh Abdul Jalil	Orissa Division (Muhammadan Rural).
Babu Ramanugrah Narayan Singh	West Gaya (Non-Muhammadan Rural).
Babu Bhagwati Saran Singh	Central Gaya (Non-Muhammadan Rural).
Mr. Saiyid Abdul Aziz	Patna Division (Muhammadan Urban).
Babu Godavaris Misra	North Puri (Non-Muhammadan Rural).
Rai Bahadur Satis Chandra Sinha	South Manbhum (Non-Muhammadan Rural).
Mr. Kamaldhari Lall	South Bhagalpur (Non-Muhammadan Rural).
Rai Bahadur Lachhmi Prashad Sinha	East Monghyr (Non-Muhammadan Rural).
Babu Jagannath Das	South Balasore (Non-Muhammadan Rural).
Babu Radharanjan Das	North Balasore (Non-Muhammadan Rural).
Babu Nikunja Kishore Das	South Cuttack (Non-Muhammadan Rural).
Babu Rajeshvari Prashad	Patna Division (Non-Muhammadan Urban).
Babu Nirsu Narayan Sinha	South Saran (Non-Muhammadan Rural).
Chaudhuri Muhammad Nazirul Hasan	Bhagalpur (Muhammadan Rural).
Babu Radha Mohan Sinha	Arrah (Non-Muhammadan Rural).
Babu Ramjiwan Himat Singka	Santal Parganas (South) (Non-Muhammadan Rural).
Mr. Sachchidananda Sinha	Central Shahabad (Non-Muhammadan Rural).
Raja Prithwi Chand Lall Chowdry	Purnea (Non-Muhammadan Rural).
Rai Bahadur Dwarka Nath	Tirhut Division (Non-Muhammadan Urban).
Rai Bahadur Shyamnandan Sahay	Hajipur (Non-Muhammadan Rural).
Babu Srikrishna Prashad	South-West Monghyr (Non-Muhammadan Rural)
Babu Jogendra Mohan Sinha	Bhagalpur (Non-Muhammadan Urban).
Babu Radha Prasad Sinha	South Shahabad (Non-Muhammadan Rural).
Mr. Nanda Kumar Ghosh	Chota Nagpur Division (Non-Muhammadan Urban).
Rai Bahadur Krishnadeva Narayan Maitha ..	North Champaran (Non-Muhammadan Rural).
Babu Lalita Prashad Chaudhuri	South Champaran (Non-Muhammadan Rural).
Babu Kunja Bihari Chandra	Indian Mining Federation.
Babu Manindra Nath Mukharji.	North Manbhum (Non-Muhammadan Rural).
Dr. Sir Saiyid Sultan Ahmzad	Nominated (Expert).

The Central Provinces and Berar.

The Central Provinces and Berar compose a great triangle of country midway between Bombay and Bengal. Their area is 133,069 sq. miles, of which 82,149 are British territory proper, 17,808 (*viz.* Berar) held on perpetual lease from H.E.H. the Nizam and the remainder held by Feudatory Chiefs. The population (1931) is 15,507,723 in C. P. British Districts and Berar. Various parts of the Central Provinces passed under British control at different times in the wars and tumult in the first half of the 19th century and the several parts were amalgamated after the Mutiny, in 1861, into the Chief Commissionership of the Central Provinces. Berar was, in 1853, assigned to the East India Company as part of a financial arrangement with H.E.H. the Nizam for the maintenance of the Hyderabad Contingent, and was leased in perpetuity to the Central Provinces in 1903, as the result of a fresh agreement with H.E.H. the Nizam.

The Country.

The Central Provinces may roughly be divided into three tracts of upland, with two intervening ones of plain country. In the north-west, the Vindhyan plateau is broken country, covered with poor and stunted forest. Below its precipitous southern slopes stretches the rich wheat growing country of the Nerbudda valley. Then comes the high Satpura plateau, characterised by forest-covered hills and deep water-cut ravines. Its hills decline into the Nagpur plain, whose broad stretches of "deep" black cotton soil make it one of the more important cotton tracts of India and the wealthiest part of the C. P. proper. The Eastern half of the plain lies in the valley of the Waingan-ga and is mainly a rice growing country. Its numerous irrigation tanks have given it the name of the "lake country" of Nagpur. Further east is the far-reaching rice country of Chattisgarh, in the Mahanadi basin. The south-east of the C. P. is again mountainous, containing 24,000 square miles of forest and precipitous ravines, and mostly inhabited by jungle tribes. The Feudatory States of Bastar and Kankar lie in this region. Berar lies to the south-west of the C. P. and its chief characteristic is its rich black cotton-soil plains.

The People.

The population of the province is a comparatively new community. Before the advent of the Aryans, the whole of it was peopled by Gonds and other primitive tribes and these aboriginal inhabitants fared better from the Aryans than their like in most parts of India because of the rugged nature of their home. But successive waves of immigration flowed into the province from all sides. The early inhabitants were driven into the inaccessible forests and hills, where they form nearly a quarter of the whole population of the Central Provinces being found in large numbers in all parts of the province, particularly in the South-east. The main divisions of the newcomers are indicated by the language divisions of the province. Hindi brought in by the Hindustani-speaking peoples of the North, prevails in the North and East, Marathi in Berar and the West and Centre of the Central Provinces. Hindi is spoken by 56 per cent. of the population and is the *lingua franca*. Marathi by 31 per cent. and Gondi by 7 per cent. The effects of invasion are curiously illustrated in Berar, where numbers of Moslems have Hindu names, being descendants of former Hindu officials who on the Mahomedan invasion adopted Islam rather than lose their positions. The last census shows that a gradual Brahmanising of the aboriginal tribes is going on. The tribes are not regarded as impure by the Hindus and the process of absorption is more or less civilising.

Industries.

When Sir Richard Temple became first Chief Commissioner of the C. P. the province was land-locked. The only road was that leading in from Jubbulpore to Nagpur. The British administration has made roads in all directions, the two trunk railways between Bombay and Calcutta run across the province and in the last few years a great impetus has been given to the construction of subsidiary lines. These developments have caused a steady growth of trade and have aroused vigorous progress in every department of life. The prime industry is, of course, agriculture, which is assisted by one of the most admirable agricultural departments in India and is now receiving additional strength by a phenomenal growth of the co-operative credit movement. The land tenure is chiefly on the malguzari, or landlord system, ranging with numerous variations, from the great Feudatory chief ships, which are on this basis, to holdings of small dimensions. A system of land legislation has gradually been built up to protect the individual cultivator. Berar is settled on the Bombay raiyatwari system. 16,073 square miles of the C. P. is Government Reserved forest; in Berar the forest area is about 3,339 square miles, the total forest area being one-sixth of the whole Province. The rugged nature of the greater part of the country makes forest conservation difficult and costly. Excluding forest and waste 67 per cent. of the total land is occupied for cultivation; for the two most advanced districts in the Central Provinces, the proportion averages 83 per cent., while the average figure for the Berar Districts is as high as 93 per cent. The cultivated area has extended almost continuously except for the temporary checks caused by bad seasons. Rice is the most extensive single crop of the Central Provinces, covering nearly 30 per cent. of the cropped area. Wheat comes next with over 15 per cent., then pulses and other cereals used for food and oil-seeds with nearly 50 per cent., and cotton with over 7 per cent. In Berar cotton occupies 46 per cent. Next comes juar and then pulses and other cereals and oil seeds of the cropped area, jowar covers 31 per cent., then wheat and oilseeds. In agriculture more than half the working population is female.

Commerce and Manufactures.

Industrial life is only in its earliest development except in one or two centres, where the introduction of modern enterprise along the railway routes has laid the foundations for great future developments of the natural wealth of

the province. Nagpur is the chief centre of a busy cotton spinning and weaving industry. The Empress Mills, owned by Parsi manufacturers, were opened there in 1877 and the general prosperity of the cotton trade has led to the addition of many mills here and in other parts of the province. The total amount of spun yarn exported from the Province during the year ending 31st March 1932 was 1,89,753 maunds, valued at Rs. 56,92,590.

The largest numbers engaged in any of the modern industrial concerns are employed in manganese mining which in 1931 employed 9,508 persons and raised 302,344 tons. Then follow coal mining with an output of 973,040 tons and 8,624 persons employed, the Jubbulpore marble quarries and allied works, the limestone quarries and the mines for pottery clay, soapstone, etc.

The total number of factories of all kinds legally so described was 930 in 1932 the latest period for which returns are available and the number of people employed in them 61,627. The same economic influences which are operative in every progressive country during its transition stage are at work in the C. P. and Berar, gradually sapping the strength of the old village industries, as communications improve, and concentrating industries in the towns. While the village industries are fading away, a large development of trade has taken place. The last pre-war reports showed an increase in volume by one-third in eight years.

Administration.

The administration of the Central Provinces and Berar is conducted by a Governor-in-Council, who is appointed by the Crown. He is assisted by seven Secretaries and four under-secretaries. Under the reform scheme the administration is conducted by a Governor with an Executive Council of two members, one of whom is a non-official and two Ministers, the latter being in charge of the transferred subjects.

The local legislature consists of 73 members distributed as follows:—38 elected from the C.P.; 17 elected from Berar; 2 members of the Executive Council; 8 nominated non-officials; 8 nominated officials. The Governor (who is not a member of the Council) has the right of nominating two additional members with special knowledge on any subject regarding which legislation is before the Council. The C. P. are divided for administrative purposes into three divisions and Berar constitutes a division. Each of these is controlled by a Commissioner. The divisions are sub-divided into districts, each of which is controlled by a Deputy Commissioner, immediately subordinate to the Commissioner. The principal heads of Provincial departments are the Commissioner of Settlements and Director of Land Records, the Chief Conservator of Forests, the Inspector-General of Civil Hospitals, the Director of Public Health, the Inspector General of Police, the Inspector-General of Prisons, the Director of Public Instruction, the Excise Commissioner and Superintendent of Stamps and Inspector General of Registration, and Registrar-General of Births, Deaths and Marriages, the Director of Agriculture, the Registrar of Co-operative Societies, the Director of Industries, the Legal Remembrancer, the Director of Veterinary Services and a Chief Engineer, Public Works Department, Buildings and Roads and Irrigation Branches. The Deputy Commissioners of districts are the chief revenue authorities and District Magistrates and they exercise the usual powers and functions of a district officer. The district forests are managed by a forest officer, over whom the Deputy Commissioner has certain powers of supervision, particularly in matters affecting the welfare of the people. Each district has a Civil Surgeon, who is generally also Superintendent of the District Jail except at Central Jails at Nagpore and Jubbulpore and District Jails at Raipur, Narsinghpur, Amraoti and Akola where there are whole time Superintendents and whose work is also in various respects supervised by the Deputy Commissioner. The Deputy Commissioner is also Marriage Registrar and manages the estates of his district which are under the Court of Wards. In his revenue and criminal work the Deputy Commissioner is assisted by (a) one or more Assistant Commissioners, or members of the Indian Civil Service; (b) one or more Extra Assistant Commissioners, or members of the Provincial Civil Service, including a few Anglo-Indians and (c) by Tahsildars and Naib Tahsildars, or members of the Subordinate service. The district is divided for administrative purposes into tahsils, the average area of which is 1,500 square miles. In each village a lambardar or representative of the proprietary body is executive headman.

Justice.

The Court of the Judicial Commissioner is the highest court of appeal in civil cases, and also the highest court of criminal appeal and revision for the Central Provinces and Berar including proceedings against European British subjects and persons jointly charged with European British subjects.

The Court sits at Nagpur and consists of a Judicial Commissioner and 4 Additional Judicial Commissioners of whom one at least must be an advocate of the Court or a Barrister or pleader of not less than 10 years' standing.

Subordinate to the Judicial Commissioner's Court are the District and Sessions Judges (9 in number) each of whom exercises civil and criminal jurisdiction in a Civil and Sessions district comprising one or more Revenue districts. The civil staff below the District and Sessions Judge consists of Subordinate Judges of the first and second class.

Local Self-Government.

Municipal administration was first introduced under the Punjab Municipal Acts and the Municipality of Nagpur dates from 1864. Several revising Acts extend its scope and the C. P. Municipalities Act passed towards the end of the year 1922 has considerably increased the power of the Municipal Committees. The C. P. Municipalities Act has also been extended to Berar. Viewed generally, municipal self-government is considered to have taken root successfully. The larger towns have municipalities, there being 74 such bodies in the Province.

Under the Central Provinces Local Self-Government Act passed in 1920 as amended in 1931 there is a local Board for each tahsil and a district council for each district exception Hoshangabad, Chhindwara and Saugor districts each of which has two district councils. The local board consists of elected representatives of circle and nominated members other than Government officials not exceeding in numbers one-fourth of the board, and the constitution of the district council is a certain proportion of elected representatives of local boards, of members selected by those representatives and of members, other than Government servants, nominated by Government.

The district councils in the Central Provinces have power of taxation within certain limits and local boards derive their funds in allotments from the District Councils. The new Central Provinces Local Self-Government Act has also been applied to Berar. The Office Bearers of all the district councils and with few exceptions local boards also are non-officials.

Rural education, sanitation, medical relief and rural communications are among the primary objects to which these bodies direct their attention, while expenditure on famine relief is also a legitimate charge upon the District Council funds.

The Central Provinces Village Panchayat Act was passed in the year 1920. So far 850, Panchayats have been established. As the result of a recommendation of a Committee appointed in 1925 to look into the question of Panchayats, a Village Panchayat Officer was appointed to guide the developments of the Panchayat system. This post was kept vacant on account of financial stringency for more then two years. It has now been filed in with effect from the 24th May 1933.

Public Works.

The Public Works Department, which comprises Buildings and Roads and Irrigation Branches, is under the control of the Chief Engineer who is also Secretary to the Government. There are two Superintending Engineers who between them supervise the work of both branches. The Province is well served by a net-work of roads, but in a number of cases they are not fully bridged and are therefore impassable to traffic at times during the rains. During the last 15 years Government has been pursuing a policy of transfer of certain State roads of local importance and buildings situated thereon to the District Councils for maintenance and up to date 1,127 miles of metalled and 803 miles of unmetalled roads have been transferred.

State irrigation was introduced early in the present century mainly as a result of the recommendations of the Irrigation Commission (1901-03). The Irrigation Branch of the department was separated from the Roads and Buildings Branch in 1920. During the last thirty-three years a sum of Rs. 7.2 crores has been expended on the construction of irrigation works, of which the more important are the Wainganga, Tandula, Mahanadi, Kharung and Maniari canals.

Three works, *viz.*, the Mahanadi and Wainganga Canals and the Asola Mendha tank, were sanctioned originally as productive works and the remainder were all sanctioned as unproductive works. The three works sanctioned as productive have all failed to justify their classification in that category and have now been transferred to the unproductive list. The conditions in the province are such that irrigation works cannot be expected to be productive and their construction is justified only on account of their value as a protection against famine. The normal area of annual irrigation is at present about 387,000 acres, and the income from these works is somewhat less than the expenditure incurred on their maintenance and management.

Police.

The police force was constituted on its present basis on the formation of the Province, the whole of which including the Cantonments and the Municipalities, is under one force. The strength is equal to one man per nine square miles of area. The superior officers comprise an Inspector-General, whose jurisdiction extends over Berar, three Deputy Inspectors-General, for assistance in the administrative control and supervision of the Police force, including the Criminal Investigation Department, and the usual cadre of District Superintendents of Police, Assistant and Deputy Superintendents and subordinate officers. On railways special Railway Police are employed under the control of two Superintendents of Railway Police with headquarters at Raipur and Hoshangabad. A Special Armed Force of 870 men is distributed over the headquarters of eight districts, for use in dealing with armed disturbers of the peace in whatever quarter they may appear. There is a small force of Mounted Police. The Central Provinces has no rural police as the term is understood in other parts of India. The village watchman is the subordinate of the village headman and not a police official and it is considered very desirable to maintain his position in this respect.

Education.

The Education Department of the Central Provinces and Berar is administered by a Director of Public Instruction, a Registrar, Education Department and Secretary, High School Education Board, four Inspectors and two Inspectresses who in their turn are assisted by an officer under training with eight Assistant Inspectors and four Assistant Inspectresses. Schools are divided into schools for general education and schools for special education. The latter are schools in which instruction is given in a special branch of technical or professional education. The main division of schools for general education is into Primary and Secondary. In the Primary Schools the teaching is conducted wholly in the vernacular and these schools are known as Vernacular Schools. The Secondary Schools are divided into Middle and High Schools. The former may be either Vernacular Middle Schools in which instruction is given (*a*) wholly in the vernacular or (*b*) mainly in the vernacular with an option to take English as an additional language, or Anglo-Vernacular Middle Schools in which instruction is given both in English and the Vernacular. In the High School classes instruction until recently was given in English but the vernacular was adopted as the medium of instruction at the beginning of the school year 1922-23. For the convenience of pupils whose mother tongue is not a recognised vernacular of the locality a few English medium classes are still maintained. For administrative purposes schools are further divided according

to their management into schools (under public management and schools controlled by private bodies). The former consist of (a) schools controlled by Government and (b) schools controlled by Local Bodies or Boards. The latter consist of (a) Schools which are aided by grant from Government or from Local Funds and Municipal Funds and (b) unaided schools. All schools under public management, all aided schools and all unaided recognized schools conform in their courses of study to the standards prescribed by the Education Department or by the High School Education Board. They are subject to inspection by the Department and to the general rules governing schools of this type. They are "recognised" by the Department and their pupils may appear as candidates for any prescribed examination for which they are otherwise eligible. Unrecognized schools do not follow the rules of the Department, nor are they subject to inspection by the Department. They are mostly indigenous schools which have been too recently opened to have acquired "recognition." Their pupils may not appear as candidates at any of the prescribed examinations without the previous sanction of the Department.

The Primary Education Bill which was passed by the Local Legislative Council in March 1920 marks as important stage by giving Local Bodies power to introduce compulsory education in the areas under their jurisdictions.

Higher education is at present given in five colleges. In Nagpur Morris College teaches up to the M. A. standard in Arts and B.A. (Hons). Hislop College is affiliated up to the M.A. standard in Arts, the College of Science teaches up to the M.Sc. standard in Science and Mathematics, and B. Sc. (Hons), City College, Nagpur, has since been affiliated up to the B.A. Standard, and in Civics, Mathematics and Hindi composition up to the Standard of Intermediate examination for the degrees of Bachelor of Arts and Bachelor of Science for a period of 5 years from 1st July 1932. In Jubbulpore Robertson College teaches up to the B.A. and B.Sc. standards and a'so M.A. in Hindi. The King Edward College teaches up to the B.A. degree in Arts and the Intermediate examination in Science. The province contains also a Teachers' Training College at Jubbulpore, a training class at Howbagh, Jubbulpore for the undergraduate women teachers and Normal Schools at different centres in the province and an Engineering School at Nagpur. There is a Technical Institute at Amraoti, which is controlled by the Department of Industries. There is also an Agricultural College at Nagpur under the Department of Agriculture.

Collegiate Education is under the control of the University of Nagpur to which the colleges of the province are affiliated. The University was established by the Nagpur University Act of 1923. A University Law College has been established at Nagpur with effect from the 1st July 1925.

As a corollary to the Central Provinces University Act the Central Provinces High School Education Bill was passed in 1923. Its aim is to free the High Schools of the Province from the control of the University and from this point of view to substitute for the University a Board of Secondary Education for the regulation and control of Secondary Education. In order, however, that the connection between Secondary and University Education may still be maintained the Bill provides that one-third of the members of the Board will be drawn from men experienced in university affairs and that of this one-third not less than two-thirds shall be teachers in the University or in colleges affiliated thereto. At the same time teachers engaged in school work are also represented on the Board.

Medical.

The medical and sanitary services of the province are respectively controlled by an Inspector-General of Civil Hospitals and Director of Public Health. The medical department has made some progress since the year 1911. A striking advance has been made in recent years with urban sanitation, and the opening of a Medical School at Nagpur in 1914 supplied a long-felt need. The principal medical institutions are the Mayo Hospital at Nagpur, opened in 1874 with accommodation for 205 in-patients; the Victoria Hospital at Jubbulpore, opened in 1886 with accommodation for 137 in-patients, the Lady Dufferin Hospital and the Muir Memorial Hospital at Nagpur and the Lady Elgin Hospital and the Crump Children's Hospital at Jubbulpore, these last four being for women and children and containing together accommodation for 265 in-patients. Two important hospitals for women have been recently opened at Chhindwara and Khandwa, and at all district headquarters where no separate women's hospitals exist, sections of the Main Hospitals have been opened for the treatment of women by women. The Mayo Hospital, Nagpur, was provincialised in 1923, the Main Hospital at Amraoti in 1925, the Victoria Hospital at Jubbulpore in 1926, and the Main Hospital at Raipur in 1928. In accordance with recent policy, 121 out of 181 local fund dispensaries have been transferred to the administrative and executive control of local bodies. The Province has one Mental Hospital at Nagpur. Vaccination is compulsory in nearly all Municipal towns to which the Vaccination Act has been extended. The Government in 1913 sanctioned the opening of peripatetic dispensaries in unhealthy areas. There are at present 33 such dispensaries. A school for training health workers has been started at Nagpur and 50 Infant Welfare Centres have been opened. A start in the direction of opening a Health Institute has been made with the initiation of chemical and bacteriological works with a small staff in Nagpur.

Finances.

A combination of adverse circumstances has led to a substantial contraction of the resources of the province during the last three years. In spite of drastic retrenchment all round and the emergency cut in pay, the year opened with an unproductive debt of Rs. 61 lakhs, representing loans taken in 1930-31 and 1931-32 to cover deficits, and a small anticipated balance of about Rs. 3 lakhs. In the face of these circumstances the budget presented this year was intended to mark time and practically has reached the stage beyond which retrenchment is not possible. To replace partially the fall of revenue principally from Excise, a bill to impose license fees on the vend of tobacco was presented to the Council, but it overthrew the motion for its reference to a select committee. It is clear that the local Government will have to explore additional sources of revenue in order to be able to resume measures of development.

FINANCES OF THE CENTRAL PROVINCES.

ESTIMATED REVENUE FOR 1933-34.

Principal Heads of Revenue.

	Rs.
Taxes on Income	....
Salt	1,000
Land Revenue	2,53,76,000
Excise	57,50,000
Stamps	56,55,000
Forest	45,65,000
Registration	5,20,000
Total ..	4,18,67,000

Irrigation.

Irrigation, Navigation, Embankment and Drainage Works for which Capital Accounts are kept	....
Irrigation, Navigation, Embankment and Drainage Works for which no Capital Accounts are kept	— 1,18,000
Total ..	—1,18,000

Debt Services.

Interest	5,25,000

Civil Administration.

Administration of Justice ..	5,13,000
Jails and Convict Settlements ..	1,36,000
Police	75,000
Education	6,89,000
Medical	73,000
Public Health	65,000
Agriculture	2,65,000
Industries	8 000
Miscellaneous Departments ..	3,80,000
Total ..	22,04,000

Civil Works.

Civil Works	10,16,000

Miscellaneous.

Transfers from Famine Relief Fund	10,000
Receipts in aid of Superannuation	53,000
Stationery and Printing	55,000
Miscellaneous	5,04,000
Total ..	6,22,000

Extraordinary items.

Extraordinary receipts ..	15,000
Total Provincial Revenue ..	4,63,67,000

Debt Heads.

	Rs.
Deposits and Advances—Famine Relief Fund	10,22,000
Transfers from Famine Relief Fund	10,90,000
Appropriations for Reduction or Avoidance of Debt	3,55,000
Sinking Fund for loans granted to Local Bodies	400
Depreciation Fund for Forest Tramway	29,000
Depreciation Fund for Government Presses	32,000
Subventions from Central Road Development Account	3,32,000
Loans and Advances by Provincial Governments	31,75,600
Advances from Provincial Loans Fund and Government of India	7,66,000
Total Debt Heads ..	68,02,000
Total Revenue and Receipts ..	5,31,69,000
Opening balance { Ordinary ..	2,54,000
Famine Relief Fund ..	46,06,000
Grand Total ..	5,80,29,000

ESTIMATED EXPENDITURE FOR 1933-34.

Direct Demands on the Revenue.

Land Revenue	18,97,800
Excise	10,35,840
Stamps	1,32,081
Forest	35,38,880
Registration	1,86,273
Total ..	67,90,874

Irrigation.

Revenue Account of Irrigation, Navigation, Embankment and Drainage Works—	
Interest on Works for which Capital Accounts are kept ..	31,18,000
Other Revenue expenditure financed from Ordinary Revenues	1,52,000
Total ..	32,70,000

ESTIMATED EXPENDITURE FOR 1933-34—*contd.*

	Rs.
Irrigation—contd.	
Capital Account of Irrigation, Navigation, Embankment and Drainage Works charged to Revenue.—	
Construction of Irrigation, Navigation, Embankment and Drainage Works.—	
A.—Financed from Famine Insurance Grants	...
B.—Financed from Ordinary Revenue	28,000
Total ..	28,000
Debt Services.	
Interest on Ordinary Debt	5,000
Interest on other obligations ..	1,28,000
Reduction or Avoidance of Debt ..	3,55,000
Total ..	48,8,000
Civil Administration.	
General Administration Reserved	68,13,400
Do. Transferred	58,498
Administration of Justice	27,72 635
Jails and Convict Settlements ..	8,43 880
Police	59,74,199
Scientific Departments	13,445
Education—	
Reserved	1,14,000
Transferred	49,61,355
Medical	13,25,355
Public Health	3,52,040
Agriculture	15,37,646
Industries—	
Reserved	23,500
Transferred	1,92,555
Miscellaneous Departments—	
Reserved	1,57,000
Total ..	2,51,39,502
Civil Works.	
Civil Works—	
Reserved	61,000
Transferred	54,83,000
Total ..	55,44,000

	Rs.
Miscellaneous.	
Famine	..10,000
Superannuation Allowances and Pensions	38,27,880
Stationery and Printing—	
Reserved	7,88,600
Transferred	16,000
Miscellaneous—	
Reserved	82,620
Transferred	5,94,000
Total ..	53,19,100
For rounding	....
Total Provincial Expenditure ..	4,64,79,476
Principal Revenue heads—	
Forest and other Capital outlay not charged to Revenue—	
Forest Capital outlay	1,000
Capital account of Irrigation, Navigation, Embankments, Drainage and other Works not charged to Revenue—	
Construction of Irrigation Works	2,86,000
Civil Works not charged to Revenue	....
Miscellaneous—Capital outlay not charged to Revenue—	
Commuted Value of Pensions ..	3,79,000
Total ..	6,66,000
Debt Heads.	
Deposits and Advances—	
Famine Relief Fund	11,00,000
Transfers from Famine Relief Fund	6,85,000
Depreciation Fund for Government Presses	20,000
Depreciation Fund for Forest Tramway	....
Subventions from Central Road Development Account ..	4,65,000
Loans and Advances by Provincial Government	15,06,000
Advances from Provincial Loans Fund and Government of India	26,80,000
Total Debt Heads ..	64,56,000
Total Expenditure and Disbursements	5,37,01,476
Closing balance { Ordinary ..	— 2,00,476
Famine Relief Fund ..	45,28,000
Grand Total ..	5,80,29,000
Revenue Deficit ..	— 2,12,476

GOVERNOR.

His Excellency Sir Hyde Gowan, K.C.S.I., C.I.E., V.D., I.C.S.

MEMBERS OF THE EXECUTIVE COUNCIL.

The Hon'ble Mr. E. Raghavendra Rao, Bar.-at-Law.

The Hon'ble Mr. Eyre Gordon, B.A., (Oxon). C.I.E., I.C.S.

MINISTERS.

The Hon'ble Rai Bahadur K. S. Nayudu, B.A., LL.B.

The Hon'ble B. G. Khaparde, B.A., LL.B.

SECRETARIAT.

Chief Secretary, N. J. Roughton, C.I.E., I.C.S.

Financial Secretary, C. D. Deshmukh, I.C.S.

Revenue Secretary, P. J. H. Stent, I.C.S.

Settlement Secretary, T. C. S. Jayaratnam, I.C.S.

Legal Secretary, C. R. Hemeon, I.C.S.

Education Secretary, C. E. W. Jones, M.A., C.I.E.

Secretary, Public Works Department, (Buildings and Roads and Irrigation Branch), H. A. Hyde, M.C.

HEADS OF DEPARTMENTS.

Commissioner of Settlements, Director of Land Records, Registrar-General of Births, Deaths and Marriages and Inspector General of Registration, T. C. S. Jayaratnam, I.C.S.

Chief Conservator of Forests, C. A. Malcolm, C.I.E.

Excise Commissioner and Superintendent of Stamps, T. C. S. Jayaratnam, I.C.S.

Commissioner of Income Tax, Khan Bahadur Wali Muhammad, B.A.

Postmaster General, J. N. Mukerjee, O.B.E.

Accountant General, E. T. Coates, I.C.S.

Judicial Commissioner, F. L. Grille, Bar.-at-Law, I.C.S.

Inspector General of Prisons, Lieutenant-Colonel William Jackson Powell, I.M.S., C.I.E., M.D.

Inspector General of Police, C. C. Chitham.

Director of Public Instruction, C. E. W. Jones, C.I.E., M.A.

Lord Bishop, The Right Reverend Alex. Wood, M.A., O.B.E.

Inspector General of Civil Hospital, Lt.-Col. W. J. Powell, M.D., C.I.E., I.M.S.

Director of Public Health, Lt.-Col. W. J. Powell, M.D., C.I.E., I.M.S.

Director of Agriculture, J. H. Ritchie, M.A., B.Sc.

Director of Veterinary Services, Major R. F. Stirling, F.R.C.V.S.

Director of Industries and Registrar, Co-operative Societies, G. S. Bhalja, I.C.S.

CHIEF COMMISSIONERS.

Colonel E. K. Elliot 1860
Lieut-Colonel J. K. Spence (*Officiating*) .. 1862
R. Temple (*Officiating*) 1862
Colonel E. K. Elliot 1863
J. S. Campbell (*Officiating*) 1864
R. Temple 1864
J. S. Campbell (*Officiating*) 1865
R. Temple 1865
J. H. Morris (*Officiating*) 1867
E. Campbell 1867
J. H. Morris (*Officiating*) 1868

Confirmed 27th May 1870.

Colonel R. H. Keatinge, V.C., C.S.I. (*Offg.*) 1870
J. H. Morris, C.S.I. 1872
C. Grant (*Officiating*) 1879
J. H. Morris, C.S.I. 1879
W. B. Jones, C.S.I. 1883
C. H. T. Crosthwaite (*Officiating*) 1884

Confirmed 27th January 1885.

D. Fitzpatric (*Officiating*) 1885
J. W. Neill (*Officiating*) 1887
A. Mackenzie, C.S.I. 1887
R. J. Crosthwaite (*Officiating*) 1889

Until 7th October 1889.

J. W. Neill (*Officiating*) 1890
A. P. MacDonell, C.S.I. 1892
J. Woodburn, C.S.I. (*Officiating*) 1893

Confirmed 1st December 1893.

Sir C. J. Lyall, C.S.I., K.C.I.E. 1895
The Hon'ble Mr. D. C. J. Ibetson, C.S.I... 1898
" Sir A. H. L. Fraser, K.C.S.I. (*Officiating*) 1899

Confirmed 6th March 1902.

The Hon'ble Mr. J. P. Hewett, C.S.I., C.I.E., (*Officiating*) 1902

Confirmed 2nd November 1903.

The Hon'ble Mr. F. S. P. Lely, C.S.I., K.C.I.E. (*Officiating*) 1904

Confirmed 23rd December 1904.

The Hon'ble Mr. J. O. Miller, C.S.I. .. 1905
S. Ismay, C.S.I. (*Officiating*) 1906

Until 21st October 1906.

A. F. T. Phillips (*Officiating*) 1907
Until 24th March 1907. Also from 20th May to 21st November 1909.
The Hon'ble Sir R. H. Craddock, K.C.S.I. 1907
" Mr. H. A. Crump, C.S.I. .. 1912
Sub. *pro tem* from 26th January 1912 to 16th February.
The Hon'ble Mr. W. Fox-Strangways, C.S.I., (Sub *pro tem*) 1912
The Hon'ble Sir B. Robertson, K.C.S.I., C.I.E. 1912
The Hon'ble Mr. Crump, C.S.I. (*Officiating*) 1914
" Sir B. Robertson, K.C.S.I. .. 1914
" Sir Frank George Sly, K.C.S.I., I.C.S. 1919

GOVERNORS.

H. E. Sir Frank Sly, K.C.S.I., I.C.S. .. 1920
H. E. Sir Montagu Butler, Kt., C.B., C.I.E., C.V.O., C.B.E., I.C.S. 1925
H. E. Mr. J. T. Marten, C.S.I., I.C.S., (*Officiating*) 1927
H. E. Sir Montagu Butler, K.C.S.I., C.B., C.I.E., C.V.O., C.B.E., I.C.S. 1927
H. E. Sir A. E. Nelson, K.C.I.E., O.B.E., I.C.S. (*Officiating*) 1932
H. E. Sir Montagu Butler, K.C.S.I., C.B., C.I.E., C.V.O., C.B.E., I.C.S. 1932
H. E. Sir Hyde Gowan, K.C.S.I., C.I.E., V.D., I.C.S. 1933

CENTRAL PROVINCES LEGISLATIVE COUNCIL.

PRESIDENT.

The Hon'ble Mr. S. W. A. Rizvi, B.A., LL.B.

EX-OFFICIO MEMBERS.

The Hon'ble Mr. E. Raghavendra Rao, Barrister-at-Law, Member of the Executive Council.

The Hon'ble Mr. Eyre Gordon, C.I.E., I.C.S., Member of the Executive Council.

MINISTERS.

The Hon. Rai Bahadur K. S. Nayudu, B.A., LL.B.

The Hon. Mr. B. G. Khaparde, B.A., LL.B.

NOMINATED MEMBERS.

Officials.

Mr. Noel James Roughton, C.I.E., I.C.S., J.P., Chief Secretary to the Government of the Central Provinces.

Mr. Thomas Cook Samuel Jayaratnam, I.C.S., Secretary in the Settlement and Land Records Department, Central Provinces.

Mr. Rabindra Nath Banerjee, I.C.S., Revenue Secretary to the Government of the Central Provinces.

Mr. Chintaman Dwarkanath Deshmukh, I.C.S., Financial Secretary to the Government of the Central Provinces.

Mr. Clarence Reid Hemeon, I.C.S., Legal Remembrancer, Legal and Judicial Secretary to the Government of the Central Provinces (*Secretary to the Council*).

Mr. Goverdhan Shankerlal Bhalja, I.C.S., Registrar, Co-operative Societies and Director of Industries, Central Provinces.

Mr. Eustace Alberic Maenee, I.E.S., Director of Public Instruction and Secretary in the Education Department, Central Provinces.

Mr. John Hall Ritchie, I.A.S., Director of Agriculture, Central Provinces.

Non-officials.

Mr. Lalman Singh, Zamindar of Matin, post office Pasan, district Bilaspur (inhabitants of *Zamindari and Jagirdari estates*).

The Rev. G. C. Rogers, M.A., Head-Master, Christ Church School, Jubbulpore (*European and Anglo-Indian Communities*).

Mr. G. A. Gavai, Mal Tekdi Road, Amraoti.

Mr. T. C. Sakhare, Gaddigudam, Nagpur.

Mr. S. G. Naik, Superintendent of the Chokhamela Hostel, Amraoti.

Guru Gosain, Agamdass Malguzar of Mauza Bardi, P. O. Kharora, Tahsil Raipur, district Raipur (T. O. Neora).

} *Depressed Classes.*

Mr. R. W. Fulay, M.A., LL.B., Walker Road, Nagpur City (*Urban Factory Labourers*).

Mrs. Ramaba Tambe, B.A., near Maharajbag Club, Nagpur.

ELECTED MEMBERS.

A.—Members elected from the Central Provinces.

Name.	Constituency.
Mr. Balraj Jaiswara	Jubbulpore City, Non-Muhammadan (Urban).
Mr. Daduram	Jubbulpore Division (Urban).
Mr. Badri Prasad Pujari	Chhattisgarh Division (Urban).
Mr. Chunnu	Nerbudda Division (Urban).
Mr. C. B. Parakh	Nagpur City-cum-Kamptee.
Lala Jainarain	Do. do.
Mr. T. J. Kedar	Nagpur Division (Urban).
Mr. Sheoprasad Pandey	Jubbulpore District (South) Non-Muhammadan (Rural).
Pandit Kashi Prasad Pande	Jubbulpore District (North).
Mr. Jhuninlal Verma	Damoh District.
Mr. Dulichand	Saugor District.
Rai Sahib Dadu Dwarkanath Singh	Seoni District.
Choudhari Malthulal	Mandla District.
Mr. Waman Yado Deshmukh	Raipur District (North).
Mr. Anjore Rao Kirdutt	Raipur District (South).
Pandit Ramsanehi Gaurha	Bilaspur District.
Khan Sahib F. F. Tarapore	Drug District.
Mr. Gajadhar Prasad Jaiswal	Hoshangabad District.
Mr. Gopalrao Rambhau Joshi	Nimar District.
Mr. Arjunlal	Narsinghpur District.
Seth Sheolal	Chhindwara District.
Mr. Chandan Lal	Betul District.
Mr. Ganpat Rao Shanker Rao Deshmukh	Nagpur District (West).
Rao Bahadur K. S. Nayudu	Wardha District.
Mr. Shivramprasad Sultanprasad Tiwari	Wardha Tahsil.
Mr. R. S. Dube	Chanda District.
Mr. Vinayak Damodar Kolte	Bhandara District.
Khan Bahadur M. M. Mullna	Balaghat District.
Mr. Iftikhar Ali	Jubbulpore Division (Rural), Muhammadan (Rural).
The Hon'ble Mr. S. W. A. Rizvi	Chhattisgarh Division (Rural).
Mr. Syed Hifazat Ali	Nerbudda Division (Rural).
Mr. Mahomed Yusuf Shareef	Nagpur Division (Rural).
Beohar Gulab Sing	Jubbulpore and Nerbudda Landholders, Special Constituencies.
Thakur Manmohan Singh	Nagpur and Chhattisgarh Landholders.
Mr. D. T. Mangalmoorti	Nagpur University.
Mr. L. H. Bartlett	Central Provinces and Berar Mining Association.
Seth Thakurdas Goverdhandas	Central Provinces Commerce and Industry.

B.—Members from Berar nominated after election.

Mr. Vithal Bandhuji Chaobal	East Berar (Municipal), Non-Muhammadan (Urban).
Mr. R. A. Kanitkar	West Berar (Municipal).
The Hon'ble Dr. Panjabrao Shamrao Deshmukh.	Amraoti (Central) Non-Muhammadan (Rural).
Mr. Motirao Bajirao Tidake	Amraoti (East).
Rao Sahib Uttamrao Sitaramji Patil	Amraoti (West).
Mr. Sridhar Govind Sapkal	Akola (East).
Mr. Umedsingh Narainsingh Thakur	Akola (North-West).
Mr. Naik Dinkarrao Dharrao Rajurkar	Akola (South).
Mr. Yadav Madhav Kale	Buldana (Central).
Mr. Tukaram Shanker Patil	Buldana (Malkapur and Jalgaon).
Mr. Mahadeo Paikaji Kolhe	Yeotmal (East).
Mr. Ganpat Sitaram Malvi	Yeotmal (West).
Mr. Syed Mobinur Rahman	Berar (Municipal) Muhammadan (Urban).
Mr. Muzaffar Husain (Deputy President)	East Berar (Rural), Muhammadan (Rural).
Khan Bahadur Mirza Raham Beg	West Berar (Rural).
Mr. Balkrishna Ganesh Khaparde	Berar Landholders Special Constituencies.
Rao Bahadur Gajanan Ramchandra Kothare	Berar Commerce and Industry.

North-West Frontier Province.

The North-West Frontier Province, as its name denotes, is situated on the north-west frontier of the Indian Empire. It is in form an irregular strip of country lying north by east and south by west and may generally be described as the tract of country, north of Baluchistan, lying between the Indus and the Durand boundary line with Afghanistan. To the north it extends to the mountains of the Hindu Kush. From this range a long broken line of mountains runs almost due south, dividing the province from Afghanistan, until the Sulaiman Range eventually closes the south of the Province from Baluchistan. The greatest length of the province is 408 miles, its greatest breadth 279 miles and its total area about 36,346 square miles. The territory falls into three main geographical divisions: the Cis-Indus district of Hazara; the narrow strip between the Indus and the Hills, containing the Districts of Peshawar, Kohat, Bannu and Dera Ismail Khan, and the rugged mountainous regions on the north and west between those districts and the border line of Afghanistan. Hazara and the four districts in the second division contain 13,518 square miles. The mountain regions, north and west, are occupied by tribes subject only to the political control of the Chief Commissioner in his capacity as Agent to the Governor-General. The area of this tract is roughly 22,828 square miles and in it are situated, from north to south, the political agencies severally known as the Malakand, Khyber, Kurram, North Waziristan and South Waziristan Agencies. Each of the Deputy Commissioners of the five administered districts is responsible for the management of political relations with certain tribes or sections of the tribes across the frontier. A few hundred miles of the trans-border Territory are internally administered by the Political Agents, but the bulk of the trans-border population is free from any internal interference, so long as offences are not committed and so long as the tribes observe the conditions on which allowances are paid to many of them.

The area of the Province is a little more than half that of Bombay (excluding Sind and Aden) and amounts to more than three-fifths of the size of England without Wales. The density of population throughout the Province equals 99 persons to a square mile, but in the more favoured portions the pressure of population is much greater. In the Hazara District there are 208 persons to a square mile and in the trans-Indus plains tract the number is 156. Density for the 5 rented Districts 5,179 persons per s. mile. The key to the history of the people of the N.-W. F. P. lies in the recognition of the fact that the valley of Peshawar was always more closely connected politically with Eastern Iran than with India, though in pre-Mahomedan times its population was mainly Indian by race. Early history finds the Iranians dominating the whole Indus valley. Then came the Greek invasion under Alexander the Great, in B.C. 327 then the invasions of the Sakas, and of the White Huns and later the two great waves of Muhammadan invasion. Last came the Sikhs invasion beginning in 1818. The Frontier Territory was annexed by the British in 1849 and placed under the control of the Punjab Government. Frequent warfare occurred with the border tribes. The most serious phases of these disturbances were the war provoked by the aggression of Afghanistan in 1919 and the protracted punitive operations against the Waziris in 1919-1920. These have resulted in the establishment at Razmak, a position dominating the Mahsud Waziri country, of a permanent garrison of 10,000 troops drawn mostly from stations lying in the Plains immediately below the hills. A circular road from Bannu, through Razmak to Sararogha, Jandola and back to the Derajat provides communications transport with this force and facilitates its mobility. The effect of this measure has been a marked improvement in the internal peace of the Tribal area.

The division of the Frontier Province from the Punjab has frequently been discussed, with the double object, in the earlier stages of these debates, of securing closer and more immediate control and supervision of the Frontier by the Supreme Government and of making such alterations in the personnel and duties of frontier officials as would tend to the establishment of improved relations between the local British representatives and the independent tribesmen. The province was eventually removed from the control of the Punjab administration in 1901. To it was added the political charge of Dir, Swat and Chitral, the Political Agent of which had never been subordinate to the Punjab. The new Province was constituted under a Chief Commissioner and Agent to the Governor-General, with headquarters at Peshawar, in direct communication with the Government of India in the Foreign and Political Department. In political questions there is no intermediary between the Chief Commissioner and the local officer; an arrangement designed to secure both prompt disposal of references and the utilisation of the expert knowledge of frontier conditions for which the head of the administration is selected. The advisability of re-uniting the Province with the Punjab was much discussed in certain Indian political circles and as a result of the views expressed upon the matter in the Legislative Assembly the Government of India in 1922 appointed a Committee of officials and unofficials to investigate it. The Committee, presided over by Mr. D. de S. Bray, M.L.A., Joint Foreign Secretary, toured the Frontier Province and the Punjab and heard numerous witnesses. Its members were Messrs. Raza Ali, M.C.S., T. Rangacharia, Chaudhri Shahabuddin, N. M. Samarth and K. B. Abdur Rahim Khan, members of the Legislative Assembly, H. N. Bolton, I.C.S. (Foreign Dept.) and A. H. Parker, I.C.S. (Punjab) (members). The inquiry developed practically into a contest between

Mahomedans and Hindus on communal lines. The Hindus, allied in sympathy with their co-religionists in the Punjab demanded the reunion of the administered districts of the Province with the Punjab or, if that were not attainable then the placing of the judicial administration of the Province under the Punjab High Court at Lahore. The Mahomedans on the other hand claimed the right of their Province to a status corresponding with that enjoyed by other Provinces of India and to immediate reforms initiating and providing for progress along that line. The Hindus argued that a separate Pathan Province on the Frontier would cause a dangerous sentimental division from the rest of India, with leanings towards the allied racial elements outside British India. The answer to that was that a contented Pathan Province would be a valuable buttress against hostile feeling across the Border. The Committee's deliberations ended in disagreement, the two Hindu members writing each a separate report favourable to the Hindu viewpoint already explained, and the majority of the Committee, comprised of all its other members, recommending advance on a Provincial basis. Their principal recommendations were for—

Retention of the Settled Districts and Tribal Tracts as a separate unit in charge of a minor administration under the Government of India;

Early creation of a Legislative Council for the Settled District and appointment of Member of Council and Minister;

Appointment of a second Judicial Commissioner which has since been sanctioned and reform of the judicial administration in various directions, including interchange of officers with the Punjab, so that the members of the Service in the smaller Province should have the advantage of experience in the larger one.

"If (concluded the Majority) the Pathan nationality is allowed self-determination and given scope for that self-development within the Indian Empire under the Reforms Scheme after which it is now striving we are assured that with a contented Frontier population India can face with calm resolution the future that the Frontier has in store for her."

The People.

The total population of the N.-W. F. P. (1931) is 4,684,364, made up as follows:—

Hazara	669,636
Trans-Indus Districts ..	1,755,440
Trans-Border Area ..	2,259,288

This last figure is estimated. There are only 361·3 females per 1,000 males in the towns, and 872·2 females per 1,000 males in rural areas.

This disproportion of the sexes cannot at present be explained in the N.-W. F. P. any more than in other parts of Northern India where it also appears. The discrepancy is greater here than in any other Province of India. There is no ground for believing that the neglect of girls in infancy has any effect in causing the phenomenon. On the other hand, the female population has to face many trials which are unknown to men. The evils of unskilled midwifery and early marriage are among them. Both the birth and death-rates of the Province are abnormally low. The birth rate in the administered districts, according to the last available official reports, is 25·6 and the death-rate 21.9.

The dominant language of the Province is Pashtu and the population contains several lingual strata. The most important sections of the population, both numerically and by social position, are the Pathans. They own a very large proportion of the land in the administered districts and are the ruling race of the tribal area to the west. There is a long list of Pathan, Baluch, Rajput and other tribal divisions. Gurkhas have recently settled in the Province. The Mahomedan tribes constitute almost the whole population, Hindus amounting to only 5 per cent. of the total and Sikhs to a few thousands. The occupational cleavage of the population confuses ethnical divisions.

(Under the North-West Frontier Province Law and Justice Regulation of 1901), custom governs all questions regarding successions, betrothal, marriage, divorce, the separate property of women, dower, wills, gifts, partitions, family relations such as adoption and guardianship, and religious usages and institutions, provided that the custom be not contrary to justice, equity or good conscience. In these matters the Mahomedan or Hindu law is applied only in the absence of special custom.

Climate, Flora and Fauna.

The climatic conditions of the N.-W.F.P. which is mainly the mountainous region, but includes the Peshawar Valley and the riverine tracts of the Indus in Dera Ismail Khan District, are extremely diversified. The latter district is one of the hottest areas of the Indian continent, while on the mountain ranges the weather is temperate in summer and intensely cold in winter. The air is generally dry and hence the annual ranges of temperature are frequently very large. The Province has two wet seasons, one the S.-W. Monsoon season, when moisture is brought up from the Arabian Sea and the Bay of Bengal: the other in winter, when storms from Mesopotamia, Persia and the Caspian Districts bring widespread rain and snowfall. Both sources of supply are precarious and not infrequently either the winter or the summer rainfall fails almost entirely. The following description of the Daman, the high ground above the Indus, stretching across Dera Ismail Khan to the mountains on the west, occurs in an account written some years ago by Captain Crosthwaite: "Men drink once a day and the cattle every second day. Washing is an impossible luxury. . . . It is possible in the hot weather to ride thirty miles and neither hear a dog bark nor see the smoke of a single fire." With the exception of the Kunhar River, in Hazara, which flows into the Jhelum, the whole territory drains into the Indus. The flora of the Province varies from the shrubby jungle of the south-eastern plains to barren hills, pine forests and fertile mountain valleys. Tigers used to abound in the forests but are

now quite extinct; leopards, hyenas, wolves, jackals and foxes are the chief carnivora. Bears, deer and monkeys are found; a great variety of fish is caught in the Indus.

The mountain scenery is often magnificent. The frontier ranges contain many notable peaks of which the following are the principal:—

Takht-i-Sulaiman, Sulaiman Range, in Dera Ismail Khan, 11,292 feet.

Pre Ghal, Sulaiman Range, in Mahsud Waziristan, 11,583 feet.

Sika Ram, in the Safed Koh, in the Kurram Agency, 15,621 feet.

Kagan Peaks of the Himalayas, in the Hazara District, 10,000 to 16,700 feet.

Istragh Peak (18,900 ft.), Kachin Peak (22,641 ft.), Tirich Mir (25,426 ft.), all in the Hindu Kush, on the northern border of Chitral Agency.

Trade and Occupations.

The population derives its subsistence almost wholly from agriculture. The Province is practically without manufactures. There is no considerable surplus of commercial products for export. Any commercial importance which the province possesses it owes to the fact that it lies across the great trade routes which connect the trans-border tribal territories and the marts of Afghanistan and Central Asia with India, but the influence of railways is diminishing the importance of these trading interests. Special mention may be made of the railway comparatively recently opened linking Baluchistan, in the south-west of the N.-W. F. P., *via* Nushki with south-east Persia. The line connects with the north-west railway system of India and extends 348 miles to Duzdap, within the Persian border. Two weekly trains run each way and the freight carried largely consists of carpets, wool and dates, from Persia and of tea, sugar and piece-goods from the Indian side. Though the railway is primarily strategic in purpose its commercial and political effects will be considerable. The travelling traders (or Powin dahs) from the trans-frontier area have always pursued their wanderings into India and now, instead of doing their trading in towns near the border, carry it by train to the large cities in India. The Railway line from Pir to Lankitshina which is complete and open to public traffic now will similarly, in course of time, develop both the manner and amount of transport communications and trade. The new roads in Waziristan are already largely utilised by the Tribal inhabitants for motor traffic. Prices of agricultural produce have in recent years been high, but the agriculturists, owing to the poverty of the means of communication, have to some extent been deprived of access to Indian markets and have therefore been unable to profit by the rates prevailing. On the other hand, high prices are a hardship to the non-agricultural classes. The effects of recent extensions of irrigation have been important. Land tenures are generally the same in the British administered districts as in the Punjab. The cultivated area of the land amounts to 25 per cent. and uncultivated to 75 per cent.

The work of civilisation is now making steady progress, both by the improvement of communications and otherwise. Relations with the tribes have improved. trade has advanced, free medical relief has been vastly extended, police administration has been reformed and the desire of people for education has been judiciously and sympathetically fostered, though in this respect there is complaint against the limitations imposed by financial embarrassments. In the British administered districts 19 per cent. males and 7 per cent. females of the total population are returned as literates. The figures for males denote a very narrow diffusion of education even for India. Those for females are not notably low, but they are largely affected by the high literacy amongst Sikh women, of whom 13·3 per cent. are returned as literate. The inauguration of a system of light railways throughout the Province, apart from all considerations of strategy, must materially improve the condition of the people and also by that means strengthen the hold of the administration over them. The great engineering project of the Upper Swat River Canal, which was completed in 1914, and the lesser work of the Paharpur Canal, also completed a few years ago, will bring ease and prosperity to a number of peasant homes.

Administration.

The administration of the North-West Frontier Province is conducted by H. E. the Governor in Council and Agent to the Governor-General. His staff consist of—

(1) The Hon'ble Member of the Executive Council.
(2) The Hon'ble Minister Transferred Departments.
(3) The Hon'ble the President, Legislative Council.
(4) Officers of the Political Department of the Government of India.
(5) Members of the Provincial Civil Service.
(6) Members of the Subordinate Civil Service.
(7) Superintendents and Assistant Superintendents of Police.
(8) Officers recruited for the service of departments requiring special knowledge—Militia, Engineering, Education, Medicine and Forestry.

The cadre posts reserved for officers coming under the fourth head above are :—

Administration.	H. E. the Governor and Agent to the Governor-General	7
	The Hon'ble Member of the Executive Council	
	Chief Secretary	
	Secretary, Transferred Departments	
	Under-Secretary	
	Revenue and Divisional Commissioner and Revenue Secretary	
	Resident in Waziristan	1
	Dy. Commissioners 5 / Political Agents .. 5 / Senior Sub-Judges .. 2	12
	Asst. Commissioners and Asst. Political Agents.	13
Judicial Commr.'s Court & District Judges.	Two Judicial Commissioners.	4
	Two District and Sessions Judges.	
	One Additional ditto.	

The districts under the Deputy Commissioners are divided into from two to five sub-collectorates in charge of tahsildars, who are invested with criminal and civil and revenue powers, and are assisted by naib-tahsildars, who exercise only criminal and revenue powers. Some sub-divisions are in charge of Assistant or Extra Assistant Commissioners. The village community characteristic of some parts of India is not indigenous among the Pathans. Its place as a social unit is to some extent taken by the tribe, which is held together by the ties of kinship and ancient ancestry, real or imaginary. Modern municipal local government has been introduced in the towns. There are also district boards. The district is the unit for police, medical and educational administration and the ordinary staff includes a District Superintendent of Police, a Civil Surgeon, the Superintendent of Jail and a District Inspector of Schools. The Province forms a single educational circle and only possesses one forest division, that of Hazara. The P. W. D. of the Province carries out duties connected with both Irrigation and Buildings & Roads. It is organised in two circles (in all seven Divisions) under a Chief Engineer, P.W.D. who is also *ex-officio* Secretary to H. E. the Governor in Council. The administration of the civil police force of the districts is vested in an Inspector-General. There is a special force of Frontier Constabulary. The revenue and expenditure of the Province are wholly Imperial. Of the Agencies only Kurram and Tochi Valley pay land revenue to the British Government. The revenue administration of all five administered districts is controlled by the Revenue and Divisional Commissioner. For the administration of civil and criminal justice there are two Civil and Sessions districts, each presided over by a District and Sessions Judge. The two Judicial Commissioners are the controlling authority in the Judicial branch of the administration, and their Courts are the highest criminal and appellate tribunals in this Province. The improvements needed to bring the judicial administration up-to-date, in accord with the growth of the business of administration, are dealt with in the Inquiry Committee's report to which reference was made above.

A Governor's Province.—In January 1932 it was announced that the Province would be constituted as a Governor's Province, and the application to the Province of the provisions of the Government of India Act was gazetted, subject to the following modifications:—

(*a*) that the number of members of the Legislative Council shall be forty;

(*b*) that the maximum annual salary of the Governor shall be Rs. 66,000, and of a member of the Executive Council Rs. 42,000; and

(*c*) that Section 58 of the said Act shall cease to have effect in its application to the Province. This notification shall have effect from such date or dates in respect of any or all provisions as may be notified.

Electoral rules were notified in February 1932.

The Administration.

The principal officers in the present Administration are:—

H. E. the Governor and Agent to the Governor-General.—H. E. Lieut.-Col. Sir Ralph Griffith, K.C.S.I., C.I.E. (Assumed charge 18th April 1932).

Private Secretary—Captain L. M. Barlow, M. C.

Aide-de-Camp—Lieut. N. M. W. Kyle.

The Hon'ble Member of the Executive Council—Mr. G. Cunningham, C.S.I., C.I.E., O.B.E., I.C.S.

Resident, Waziristan—Lieut.-Col. A. E. B. Parsons, C.B.E. D.S.O.

Judicial Commissioner—L. Middleton I.C.S.

Additional Judicial Commissioner—Khan Bahadur Saaduddin Khan, B.A., LL.B.

Revenue and Divisional Commissioner—J. S. Thomson.

Chief Secretary to Government, N.W.F.P.—O. K. Caroe, C.I.E. I.C.S.

Secretary to Government, Transferred Departments—A. D. F. Dundas, I.C.S.

Under Secretary to Chief Commissioner—Capt. G. C. L. Crichton

Financial Secretary to Government, N.W.F.P.—Rai Bahadur Lala Chuni Lal.

Asstt. Financial Secy. to Govt., N.W.F.P.—S. Ata Elahi Siddidi.

Indian Personal Assistant, H. E. the Governor—Khan Sahib Haji Gulam Naqshband Khan.

Secretary, Public Works Department—F. H. Burkitt, C.I.E., O.B.E.

Civil Hospitals.

Inspector-General of Prisons.—Col. C. I. Brierley, C.I.E., I.M.S.

Inspector-General of Police—J. H. Adam, O.B.E.

Commandant, Frontier Constabulary—H. Lillie, I.P.

Director of Public Instruction—T. C. Orgill, M.A., I.E.S.

Superintendent, Archæological Survey, Frontier Circle—J. F. Blakiston.

District and Sessions Judge—A. J. Hopkinson, I.C.S. (Peshawar).

J. H. Thompson, I.C.S. (Derajat.)

Political Agents.

L. W. H. D.Bes, O.B.E.T., M.C., Dir Swat and Chitral.

K. B. Risaldar Maghal Bazkhan, O.B.E., I.O.M., I.D.S.M.

Captain K. C. Packman, North Waziristan.

Capt. B. P. Ross Hurst, M.C., Kurram.

Brevet-Major H. H. Johnson, M.M., South Waziristan.

Deputy Commissioners.

Capt. Iskandor Mirza, Hazara.

J. G. Acheson, C.I.E., I.C.S., Peshawar.

Major J. R. L. Bradshaw, Dera Ismail Khan.

Captain C. C. H. Smith, Kohat.

Captain M. C. Sinclair, Bannu.

Former Chief Commissioners.

The Hon'ble Lieutenant-Colonel Sir Harold Deane, K.C.S.I., from 9th November 1901 to 3rd June 1908. Died 7th July 1908.

The Hon. Lieutenant-Colonel Sir George Roos-Keppel, G.C.I.E., K.C.S.I., from 4th June 1908 to 9th September 1919.
The Hon'ble Sir Alfred Hamilton Grant, K.C.S.I., K.C.I.E., from 10th September 1919 to 7th March 1921.
The Hon'ble Sir John Loader Maffey, K.C.V.O., C.S.I., I.C.S., from 8th March 1921 to 6th July 1923.
The Hon'ble Sir Horatio Norman Bolton, K.C.I.E., C.S.I., I.C.S., from 7th July 1923 to 30th April 1930.
The Hon'ble Sir Steuart Pears, K.C.I.E., C.S.I., I.C.S., from 10th May 1930 to 9th September 1931.

N. W. F. PROVINCE LEGISLATIVE COUNCIL.

The Hon'ble K. B. Khan Abdul Ghafur Khan, Khan of Zaida (*President*).
K. B. Abdul Rahim Khan, M.B.E., Bar-at-Law (*Deputy President*).
Sheekh Abdul Hamid, B.A., LL.B. (*Secretary*).

EX-OFFICIO MEMBERS AND MINISTERS.

The Hon'ble Mr. G. Cunningham, C.S.I., C.I.E., O.B.E., Executive Councillor.
The Hon'ble K. B. Nawab Sir Abdul Qayum Khan, K.C.I.E., Minister to the Government, N.W.F.P.

OFFICIALS NOMINATED MEMBERS.

Thompson, Mr. J. S., I.C.S., Revenue and Division Commissioner, 10, The Mall, Peshawar Cantonment.

Dundas, Mr. A. D. F., I.C.S., Secretary to Government, Transferred Departments, 5, Circular Road, Peshawar Cantonment.

Adam, Mr. J. H., O.B.E., Inspector-General of Police, Commissioner Road, Peshawar Cantonment.

Rai Bahadur Chuni Lal, Financial Secretary to Government, Peshawar Cantonment.

Khan Sahib Qazi Mir Ahmed, B.A., LL.B. (Alig.), Legal Remembrancer to Government, Roose-Keppel Lane, Peshawar Cantonment.

NON-OFFICIALS NOMINATED MEMBERS.

Allah Nawaz Khan, Nawabzada, Representative of general interests, Dera Ismail Khan.
Khan Ghulam Rabbani Khan, B.A., LL.B. (Alig.), Representative of general interests, Mansehra, Hazara District.
Hassan Ali Khan, Sultan , Khan Sahib, of Boi, Representative of general interest, Boi, Mansehra Tahsil, Hazara District.
Khan Malik-kur Rahaman Khan, Kayani, M.A., Representative of general interests, Sahpur, Kohat District.
Narinjan Singh Bedi, Baba, B.A., Representative of general interests, Ganj Street, Peshawar City.

ELECTED MEMBERS.

Khan Abdul Ghafur Khan, Hashtnagar (Muhammadan), Bar-at-Law, Peshawar.
Abdul Qayum Khan, Mr., B.A., LL.B. (Alig.), Outer Mansehra (Muhammadan), Mansehra, Hazara District.
Abdur Rahaman Khan, Arbab, Doaba-cum-Daud zai (Muhammadan), Gari Gulla, Post Office, Nahaqui, Peshawar District.
Khan Abdul Hamid Khan, Kundi, B.A., LL.B. (Alig.), North-West Frontier Province (Landholders), Pleader, Gul Imam, Dera Ismail Khan District.
Baz Muhammad Khan, Khan Bahadur Nawab, Kohat East (Muhammadan), Teri, Kohat District.
Ghulam Haider Khan, Khan Bahadur, Bannu North (Muhammadan), Bazar Ahamad Khan, Bannu District.
Ghulam Hassan Ali Shah *alias* Hassan Gul Pir, Kohat West (Muhammadan), Naryab, Kohat District.
Khan Hidayatullah Khan, Peshawar District (Landholders), Umarzai, Tashil Charsadda, Peshawar District.
Khan Habibullah Khan, B.A., LL.B. (Alig.), Bannu South (Muhammadan), Pleader, Lakki, Bannik District.
Hamidullah Khan, Khan Bahadur Nawab, Razzar-cum-Amazai (Muhammadan), Toru, Peshawar District.
Hazara Isher Das, Rai Bahadur Lala, M.A., LL.B., (Non-Muhammadan), Nawanshahr, Hazara District.
Karam Chand, Rai Bahadur, O.B.E., Mardan (Non-Muhammadan), Peshawar Cantonment.
Khuda Baksh Khan, Malik, B.A., LL.B., Other Towns (Muhammadan), Pleader, Dera Ismail Khan.
Ladha Ram, Lala, B.A., LL.B., Kohat-cum-Bannu (Non-Muhammadan), Pleader, Bannu City.
Muhammad Zaman Khan, Khan Sahib, Hazara Central (Muhammadan), Khalabat, Hazara District.
Khan Muhammad Abbas Khan, Inner Mansehra (Muhammadan), Mansehra, Hazara District.
Muhammad Sharif Khan, Arbab, B.A., Khalisa-cum-Bara (Muhammadan), Land Yarghajo, Peshawar District.
Muhammad Ayub Khan, Mr., Mardan Kamalzai-cum -Baizai (Muhammadan), Khandi Khan Khelan, Hoti, Peshawar District.
Mehar Chand Khanna, Rai Sahib Lala, B.A., Peshawar City (Non-Muhammadan), Saddar Bazar, Peshawar Cantonment.
Nur Bakhsh, Maulvi, B.A., LL.B., Dera Ismail Khan East (Muhammadan), Pleader, Dera Ismail Khan.
Pir Bakhsh, Mr., M.A., LL.B. (Alig.), Peshawar City (Muhammadan,) Pleader, Kissa Khani, Peshawar City.
Rajah Singh, Sardar, M.A., LL.B., North-West Frontier Province (Sikh), Advocate, 1, Cavalry Lane, Peshawar Cantonment.
Rochi Ram, Rai Sahib Lala, Dera Ismail Khan (Non-Muhammadan), Contractor, Dera Ismail Khan.
Sultan Muhammad Khan, Khan Bahadur, Hazara South (Muhammadan), Bir, Hazara District.
Samundar Khan, Mr., Hazara East (Muhammadan), Banda Pir Khan, Hazara District.
Taj Muhammad Khan, Khan Bahadur, O.B.E., Nowshera (Muhammadan), Badrashi, Nowshera.

Assam.

The Province of Assam, omitting the partly administered and unadministered tracts on its northern and eastern borders, comprises an area of some 67,334 square miles. It includes the Assam Valley Division, the Surma Valley and Hill Division and the State of Manipur. It owes its importance to its situation on the north-east frontier of India. It is surrounded by mountainous ranges on three sides while on the fourth (the west) lies the Province of Bengal on to the plains of which debouch the two valleys of the Brahmaputra and the Surma which form the plains of Assam. These two valleys are separated from each other by the Assam Range, which projects westward from the hills on the eastern border.

Population.

The total population of the Province in 1931 was 9,247,857, of whom 445,606 were in Manipur. Of the population in 1931, nearly 5½ millions were Hindus, over 2¾ millions were Muslims, a million belonged to tribal religions and a quarter of a million were Christians. 43 per cent. of the population speak Bengali, 21 per cent. speak Assamese: other languages spoken in the province are Hindi, Uriya, Mundari, Nepali and a great variety of languages classified under the general heading of the Tibeto-Chinese languages. Owing to the great areas of waste and rivers the density of the province is only 137, which compared with that of most other parts of India is low.

Agricultural Products.

It has agricultural advantages for which it would be difficult to find a parallel in any part of India, climate, soil, rainfall and river systems all being alike favourable to cultivation. Rice is the staple food crop, nearly 48,70,509 acres being devoted on this crop. Except in the Himalayan Terai irrigation is unnecessary. Tea and jute are the most important crops grown for export. The area under tea consists of 4,28,120 acres. Wheat and tobacco are also grown and about 32,007 acres are devoted to sugarcane.

Meteorological Conditions.

Rainfall is everywhere abundant, and ranges from 23·39 to 241·76 inches. The maximum is reached at Cherrapunji in the Khasi Hills, which is one of the wettest places in the world, having a rainfall of 520·09 inches. The temperature ranges from 59 at Sibsagar in January to 84·8 in July. Earthquakes of considerable severity have taken place, by far the worst being that which occurred in 1897.

Mines and Minerals.

The only minerals in Assam worked on a commercial scale are coal, limestone and petroleum oil. The most extensive coal measures are in the Naga Hills and the Lakhimpur districts, where about 202,959 tons were raised in 1932. Limestone is quarried in the Khasi and Jaintia Hills. Petroleum is worked only in Lakhimpur and Cachar.

An account of the petroleum occurrences in Assam was recently published in the memoirs of the Geological Survey of India. It states that the petroleum localities in this province are confined to a curved belt of country along the basins of the Brahmaputra and Surma. This belt is traceable over a distance of some 800 miles from N. E. Assam through Cachar and Chittagong to the Arakan coast, where it has a S.S.E. trend.

Manufactures and Trade.

Silk is manufactured in the Assam Valley, the weaving being done by the women. Cotton weaving is also largely practised by the women, and almost every house contains a loom; the cloth is being gradually displaced by imported goods of finer texture and colour. Tea manufacture is the most important industry of the province. Boat building, brass and metal and earthenwares, and limestone burning are the other industries apart from agriculture, which itself employs about 89 per cent. of the population. Assam carries on a considerable trade with the adjoining foreign tribes and countries.

Communications.

Much of the trade of Assam is carried by river. The excellence of its water communications makes the province less dependent upon roads than over parts of India. A large fleet of steamers maintained by the India General Navigation Company and the Rivers Steam Navigation Company plies on the rivers in both Valleys. An alternate day service of passenger-boats runs between Goalundo and Dibrugarh. In recent years the road system has developed. There is an unmetalled trunk road through the length of the Assam Valley and excellent metalled roads from Shillong to Gauhati and to Cherrapunjee and also between Dimapur, on the Assam Bengal Railway, and Imphal, the capital of the Manipur State. A motor road, connecting Shillong with the Surma Valley, has been completed and opened to traffic. The portion between Jaintiapur and Sylhet is being metalled. The Government of Assam have recently launched into a large programme of road improvements but has to be postponed on account of financial depression. About 735 miles are to be bridged throughout and the surface improved by metalling and gravelling where possible. *Kutcha* roads will be maintained by means of mechanical plant which has proved successful in maintaining, throughout the year, a surface fit for motor vehicles. Motor traffic has increased on all sides and the demands for better roads has been insistent. The open mileage of railway has also shown a steady improvement and several branch lines to the Assam Bengal Railway system have been added in recent years. The main Assam Bengal Railway line runs from Chittagong Port, in Bengal, through the North Cachar Hills to Tinsukia, a station on the Dibru-Sadiya Railway and connects the Surma and Brahmaputra Valleys. A branch of the line runs from Badarpur to Silchar at the Eastern end of the Surma Valley and another runs through the west of the Assam Valley from Lumding to Gauhati where it effects a junction with the Eastern Bengal Railway. The Eastern Bengal Railway connects Assam with the Bengal system *viz* the Valley of the Brahmaputra. An extension towards Rangapora from Tangla junction; along the North Bank of the Brahmaputra has been opened to traffic.

THE FINANCES OF ASSAM.

In common with the other Provinces of India, Assam secured substantial financial autonomy under the Reform Act of 1919. The present financial position for 1933-34 is set out in the following table :—

	Trs.
Principal Heads of Revenue—	
Taxes on Income	1,75
Salt	..
Land Revenue	1,13,00
Excise	37,49
Stamps	18,20
Forest	14,24
Registration	1,67
Railways—	
State Railways—	
Gross receipts	..
Deduct—Working expenses	..
Net receipts	..
Subsidised Companies	..
Total	..
Debt Services—	
Interest	1,09
Civil Administration—	
Administration of Justice	1,88
Jails and Convict Settlements	57
Police	1,66
Ports and Pilotage	..
Education	3,09
Medical	1,77
Public Health	78
Agriculture	1,10
Industries	6
Miscellaneous Departments	33
Buildings, Roads and Miscellaneous Public Improvements—	
Civil Works	7,21
Miscellaneous—	
Receipts in aid of Superannuation	17
Stationery and Printing	42
Miscellaneous	87
Contributions and Assignments to and from the Central Government—	
Miscellaneous adjustments between the Central and Provincial Governments	..
Revenue in England	..
Capital Revenue—	
Recoveries of loans and advances by the Assam Government	6,84
Loan from the Provincial Loans Fund	30,08
Appropriation for reduction or avoidance of debt	2,52
Government Press—Depreciation Fund	..
Provincial Subvention from Central Road Development Account	1,80
Suspense	..
Total receipts	2,48,59
Opening Balance	..
Grand total	2,48,59
Reserved Subjects—	
Land Revenue	71,95
Stamps	48
Forest	12,56
Forest	47
State Railways	50
Subsidised Companies	*nil.*

	Trs.
Miscellaneous Railway expenditure	1
Construction of Railways	*nil.*
Navigation, Embankments, Drainage Works	65
Interest on ordinary Debt	3,80
Appropriation for reduction or avoidance of debt	2,52
General Administration	23,35
Administration of Justice	9,54
Jails and Convict Settlements	5,01
Police (other than Assam Rifles)	24,60
Police (Assam Rifles)	3,37
Ports and Pilotage	29
Scientific Departments	3
Education (European)	73
Medical	1
Miscellaneous Departments	28
Civil Works	35,97
Famine Relief and Insurance	2
Superannuation Allowances and Pensions	11,35
Stationery and Printing	2,76
Miscellaneous	3,19
Extraordinary charges	47
Contributions to the Central Government by the Provincial Government	..
Total Reserved Subjects	159,91
Transferred Subjects—	
Land Revenue	..
Excise	5,43
Registration	1,50
General Administration	99
Scientific Departments	*nil*
Education (other than European)	30,46
Medical	12,30
Public Health	6,15
Agriculture	6,76
Industries	1,69
Miscellaneous Departments	1
Civil Works	3,72
Stationery and Printing	55
Miscellaneous	2,44
Total Transferred subjects	72,00
Capital Expenditure—	
Forest capital outlay not charged to revenue	5
Civil Works not charged to revenue.	*nil.*
Payment of commuted value of pensions not charged to revenue	83
Payment of gratuities retrenched personnel	40
Government Press Depreciation Fund	*nil.*
Advances from the Provincial Loans Fund	252
Loans and advances by the Assam Government	85
Provincial Subvention from Central Road Development Account	2,06
Suspense	*nil.*
Expenditure in England	9,97
Total expenditure	2,48,59
Closing balance	*nil*
Grand Total	2,48,59

Administration.

The province of Assam was originally formed in 1874 in order to relieve the Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal of part of the administration of the huge territory then under him. In 1905, as the result of further deliberations, it was decided to add to the small Province of Assam the eastern portion of its unwieldy neighbour and to consolidate those territories under a Lieutenant-Governor. The Province of Eastern Bengal and Assam as then constituted was again broken up on the 1st of April, 1912: the Eastern Bengal Districts were united with the Bengal Commissionerships of Burdwan and the Presidency to form the Presidency of Bengal under a Governor-in-Council, Bihar, Chota-Nagpur and Orissa were formed into a separate province, while the old Province of Assam was re-constituted under a Chief Commissioner.

Under the Indian Reforms Act of 1919 the Province was raised in status to that of administration by a Governor-in-Council and was thereby ranked, with certain minor provinces, to suit its undeveloped character with the older major provinces of India.

The capital is Shillong, a town laid out with great taste and judgment among the pine woods on the slopes of the Shillong Range which rises to a height of 6,450 feet above the sea. It was destroyed in the earthquake of 1897 and has been rebuilt in a way more likely to withstand the shocks of earthquake.

Governor.

H. E. Sir Michael Keane, K.C.S.I., C.I.E., I.C.S.

Executive Council.

The Hon'ble Maulavi Saiyid Sir Muhammad Saadulla, Kt., M.A., B.L.

The Hon'ble Mr. A. J. Laine, C.I.E., I.C.S.

Ministers.

The Hon'ble Maulavi Abdul Hamid, B.L.

The Hon'ble Rai Bahadur Kanak Lal Barua, B.L.

Personal Staff of His Excellency the Governor.

Private Secretary, Capt. R. C. Cruddas, The Duke of Cornwall's Light Infantry.

Aide-de-Camp, Lieutenant A. E. H. Campbell, The Queen's own Cameron Highlanders.

Honorary Aide-de-Camp, Subadar-Major Sardar Bahadur Nainsing Mall, I.D.S.M.

Honorary Aide-de-Camp, Subadar Krishna Lal Chettie.

Honorary-Aide-de-Camp, Lt.-Col. J. P. Moran, V.D.

Secretaries, etc., to Government.

Chief Secretary, J. A. Dawson, C.I.E., I.C.S.

Secretary to Government (Finance and Revenue), C. K. Rhodes, I.C.S.

Secretary to Government (Transferred Departments), H. G. Dennehy, I.C.S.

Under Secretary to Government, C. B. C. Paine, I.C.S.

Under Secretary (Transferred Departments), N. N. Phukan, B.L.

Secretary to Government (Legislative Department) and Secretary to the Assam Legislative Council, M. H. B. Lethbridge, I.C.S. (offg.)

Secretary to Government in the P. W. D., E. P. Burke, I.S.E.

Superintending Engineer, B. F. Taylor, I.S.E.

Under Secretary, P.W.D., Devi Doyal, I.S.E.

Assistant Secretary, Finance and Revenue Departments, A. V. Jones, V.D.

Registrar, Assam Secretariat (Civil), Ubaid-ur-Rahman.

Registrar, Assam Secretariat (P.W.D.), D. C. Das.

Heads of Departments.

Director of Land Records & Surveys, I. G. Registration, etc., W. L. Scott, C.I.E., I.C.S.

Director of Industries and Registrar of Co-operative Society & Village Authorities, I. Majid, I.C.S., (offg.)

Director of Agriculture, J. N. Chakrabarty, (offg.)

Superintendent, Civil Veterinary Department, G. B. Sen (in-charge).

Conservator of Forests, Assam, A. J. W. Milroy.

Commissioner of Excise, Registrar of Joint Stock Companies, Assam, C. S. Mullan, I.C.S.

Superintendent and Remembrancer of Legal Affairs and Administrator-General, M. H. B. Lethbridge, I.C.S.

Inspector-General of Police, T. P. M. O'Callaghan, C.I.E.

Director of Public Instruction, D. E. Roberts (offg).

Inspector-General of Civil Hospitals and Prisons, Col. J. P. Cameron, C.I.E., C.S.I.

Director of Public Health, Lt.-Col. T. D. Murison.

Chief Engineer, E. P. Burke.

Governors.

Sir Nicholas Dodd Beatson Bell, K.C.S.I., K.C.I.E., 1921.

Sir William Sinclair Marris, K.C.S.I., K.C.I.E., 1922.

Sir John Henry Kerr, K.C.S.I., K.C.I.E., 1925.

Sir William James Reid, K.C.I.E., C.S.I., 1925.

Sir Egbert Laurie Lucas Hammond, K.C.S.I., C.B.E., 1927.

Sir Michael Keane, K.C.S.I., C.I.E., 1932.

ASSAM LEGISLATIVE COUNCIL.

The Hon'ble Maulavi Faiznur Ali .. .. *(President).*
The Hon'ble Maulavi Saiyid Sir Muhammad Saadulla, Kt. .. } *(Ex-officio).*
The Hon'ble Mr. A. J. Laine, C.I.E., I.C.S. .. .. }

Names.	Constituency by which elected.
ELECTED MEMBERS.	
The Rev. J. J. M. Nichols-Roy	Shillong (General Urban).
Babu Sanat Kumar Das	Silchar (Non-Muhammadan Rural).
Babu Hirendra Chandra Chakrabarti	Hailakandi ditto.
Babu Birendra Lal Das	Sylhet Sadar ditto.
Babu Kalicharan Muchi	Sunamganj ditto.
Rai Bahadur Nagendra Nath Chaudhuri ..	Habiganj (North) ditto.
Babu Jitendra Kumar Pal Chaudhuri ..	Habiganj (South) ditto.
Banu Chiratan Mochi	South Sylhet ditto.
Mr. Sasanka Mohan Das	Karimganj ditto.
Kumar Pramathesh Chandra Barua	Dhubri ditto.
Srijut Rohini Kumar Chaudhuri	Gauhati ditto.
Srijut Bepin Chandra Ghose	Goalpara ditto.
Rai Bahadur Rajani Kanta Chaudhuri ..	Barpata ditto.
Rai Sahib Dalim Chandra Bara	Tezpur ditto.
Kumar Bhupendra Narain Deb	Mangaldai ditto.
Srijut Brindaban Chandra Goswami	Nowgong ditto.
Srijut Jogendra Nath Gohain	Sibsagar ditto.
Srijut Kasi Nath Saikia	Jorhat ditto.
Srijut Mohendra Nath Gohain	Golaghat ditto.
Rai Bahadur Nilambar Datta	Dibrugarh ditto.
Srijut Sarveswar Barua	North Lakhimpur ditto.
The Hon'ble Maulavi Abdul Hamid	Sylhet Sadr (North) (Muhammadan Rural)
Haji Idris Ali Parlaskar	Cachar ditto.
Vacant	Sylhet Sadr (South) ditto.
Maulavi Munawar Ali	Sunamganj ditto.
Maulavi Abdur Rahim Chaudhury	Habiganj (North) ditto.
Maulavi Saiyid Abdul Mannan	Habiganj (South) ditto.
Maulavi Abdul Khalique Chaudhury	South Sylhet ditto.
Maulavi Mahmud Ali	Karimganj ditto.
Maulavi Abual Mazid Ziaoshshams	Dhubri ditto.
Maulavi Mizanar Rahman	Goalpara *cum* South Salmara Thana. ditto.
Khan Sahib Maulavi Nuruddin Ahmed ..	Kamrup and Darrang *cum* Nowgong. ditto.
The Hon'ble Maulavi Faiznur Ali	Sibsagar *cum* Lakhimpur ditto.
Mr. L. J. Godwin	Assam Valley Planting.
Mr. E. S. Roffey	Ditto.
Mr. H. W. Hockenhull	Ditto.
Ms. W. E. D. Cooper	Surma Valley Planting.
Mr. F. J. Heathcote	Ditto.
The Hon'ble Rai Bahadur Kanak Lal Barua ..	Commerce and Industry.

NOMINATED MEMBERS

Officials.

W. A. Cosgrave, C.I.E.
E. P. Burke.
C. K. Rhodes.
S. P. Desai.
D. E. Roberts.

Non-Officials.

Sreejukta Atul Krishna Bhattacharya.
Srijut Mahendra Lal Das.
Khan Sahib Maulavi Muhammad Mashraf.
Rai Sahib Pyari Mohan Das.
Rev. Tanuram Saikia representing the labouring classes.
Subadar-Major Sardar Bahadur Jangbir Lama, O.B.I., I.D.S.M., (representing the inhabitants of Backward Tracts).
Khan Bahadur Maulavi Keramat Ali, Jorhat.

Baluchistan.

Baluchistan is an oblong stretch of country occupying the extreme western corner of the Indian Empire. It is divided into three main divisions: (1) British Baluchistan with an area of 9,476 square miles consisting of tracts assigned to the British Government by treaty in 1879; (2) Agency Territories with an area of 44,345 square miles composed of tracts which have, from time to time, been acquired by lease or otherwise brought under control and placed directly under British officers; and (3) the Native States of Kalat and Las Bela with an area of 80,410 square miles. The Province embraces an area of 134,638 square miles and according to the census of 1931 it contains 868,617 inhabitants.

The country, which is almost wholly mountainous, lies on a great belt of ranges connecting the Safed Koh with the hill system of Southern Persia. It thus forms a watershed the drainage of which enters the Indus on the east and the Arabian Sea on the south while on the north and west it makes its way to the inland lakes which form so large a feature of Central Asia. Rugged, barren, sun-burnt mountains, rent by high chasms and gorges, alternate with arid deserts and stony plains, the prevailing colour of which is a monotonous sight. But this is redeemed in places by level valleys of considerable size in which irrigation enables much cultivation to be carried on and rich crops of all kinds to be raised.

The political connection of the British Government with Baluchistan commenced from the outbreak of the First Afghan War in 1839; it was traversed by the Army of the Indus and was afterwards occupied until 1842 to protect the British lines of communication. The districts of Kachi, Quetta and Mastung were handed over to the Amir of Afghanistan and Political Officers were appointed to administer the country. At the close of the First Afghan War, the British withdrew and these districts were assigned to the Khan of Kalat. The founder of the Baluchistan Province as it now exists was Sir Robert Sandeman who broke down the close border system and welded the Baluch and Brahui Chiefs into a close confederacy. In the Afghan War of 1879 Pishin, Shorarud, Sibi, Zawara Valley and Thal-Chotiali were handed over by Yakub Khan to the British Government and retained at Sir Robert Sandeman's strenuous insistence.

Industries.

Baluchistan lies outside the monsoon area and its rainfall is exceedingly irregular and scanty. Shahrig, which has the heaviest rainfall, records no more than 11¾ inches in a year. In the highlands few places receive more than 10 inches and in the plains the average rainfall is about 5 inches, decreasing in some cases to 3. The majority of the indigenous population are dependent for their livelihood on agriculture, care of animals and provision of transport. The majority of the Afghan and the Baluch, as a rule, cultivate their own lands. The Brahuis dislike agriculture and prefer a pastoral life. Previous to the advent of the British, life and property were so insecure that the cultivator was fortunate if he reaped his harvest. The establishment of peace and security has been accompanied by a marked extension of agriculture which accounts for the increase in the numbers of the purely cultivating classes. The Mekran Coast is famous for the quantity and quality of its fish and the industry is constantly developing. Fruit is extensively grown in the highlands and the export is increasing.

Education is imparted in 108 public schools of all kinds with 7,665 scholars. There is a distinct desire for education amongst the more enlightened headmen round about Quetta and other centres; but on the whole education or the desire of it has made little or no advance in the outlying districts. Coal is mined at Sharigh and Harnai on the Sind-Pishin Railway and in the Bolan Pass. The output of coal in 1929-30 was 16,959 tons. Chromite is extracted in the Zhob District near Hindubagh. The chrome output fell off owing to poorer demand. Limestone is quarried in small quantities. The output of chromite during 1929-30 amounted to 17,906 tons.

Administration.

The head of the local administration is the officer styled Agent to the Governor-General and Chief Commissioner. Next in rank comes the Revenue Commissioner who controls the revenue administration and exercises the functions of a High Court as Judicial Commissioner of the Province. The keynote of administration in Baluchistan is self-government by the tribesmen, as far as may be, by means of their Jirgas or Councils of Elders along the ancient customary lines of tribal law, the essence of which is the satisfaction of the aggrieved and the settlement of the feud, not retaliation on the aggressor or the vindictive punishment of a crime. The district levies play an unobtrusive but invaluable part in the work of the Civil administration not only in watch and ward and the investigation of crime, but also in the carrying of the mails, the serving of processes and other miscellaneous work. In addition to these district levies there are ordinarily three irregular Corps in the Province; the Zhob Militia, the Mekran Levy Corps and the Chagai Levy Corps. Fundamentally the Province is not self-supporting, the deficit being met from Imperial Funds.

Agent to the Governor-General and Chief Commissioner in Baluchistan, The Hon'ble Sir Norman Cater, K.C.I.E., I.C.S.
Revenue and Judicial Commissioner, B. J. Gould, C.M.G., C.I.E., I.C.S.
Secretary to the Agent to the Governor-General and Chief Commissioner, H. Weightman, I.C.S.
Secretary to the Agent to the Governor-General in the Public Works Department, Brigadier C. H. Haswell, C.I.E.
Assistant Secretary to the Agent to the Governor-General and Chief Commissioner, Major J. E. Lidierth, M.B.E.
Under Secretary and Personal Assistant to the Agent to the Governor-General and Chief Commissioner, Lieut. A. L. A. Dredge.
Political Agent and Deputy Commissioner, Quetta, H. J. Todd.
Assistant Political Agent and Assistant Commissioner, Quetta, Captain R. L. Bazalgette.
Political Agent in Kalat and Political Agent in charge of the Bolan Pass and of Chagai District, C. P. Skrine, I.C.S.
Assistant to the Political Agent in Kalat and of Chagai, G. F. Squire, Esqr., I.C.S.
Assistant Political Agent, Mekran, Panjgur, Captain S. M. Khurshid.
Political Agent, Sibi, K. B. Sharbat Kahn, C.I.E.
Assistant Political Agent, Sibi, Captain M. O. A. Baig.
Assistant Political Agent and Colonisation Officer, Nasirabad Sub-Division, District Sibi, G. C. S. Curtis, I.C.S.
Political Agent, Loralai, Lt.-Colonel R. G. Hinde.
Assistant Political Agent, Loralai, Lieut. R. K. M. Battye.
Political Agent, Zhob, Fort, Sandeman, Captain N. S. Alington, M.C.
Assistant Political Agent, Zhob, D. J. K. Coghill, I.C.S.
Residency Surgeon and Chief Medical Officer, Lt.-Colonel F. Stevenson, I.M.S.
Civil Surgeon, Quetta, Major R. Hay, I.M.S.
Civil Surgeon, Sibi, Major J. Rodger, M.C., I.M.S.

ANDAMAN AND NICOBAR ISLANDS.

This is a group of islands lying in the Bay of Bengal. Port Blair, the headquarters of the Administration, is 780 miles from Calcutta, 740 miles from Madras, and 360 miles from Rangoon, with which ports there is regular communication by Government chartered steamers.

The total area of the Andaman Islands is 2,508 square miles and that of the Nicobar Islands 635 square miles. Of the former 15.74 square miles are cleared and partly under cultivation, the remaining area being dense forest. The population enumerated at the Census of 1931 was 29,463 of whom 7,631 were convicts. The number of convicts on 31st March 1932 was 7,672.

PORTS :—Port Blair and Bonington in the Andamans and Car Nicobar and Camorta in the Nicobars. Timber and coconuts are exported from the Andamans, and coconuts and their products from the Nicobars.

The Islands are administered by a Chief Commissioner. A penal settlement was established at Port Blair in 1858 and is the largest and most important in India.

Chief Commissioner, J. W. Smyth, C.I.E., I.C.S.

COORG.

Coorg is a small petty Province in Southern India, west of the State of Mysore. Its area is 1,582 square miles and its population 174,976. Coorg came under the direct protection of the British Government during the war with Sultan Tippu of Seringapatam. In May 1834, owing to misgovernment, it was annexed. The Province is directly under the Government of India and administered by the Chief Commissioner of Coorg who is the Resident in Mysore with his headquarters at Bangalore. In him are combined all the functions of a local government and a High Court. The Secretariat is at Bangalore where the Assistant Resident is styled Secretary to the Chief Commissioner of Coorg. In Coorg his chief authority is the Commissioner whose headquarters are at Mercara and whose duties extend to every branch of the administration. A Legislative Council consisting of 15 elected members and five nominated members was created in 1923. The chief wealth of the country is agriculture and especially the growth of coffee. Although owing to overproduction and insect pests coffee no longer commands the profits it once enjoyed, the Indian output still holds its own against the severe competition of Brazil. The bulk of the output is exported to France.

Chief Commissioner, Coorg, The Hon. Lt.-Col. C. T. C. Plowden, C.I.E.

AJMER-MERWARA.

Ajmer-Merwara is an isolated British Province in Rajputana. The Agent to the Governor-General in Rajputana administers it as Chief Commissioner. The Province consists of two small separate districts, Ajmer and Merwara, with a total area of 2,711 square miles and a population of 501,395. At the close of the Pindariwar Daulat Rao Scindia, by a treaty, dated June 25, 1818, ceded the district to the British. Fifty-five per cent. of the population are supported by agriculture, the industrial population being principally employed in the cotton and other industries. The principal crops are maize, millet, barley, cotton, oilseeds and wheat.

Chief Commissioner, The Hon. Lt.-Col. G. D Ogilvie, C.S.I., C.I.E.

Aden.

Aden was the first new territory added to the Empire after the accession of Queen Victoria. Its acquisition was the outcome of an outrage committed by local Arabs upon the passengers and crew of a British Indian buggalow wrecked in the neighbourhood. Negotiations having failed to secure satisfactory reparation the Government of Bombay despatched a force under Major Baillie which captured Aden on January 19th, 1839.

Aden is an extinct volcano, five miles long and three broad, jutting out to sea much as Gibraltar does, having a circumference of about 15 miles and connected with the mainland by a narrow isthmus of flat ground. The highest peak on the wall of precipitous hills that surrounds the old Crater which constitutes Aden is 1,725 feet above sea level. Rugged spurs, with valleys between, radiate from the centre to the circumference of the crater. The peninsula of Little Aden, adjacent to Aden proper, was obtained by purchase in 1868 and the adjoining tract of Shaikh Othman, 39 square miles in extent, was subsequently purchased when, in 1882, it was found necessary to make provision for an overflowing population. Attached to Aden is the island of Perim, 5 square miles in extent, in the Straits of Bab-el-Mandeb at the entrance to the Red Sea. The Kuria Muria islands, which were acquired from the Sultan of Muscat in 1854, were attached to the Aden Residency until 1931, when they were transferred to the control of the British Resident in the Persian Gulf.

The whole extent of the Aden Settlement, including Aden, Little Aden, Shaikh Othman and Perim, is approximately 80 square miles. The 1931 census showed Aden, with Little Aden, Shaikh Othman, and Perim to have a population of 48,338. The population of Perim is 1,700 largely dependent on the Coal Depot maintained there by a commercial firm.

The language of the Settlement is Arabic, but several other Asiatic tongues are spoken. The population is chiefly Arab. The chief industries are salt and cigarette manufacture and dhow building. The crops of the tribal low country adjoining are jowar, sesamum, a little cotton, madder, a bastard saffron and a little indigo. In the hills, wheat madder, fruits, coffee and a considerable quantity of wax and honey are obtained. The difficult problem of water supply has recently been solved. The Asian supply of fresh water has been obtained at Sheikh Othman. Early in 1924 a boring was made with a deep bore and sweet water was found at a depth of 1,545 feet. The natural flow of water now rises from this bore at 250 gallons per hour. A second bore was sunk in 1928-29 and proved more productive than the first. Five more bores have since been sunk, but two bores only are in operation at present and are sufficient to meet the requirements of the public and shipping. Bore water has practically replaced condensed water. Supply mains for distributing water to connections to houses have been laid in and several of the private houses have connected to the mains. The question of a separate water main to Tawahi has preliminary consideration of the Committee of the Aden Settlement. systems at Tawahi and Crater have completed.

Climate.—The average temperature station is 87 degrees in the shade, the range being from 75 in January to 98 in with variations up to 102. The hills between monsoons in May and September are oppressive. But Aden is usually free infectious diseases and epidemics, and absence of vegetation, the dryness of soil and the purity of the drinking water turn efficient safeguards against many maladies common to tropical countries. The rainfall varies from ¼ inch to 8½ inches, with irregular average of 3 inches.

Aden Protectorate.—The principal of the Aden hinterland are in protection relations with the British Government, their territories and dependencies constitute the Aden Protectorate. In April 1902 Anglo-Turkish Boundary Commission a convention specifying a demarcated line between the Aden Protectorate and the Turkish Yemen, stretching from Shaikh Hussain opposite Perim, to the river Bana, some 20 north-east of Dhala', and thence north to the Great Desert (Rub' al Khali). boundary is still in effect the frontier between the Aden Protectorate and the territories the Imam Yrhya bin Muhammad Hamid Din, of Sanaa' whose rule succeeded that the Porte in the (formerly Turkish) after the Great War. The Aden Protectorate stretches eastwards to include the Hadhramaut and the territories of the Sultan of Qishn bordering upon Oman, and comprises in about 42,000 square miles.

The Sultan of Qishn is also Sultan of Socotra an island about 1,382 square miles in extent lying off Cape Guardafui on the African coast. Socotra is included in the Aden Protectorate by virtue of a treaty between the Sultan and the British Government in 1886: its population is said to be about 12,000 mainly pastoral inland and fishing on the coast. The Aden Protectorate which is under the control of the Resident and Commander-in-Chief, Aden, on behalf of the Colonial Office, is not directly administered and since the withdrawal of a small British Garrison from Dhala' in 1906 no military posts have been maintained in tribal territory.

Administration.—The administration of Aden was formerly directly under the Government of Bombay, but new arrangements came into operation in 1928. The Imperial Government is now responsible for the military and

political situation in Aden and the Aden Protectorate. The settlement of Aden itself remains under the Government of India. The financial settlement required by this division of authority provides for the payment by India to Imperial Revenues of £259,000 a year for three years and thenceforward of £150,000 a year. The larger amount is considerably less than the annual expenditure falling upon Indian revenues under the former system of control.

The administrative control of the Settlement of Aden was transferred from the Bombay Government on 1st April 1932, when Aden was formed into a separate province under the direct control of the Government of India.

The administration is vested in a Chief Commissioner who is also Resident and Commander-in-Chief. Since the introduction of the dual control referred to above, the Resident's post is to be held alternatively by an Officer of the Indian Service and a member of the Colonial Service. The District of Aden Court is the Colonial Court of Admiralty under Act XVI of 1891, and its procedure as such is regulated by the provisions of the Colonial Courts of the Admiralty Act, 1890 (53 and 54 Vic. Chapter 27). The laws in force in the Settlement are generally speaking those in force in India, supplemented on certain points by special regulations to suit local conditions. The management of the port is under the control of a Board of Trustees formed in 1888. The principal business of the Port Trust in recent years has been the deepening of the harbour so as to allow vessels of large size to enter and leave at all states of the tide. The police force, consisting of land, harbour and armed police, has been reorganised.

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The island of Kamaran in the Red Sea about 200 miles north of Perim was taken by the British from the Turks in 1915, and is administered by the Government of India through a Civil Administrator under the control of the Chief Commissioner of Aden. It has an area of 22 square miles and a population of about 2,200. A quarantine station for pilgrims travelling to Mecca from the East is maintained on the island under the joint control of the Government of India and the Government of the Dutch East Indies.

Civil Administrator, Captain G. V. Wickham.

The Home Government.

The Home Government of India represented for sixty years the gradual evolution of the governing board of the old East India Company. The affairs of the Company were originally managed by the Court of Directors and the General Court of Proprietors. In 1784 Parliament established a Board of Control, with full power and authority to control and direct all operations and affairs relating to the civil and military government, and revenues of India. By degrees the number of the Board was reduced and its powers were exercised by the President, who is the precursor of the Secretary of State for India. With modifications this system continued till 1858, when the Mutiny, followed by the assumption of the Government of India by the Crown, demanded a complete change. The Government of India Act of 1858 (merged in the consolidating measure passed in 1915) the Secretary of State is the constitutional adviser of the Crown on all matters relating to India. He controls generally all the powers and duties which were formerly vested either in the Board of Control, or in the Company, the Directors and the Secret Committee in respect of the civil government and revenues of India.

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Until the Reform Act of 1919 came into force the Secretary of State had the unqualified power to give orders to every officer in India, including the Governor-General, and to superintend, direct and control all acts, operations and concerns relating to the government or revenues of India. In the relations of the Secretary of State with the Governor-General in Council no express statutory change was made, but Parliament ordained through the Joint Select Committee that in practice the conventions governing these relations should be modified; only in exceptional circumstances should he be called upon to intervene in matters of purely Indian interest where the Government and the Legislature of India are in agreement.

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State with his Council, and he has fuller power than in the past to prescribe the manner in which business is to be transacted. Though in practice the Council meets weekly (save in vacation periods) this has ceased to be a statutory requirement, the law now providing that there shall be a meeting at least once in every month.

The India Council.

The number of members of the Council was reduced by the Act to not less than eight and not more than 12, the Secretary of State being free to appoint within those limits. The period of office was reduced from 7 to 5 years, though the Secretary of State may, for special reasons of public advantage to be communicated to Parliament, re-appoint a member for another five years. Half the Council must be persons who have served or resided in India for at least ten years, and who have not left India more than five years before their appointment. The Act restored the old salary of £1,200, with an additional subsistence allowance of £600 for any member who was at the time of appointment domiciled in India. Lord Morley opened the door of the Council to Indians, and since 1917 the number of Indian members has been three.

Associated with the Secretary of State and the India Council is a Secretariat known as the India Office, housed at Whitehall. Appointments to the establishment are made by the Secretary of State in Council, and are subject to the ordinary Home Civil Service rules in all respects.

In the past the whole cost of the India Office has been borne by the revenues of India, except that the Home Government made certain grants and remissions in lieu of a direct contribution amounting to £50,000 a year. The total cost now is about £230,000. In conformity with the spirit of the 1919 Act, an arrangement was made whereby the salary of the Secretary of State is placed on the Home estimates and most of the outlay needed for the controlling and political functions exercised in Whitehall is met from British revenues, agency functions being still chargeable to Indian revenues. The contribution from the Treasury to India Office administrative expenses is about £115,000.

The High Commissionership.

The financial readjustment was accompanied by a highly important administrative change provided for by the Act, in the creation of a High Commissioner for India in the United Kingdom with necessary establishments. From October 1st, 1920, the High Commissioner took over control of the purchase of Government stores in England and the Indian Students Branch, together with the supervision of the work of the Indian Trade Commissioner. The further development of the functions and powers of the High Commissioner have included such agency work as the payment of Civil leave allowances and pensions, the recruitment of technical officers, supervision of I. C. S. and Forest probationers after first appointment, the making of arrangements for officers on deputation or study leave repatriation of destitute lascars, sale of Government of India publications, etc. The staff of the Stores Department is located at the Depot off the Thames in Belvedere Road, Lambeth. The High Commissioner and the rest of the staff, are at India House, Aldwych, W. C. 2, built to the designs of Sir Herbert Baker at a cost for construction and equipment of £324,000. There could be no question of adopting a distinctly Oriental style for the exterior; but there are enough Indian features of ornamentation to proclaim the Eastern association of the place. Moreover the Exhibition Hall (typically Indian in design) has five windows on two sides for display specimens of the arts, craft and commerce of India.

Parliament set up in 1920 a Joint Standing Committee consisting of eleven members of each House to keep Parliament in closer touch with Indian affairs but the system has not flourished in the last few years.

INDIA OFFICE.

Secretary of State.

The Rt. Hon. Sir Samuel Hoare, Bt., G.C.B., G.C.S.I., C.M.G., M.P.

Permanent Under-Secretary of State.

Sir Findlater Stewart, K.C.B., K.C.I.E., C.S.I., LL.D.

Parliamentary Under-Secretary of State.

R. A. Butler, M. P.

Deputy Under-Secretary of State.

Sir Louis J. Kershaw, K.C.S.I., C.I.E.

Assistant Under-Secretaries of State.

L. D. Wakely, C.B.

Sir Cecil H. Kisch, K.C.I.E., C.B.

Council.

Sir Reginald A. Mant, K.C.S.I., K.C.I.E.

Sir Campbell Rhodes, C.B.E.

Sir Henry Wheeler, K.C.S.I., K.C.I.E.

Colonel Sir Umar Hayat Khan, K.C.I.E., C.B.E., M.V.O., A.D.C.

Sir Denys de S. Bray, K.C.S.I., K.C.I.E., C.B.E.

Sir Henry Strakosch, G.B.E.

Sir Reginald I. R. Glancy, K.C.I.E., C.S.I.

Sir Charles A. Tegart, C.S.I., C.I.E., M.V.O.

Sir Atul C. Chatterjee, G.C.I.E., K.C.S.I.

Clerk of the Council: L. D. Wakely, C.B.

Deputy Clerk of the Council: J. A. Simpson.

Private Secretary to the Secretary of State: W. D. Croft, C.I.E.

Assistant Private Secretary: F. F. Turnbull.

Parliamentary Private Secretary: C. M. Patrick, M.P.

Political A.-D.-C. to the Secretary of State: Lieut.-Col. W. G. Neale, C.I.E.

Asst. to ditto: O. Gruzelier, M.V.O.

Private Secretary to Permanent Under-Secretary of State: H. A. F. Rumbold.

Private Secretary to Parly. Under-Secretary: A. F. Morley.

Heads of Departments.

SECRETARIES.

Financial: R. H. A. Carter, C.B.D.T. Monteath, C.V.O., O.B.E., F. E. Grist (Actg.). G. H. Baxter, (Acting).

Public and Judicial: Sir Vernon Dawson, K.C.I.E., R. T. Peel, M.C. (Acting).

Military: Major-General Sir J. F. S. D. Coleridge, K.C.B., C.M.G., D.S.O.

Personal Assistant: Col. G. L. Pepys, C.B., P.S.O.

Joint Secretary: S. K. Brown, C.B., C.V.O.

Staff Officer attached: Col. J. C. Macrae, D.S.O.

Political: J. C. Walton, C.B., M.C., P. J. Patrick.

Economic and Overseas: E. J. Turner, C.B.E.

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Accountant-General, Sidney Turner, C.B.E., F.I.A. *also Director of Funds and Official Agent to Administrators-General in India.*

RECORD DEPARTMENT.—*Superintendent of Records*: W. T. Ottewill, M.B.E.

Auditor: W. A. Sturdy, C.B.E.

Miscellaneous Appointments.

Government Director of Indian Railway Companies: R. Mowbray.

Asst. to ditto: W. Gauld, O.B.E.

Librarian: (Vacant).

Asst. Librarian: H. N. Randle, D.PH., M.A.

Sub-Librarian: J. W. Smallwood, M.A.

President of Medical Board for the Examination of Officers of the Indian Services and Adviser to the Secretary of State on Medical matters: Maj.-Gen. Sir J. W. D. Megaw, K.C.I.E.

Members of the Medical Board: Lt.-Col. G. Mc.I. C. Smith, C.M.G., Lt.-Col. H. R. Dutton, C.I.E.

Legal Adviser and Solicitor to Secretary of State: Sir Herbert G. Pearson.

Asst. Solicitor: F. R. Marten, O.B.E.

Information Officer: H. MacGregor.

Ordnance Consulting Officer: Col. C. E. Vines, R.A.

HIGH COMMISSIONER'S OFFICE

India House, Aldwych, W. C. 2.

The High Commissioner: Sir Bhupendra Nath Mitra, K.C.S.I., K.C.I.E., C.B.E.

Personal Assistant: V. J. G. Eayres.

Private Secretary: W. M. Mather, M.B.E.

Deputy High Commissioner: A. M. Green, I.C.S., C.I.E.

Chief Accounting Officer: G. H. Stoker, C.I.E., O.B.E.

Secretary, General Department: R. E. Montgomery.

Indian Trade Commissioner: Sir H. A. F. Lindsay, K.C.I.E., C.B.E.

Deputy ditto: H. S. Malik, I.C.S.

Secretary, Education Department: T. Quayle, D. LITT. (Lond.).

Store Department Depot at Belvedere Road, Lambeth, S. E. 1.

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Director of Purchase: R. R. Howlett.

Director of Inspection: F. E. Benest, M.I.E.E.

Secretaries of State for India.

	Assumed charge.
Lord Stanley (Earl of Derby)	1858
Sir Charles Wood, Bart. (Viscount Halifax)	1859
Earl de Grey and Ripon (Marquess of Ripon)	1866
Viscount Cranborne (Marquess of Salisbury)	1866
Sir Stafford Northcote, Bart. (Earl of Iddesleigh)	1867
Duke of Argyll	1868
Marquess of Salisbury	1874
Viscount Cranbrook	1878
Marquis of Hartington (Duke of Devonshire)	1880
Earl of Kimberly	1882
Lord Randolph Churchill	1885
Earl of Kimberley	1886
Viscount Cross	1886
Earl of Kimberley	1892
H. H. Fowler (Viscount Wolverhampton)	1894
Lord George F. Hamilton	1895
St. John Brodrick (Viscount Midleton) ..	1903
John Morley (Viscount Morley)	1905
The Earl of Crewe (Marquess)	1911
Austen Chamberlain	1915
E. S. Montagu	1917
Viscount Peel	1922
Lord Olivier	1924
Lord Birkenhead	1924
Viscount Peel	1928
W. Wedgwood Benn	1929
Sir Samuel Hoare	1931

State with his Council, and he has fuller power than in the past to prescribe the manner in which business is to be transacted. Though in practice the Council meets weekly (save in vacation periods) this has ceased to be a statutory requirement, the law now providing that there shall be a meeting at least once in every month.

The India Council.

The number of members of the Council was reduced by the Act to not less than eight and not more than 12, the Secretary of State being free to appoint within those limits. The period of office was reduced from 7 to 5 years, though the Secretary of State may, for special reasons of public advantage to be communicated to Parliament, re-appoint a member for another five years. Half the Council must be persons who have served or resided in India for at least ten years, and who have not left India more than five years before their appointment. The Act restored the old salary of £1,200, with an additional subsistence allowance of £600 for any member who was at the time of appointment domiciled in India. Lord Morley opened the door of the Council to Indians, and since 1917 the number of Indian members has been three.

Associated with the Secretary of State and the India Council is a Secretariat known as the India Office, housed at Whitehall. Appointments to the establishment are made by the Secretary of State in Council, and are subject to the ordinary Home Civil Service rules in all respects.

In the past the whole cost of the India Office has been borne by the revenues of India, except that the Home Government made certain grants and remissions in lieu of a direct contribution amounting to £50,000 a year. The total cost now is about £230,000. In conformity with the spirit of the 1919 Act, an arrangement was made whereby the salary of the Secretary of State is placed on the Home estimates and most of the outlay needed for the controlling and political functions exercised in Whitehall is met from British revenues, agency functions being still chargeable to Indian revenues. The contribution from the Treasury to India Office administrative expenses is about £115,000.

The High Commissionership.

The financial readjustment was accompanied by a highly important administrative change provided for by the Act, in the creation of a High Commissioner for India in the United Kingdom with necessary establishments. From October 1st, 1920, the High Commissioner took over control of the purchase of Government stores in England and the Indian Students Branch, together with the supervision of the work of the Indian Trade Commissioner. The further development of the functions and powers of the High Commissioner have included such agency work as the payment of Civil leave allowances and pensions, the recruitment of technical officers, supervision of I. C. S. and Forest probationers after first appointment, the making of arrangements for officers on deputation or study leave repatriation of destitute lascars, sale of Government of India publications, etc. The staff of the Stores Department is located at the Depot off the Thames in Belvedere Road, Lambeth. The High Commissioner and the rest of the staff, are at India House, Aldwych, W. C. 2, built to the designs of Sir Herbert Baker at a cost for construction and equipment of £324,000. There could be no question of adopting a distinctly Oriental style for the exterior; but there are enough Indian features of ornamentation to proclaim the Eastern association of the place. Moreover the Exhibition Hall (typically Indian in design) has five windows on two sides for display specimens of the arts, craft and commerce of India.

Parliament set up in 1920 a Joint Standing Committee consisting of eleven members of each House to keep Parliament in closer touch with Indian affairs but the system has not flourished in the last few years.

INDIA OFFICE.

Secretary of State.

The Rt. Hon. Sir Samuel Hoare, Bt., G.C.B., G.C.S.I., C.M.G., M.P.

Permanent Under-Secretary of State.

Sir Findlater Stewart, K.C.B., K.C.I.E., C.S.I., LL.D.

Parliamentary Under-Secretary of State.

R. A. Butler, M. P.

Deputy Under-Secretary of State.

Sir Louis J. Kershaw, K.C.S.I., C.I.E.

Assistant Under-Secretaries of State.

L. D. Wakely, C.B.

Sir Cecil H. Kisch, K.C.I.E., C.B.

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The Indian States.

The area enclosed within the boundaries of India is 1,773,168 square miles, with a population of 315,132,537 of people—nearly one-fifth of the human race. But of this total a very large part is not under British Administration. The area covered in the Indian States is 675,267 square miles with a population of seventy millions. The Indian States embrace the widest variety of country and jurisdiction. They vary in size from petty states like Lawa, in Rajputana, with an area of 19 square miles, and the Simla Hill States, which are little more than small holdings, to States like Hyderabad, as large as Italy, with a population of thirteen millions. They include the inhospitable regions of Western Rajputana, Baroda, part of the Garden of India, Mysore, rich in agricultural wealth, and Kashmir, one of the most favoured spots on the face of the globe.

Relations with the Paramount Power.

So diverse are the conditions under which the Indian States were established and came into political relation with the Government of India, that it is impossible even to summarise them. But broadly it may be said that as the British boundaries expanded, the states came under the influence of the Government and the rulers were confirmed in their possessions. To this general policy however there was, for a brief period, an important departure. During the regime of Lord Dalhousie the Government introduced what was called annexation through lapse. That is to say, when there was no direct heir, the Government considered whether public interests would be secured by granting the right of adoption. Through the application of this policy, the states of Satara and of Nagpur fell in to the East India Company, and the kingdom of Oudh was annexed because of the gross misgovernment of its rulers. Then came the Mutiny. It was followed by the transference of the dominions of the East India Company to the Crown, and an irrevocable declaration of policy toward the Indian States. In the historic Proclamation of Queen Victoria it was set out that "We desire no extension of our present territorial possessions; and while we will permit no aggression on our dominions or our rights to be attempted with impunity, we shall allow no encroachments on those of others. We shall respect the rights, dignity and honour of the Native Princes as our own; and we desire that they, as well as our own subjects, should enjoy that prosperity and that social advancement which can only be secured by internal peace and good government." Since the issue of that proclamation there has been no encroachment on the area under Indian rule by the Government of India. On the contrary, the movement has been in the opposite direction. In 1881 the State of Mysore, which had been so long under British administration that the traditions of Native rule were almost forgotten, was restored to the old Hindu ruling house. In 1911 the Maharajah of Benares, the great taluqdar of Oudh, was granted ruling powers over his extensive possessions. On many occasions the Government of India has had to intervene, to prevent gross misgovernment, or to carry on the administration during a long minority; but always with the undeviating intention of restoring the territories as soon as the necessity for intervention passed. Almost all states possess the right of adoption in default of heirs.

Rights of Indian States.

The rights and obligations of the Indian States are thus described by the Imperial Gazetteer. The Chiefs have, without exception, gained protection against dangers from without and a guarantee that the protector will respect their rights as rulers. The Paramount Power acts for them in relation to foreign Powers and other Indian States. The inhabitants of the Indian States are the subjects of their rulers, and except in case of personal jurisdiction over British subjects, these rulers and their subjects are free from the control of the laws of British India. Criminals escaping to an Indian State must be handed over to it by its authorities; they cannot be arrested by the police of British India without the permission of the ruler of the State. The Indian Princes have therefore a suzerain power which acts for them in all external affairs, and at the same time scrupulously respects their internal authority. The suzerain also intervenes when the internal peace of their territories is seriously threatened. Finally they participate in all the benefits which the protecting power obtains by its diplomatic action, or by its administration of its own dominions, and thus secure a share in the commerce, the railways, the ports, and the markets of British India. Except in rare cases, applied to maritime states, they have freedom of trade with British India although they levy their own customs, and their subjects are admitted to most of the public offices of the British Government.

Obligations of Indian States.

On the other hand, the Indian States are under an obligation not to enter into relations with foreign nations or other states; the authority of their rulers has no existence outside their territories. Their subjects outside their dominions become for all intents and purposes British subjects. Where foreign interests are concerned, the Paramount Power must act so that no just cause of offence is given by its subordinate allies. All Indian States alike are under an obligation to refer to the British every question of dispute with other states. Inasmuch as the Indian States have no use for a military establishment other than for police, or display, or for co-operation with the Imperial Government, their military forces, their equipment and armament are

prescribed by the Paramount Power. Although old and unaltered treaties declare that the British Government will have no manner of concern with any of a Maharajah's dependents or servants, with respect to whom the Maharajah is absolute, logic and public opinion have endorsed the principle which Lord Canning set forth in his minute of 1860, that the "Government of India is not precluded from stepping in to set right such serious abuses in a Native Government as may threaten any part of the country with anarchy or disturbance, nor from assuming temporary charge of a Native State when there shall be sufficient reason to do so." Of this necessity the Governor-General in Council is the sole judge subject to the control of Parliament. Where the law of British India confers jurisdiction over British subjects or other specified persons in foreign territory, that power is exercised by the British courts which possess it. The subjects of European Powers and the United States are on the same footing. Where cantonments exist in an Indian State, jurisdiction both over the cantonment and the civil station is exercised by the suzerain power.

Political Officers.

The powers of the British Government are exercised through Political Officers who, as a rule, reside in the states themselves. In the larger states the Government is represented by a Resident, in groups of states by an Agent to the Governor-General, assisted by local Residents or Political Agents. These Officers form the sole channel of communication between the Indian States and the Government of India and its Foreign Department, with the officials of British India and with other Indian States. They are expected to advise and assist the Ruling Chiefs in any administrative or other matters on which they may be consulted. Political Agents are similarly employed in the larger States under the Provincial Governments but in the petty states scattered over British India the duties of the Agent are usually entrusted to the Collector or Commissioner in whose district they lie. All questions relating to the Indian States are under the special supervision of the Supreme Government, and in the personal charge of the Governor-General.

Closer Partnership.

Events have tended gradually to draw the Paramount Power and the Indian States into closer harmony. Special care has been devoted to the education of the sons of Ruling Chiefs, first by the employment of tutors, and afterwards by the establishment of special colleges for the purpose. These are now established at Ajmere, Rajkot, Indore and Lahore. The Imperial Cadet Corps, whose headquarters are at Dehra Dun, imparts military training to the scions of the ruling chiefs and noble families. The spread of higher education has placed at the disposal of the Indian States the products of the Universities. In these ways there has been a steady rise in the character of the administration of the Indian States, approximating more closely to the British ideal. Most of the Indian States have also come forward to bear their share in the burden of Imperial defence. Following on the spontaneous offer of military assistance when war with Russia appeared to be inevitable over the Penjdeh incident in 1885, the states have raised a portion of their forces up to the standard of the troops in the Indian Army. These were until recently termed Imperial Service Troops; but are now designated Indian State Forces; they belong to the States, they are officered by Indians; but they are inspected by a regular cadre of British officers under the general direction of an Inspector-General. Their numbers are approximately 22,000 men; their armament is the same as that of the Indian Army and they have done good service often under their own Chiefs, on the Frontier and in China, in Somaliland and in the Great War. Secure in the knowledge that the Paramount Power will respect their rights and privileges, the Ruling Chiefs have lost the suspicion which was common when their position was less assured, and the visits of the Prince of Wales in 1875, of the Prince and Princess of Wales in 1905-06, and of the King and Queen in 1911-12 have tended to seal the devotion of the great feudatories to the Crown. The improvement in the standard of native rule has also permitted the Government of India largely to reduce the degree of interference in the internal affairs of the Indian States. The new policy was authoritatively laid down by Lord Minto, the then Viceroy, in a speech at Udaipur in 1909 when he said:—

"Our policy is, with rare exceptions, one of non-interference in the internal affairs of the Native States. But in guaranteeing their internal independence and in undertaking their protection against external aggression it naturally follows that the Imperial Government has assumed a certain degree of responsibility for the general soundness of their administration and could not consent to incur the reproach of being an indirect instrument of misrule. There are also certain matters in which it is necessary for the Government of India to safeguard the interests of the community as a whole as well as those of the paramount power, such as railways, telegraphs and other services of an Imperial character. But the relationship of the Supreme Government to the State is one of suzerainty. The foundation stone of the whole system is the recognition of identity of interests between the Imperial Government and Durbars and the minimum of interference with the latter in their own affairs.

Education.—The Osmania University at Hyderabad which marks a new departure in Indian education, imparts instruction in all the faculties through the medium of Urdu, English being taught as a compulsory language. It has three First Grade Colleges, four Intermediate Colleges, a Medical College, an Engineering College and a Training College for teachers. The Nizam's College at Hyderabad (first grade), is however, affiliated to the Madras University. In 1931-32 the total number of educational Institutions were 4,510, the number of Primary schools in particular having been largely increased.

Executive Council.—Raja Rajayan Rajah Sir Kishen Pershad Maharaja Bahadur, Yaminus Saltanath, G.C.I.E., President; Nawab Walind Dowlah Bahadur, Education, Medical and Military Departments; Members: Nawab Sir Akbar Hydari, Finance and Railway Member; Lt.-Col. Sir R. H. Chenevix Trench, C.I.E., O.B.E., Revenue and Police Member; Nawab Lutfud Dowlah Bahadur, Judicial Member; Nawab Aqueel, Jung Bahadur, Public Works Member; Nawab Mahdi Yar Jung Bahadur, Political Member.

British Resident.—The Hon'ble Mr. D. G. Mackenzie, C.I.E.

MYSORE.

The State of Mysore is surrounded on all sides by the Madras Presidency except on the north and the north-west where it is bounded by the districts of Dharwar and North Canara respectively and towards the south-west by Coorg. It has two natural divisions each with a distinct character of its own—the hill country (or malnad) on the west and the wide spreading valleys and plains (the maidan) on the east. The State has an area of 29,483 square miles including that of the Civil and Military Station of Bangalore and a population of 6,557,302 of whom over 92 per cent. are Hindus. Kannada is the language of the State.

History.—The ancient history of the country is varied and interesting. Tradition connects the table land of Mysore with many a legend enshrined in the great Indian epics, the Ramayana and the Mahabharata. Coming down to historical times, the north-eastern portion of the country formed part of Asoka's Empire in the third century B.C. Mysore then came under the rule of the Andhra dynasty. From about the third to the eleventh century A.D. Mysore was ruled by three dynasties, the north-western portion by the Pallavas and the central and the southern portions by the Gangas. In the eleventh century, Mysore formed part of Chola dominion, but the Cholas were driven out early in the twelfth century by the Hoysalas, an indigenous dynasty with its capital at Halebid. The Hoysala power came to an end in the early part of the fourteenth century. Mysore was next connected with the Vijayanagar empire. At the end of the fourteenth century Mysore became associated with the present ruling dynasty. At first tributary to the dominant empire of Vijayanagar, the dynasty attained its independence after the downfall of Vijayanagar in 1565. In the latter part of the eighteenth century the real sovereignty passed into the hands of Hyder Ali and then his son, Tippu Sultan. In 1799, on the fall of Seringapatam, the British Government restored the State comprised within its present limits, to the ancient dynasty in the person of Maharaja Sri Krishnaraja Wadayar Bahadur III. Owing to the insurrections that broke out in some parts of the country the management was assumed by the British Government in 1831. In 1881 the State was restored to the dynasty in the person of Sri Chamarajendra Wadayar Bahadur under conditions and stipulations laid down in an Instrument of Transfer. That ruler with the assistance of Mr. (afterwards Sir) K. Seshadri Iyer, K.C.S.I., as Dewan, brought Mysore to a State of great prosperity. He died in 1894, and was succeeded by the present ruler. His Highness Sri Krishnarajendra Wadiyar Bahadur, G.C.S.I., G.B.E., who was installed in 1902. In November 1913 the Instrument of Transfer was replaced by a Treaty which indicates more appropriately the relation subsisting between the British Government and the State of Mysore. In 1927, the Government of India remitted in perpetuity Rs. 10½ lakhs of the annual subsidy which till then had stood at Rs. 35 lakhs.

Administration.—The City of Mysore is the Capital of the State, but Bangalore is the Administrative headquarters. His Highness the Maharaja is the ultimate authority in the State, and the administration is conducted under his control, by the Dewan and two Members of Council. The High Court consisting of three Judges is the highest Judicial tribunal in the State. There are two constitutional Houses in the State—the Representative Assembly and the Legislative Council. The Representative Assembly was established in 1881 by an executive order of Government, and its powers and functions have been increased from time to time by similar orders of Government. Under the scheme of constitutional developments announced in October 1923 the Representative Assembly has been placed on a statutory basis and given a definite place in the constitution by the promulgation of the Representative Assembly Regulation XVIII of 1923. The franchise has been extended and the disqualification of women on the ground of sex, from exercising the right to vote and standing as candidates for election has been removed. The privilege for moving resolutions on the general principles and policy underlying the budget and on matters of public administration has been granted in addition to those already enjoyed of making representations about wants and grievances and of interpellating Government. The Assembly is also to be consulted on all proposals for the levy of new taxes and on the general principles of all measures of legislation before their introduction into the Legislative Council. Besides the Budget Session (formerly Birthday Session) and the Dasara Session, provision has been made for a special session of the Assembly to be summoned only for Government business.

The strength of the Legislative Council has been raised from 30 to 50, of whom 20 are official and 30 are non-official members. The Council which exercised the privileges of interpellation, discussion of the State Budget and the moving of the resolutions on all matters of public ad-

HYDERABAD.

The Nizam exercises full sovereignty within his dominions, grants titles and has the power of life and death over his subjects. Before 1919, the Government consisted of a Prime Minister responsible to the Nizam, with Assistant Minister, but an Executive Council was established which now consists of seven members. A Legislative Council consisting of 20 members of whom 12 are official, 6 non-official, and 2 extraordinary, is responsible for making laws. The administration is carried on by a regular system of departments on lines similar to those followed in British India. The State is divided into two divisions—Telingana and Mahratwara—15 districts and 103 Talukas. Local Boards are constituted in each District and Taluka. The State maintains its own currency which consists of gold and silver coins and a large note issue. The rupee, known as the Osmania Sicca, exchanges with the British Indian rupee at an average ratio of 116-10-8 to 100. There is a State postal service and stamps for internal purposes. The Nizam maintains his own army consisting of 19,759 troops of gall ranks of which 7,200 are classed as regular troops and 12,559 as irregular. In addition to these, there are two battalions of Imperial Service Troops, 1,052 strong.

Finance.—Hyderabad State is by far the wealthiest of the Indian States, having a revenue in its own currency of about 8½ crores, which is approximately the same as that of the Central Provinces and Bihar and Orissa and double that of any other State. After many vicissitudes, its finances are at present in a prosperous condition and it enjoys a large annual surplus of revenue from which a reserve of eight crores has been built up. This is being used partly as a sinking fund for the redemption debt and partly for the development of the resources of the State. The Budget estimates for the present year show a revenue of 802.24 lakhs under service heads and an expenditure of 785.60 lakhs, inclusive of large sums set aside for development, famine insurance and reserve for re-organisation. The capital expenditure programme provides for an expenditure of 60.81 lakhs which includes 21.54 lakhs for completion of large irrigation projects and 26.67 lakhs for open line works and road motor transport. The year opened with a cash balance of 221.14 lakhs which is expected to be about 112.83 lakhs by the end of the year. The Government loans stand at 115 for long term issues.

Production and Industry.—The principal industry of the State is agriculture, which maintains 57 per cent. of the population. The common system of land tenure is ryotwari. About 55 per cent. of the total area is directly administered by the State. The rest consists of private estates of His Exalted Highness the Nizam, which comprise about one-tenth of the total area of the State, and the estates of the Jagirdars and Paigah nobles. The total land revenue is over 3 crores. The principal food crops are millet and rice; the staple money crops cotton, which is grown extensively on the black cotton soils, and oilseeds. Hyderabad is well known for its Gaorani cotton which is the longest staple indigenous cotton in India. The total area under cotton exceeds 3½ million acres. Hyderabad possesses the most southerly of the Indian coal mines and the whole of southern India is dependent on it for such coal as is transported by rail. The chief mine is situated at Singareni, which is not far from Bezwada junction on the Calcutta-Madras line. The chief manufacturing industry is based on the cotton produced in the State. There are four large mills in existence and others are likely to be established, while about one-third of the cloth worn in the Dominions is produced on local hand-looms. There are about 340 ginning pressing and decorticating factories in the cotton tracts and also a number of tanneries and flour mills, the total number of factories (as defined in the Hyderabad Factory Act) of all kinds in the State being 402. The Shahabad Cement Co. which has been established at Shahabad on the Great Indian Peninsula Railway line, not far from Wadi, supplies the whole of southern India with cement and has at present an annua loutput of 134,108 tons.

Taxation.—Apart from the land revenue which, as stated above, brings in about 3.05 crores, the main sources of taxation are excise and customs. The receipts from each are estimated for the present year at 167 lakhs and 106 lakhs respectively. After these come interest on investments (52 lakhs), railways (62 lakhs) and Berar rent (29 lakhs). The customs revenue is derived from an *ad valorem* duty of 5 per cent. on all imports and exports.

Communications.—One hundred and thirty-seven miles of broad gauge line from Bombay to Madras traverse the State; also 33 miles of metre gauge line from Masulipatam to Marmagoa. At Wadi, on this section, the broad gauge system of the Nizam's State Railway takes off and running east through Hyderabad City and Warangal reaches the Calcutta-Madras line at Bezwada, a total length of 352 miles. From Kazipet, near Warangal on this line, a new link to Bellarshah strikes north thus providing the shortest route between Madras and Delhi. From Secunderabad the metre gauge Godaveri Valley railway runs north-west for 386 miles to Manmad on the main line of the Great Indian Peninsula Railway to Calcutta. A metre gauge line also runs south from Secunderabad through Mahbubnagar to the border and is now linked up with Kurnool on the Madras and Southern Mahratta Railway. Branch lines exist from Purna to Hingoli, Parbhani to Purli-Vaijnath Karipalli to Kothagudium and Vikharabad to Bidar, which last was extended to Purli-Vaijnath. Thus, with branch lines, there are now 805 miles of broad gauge and 656 of the metre gauge in the State. The Barsi Light Railway owns a short extension from Kurdwadi on the Bombay-Madras line to Latur in Osmanabad District. The Nizam's Guaranteed State Railway was worked by a company until April, 1930, when it was purchased by the Nizam's Government. The road system is being rapidly extended in accordance with a well-considered programme.

Education.—The Osmania University at Hyderabad which marks a new departure in Indian education, imparts instruction in all the faculties through the medium of Urdu, English being taught as a compulsory language. It has three First Grade Colleges, four Intermediate Colleges, a Medical College, an Engineering College and a Training College for teachers. The Nizam's College at Hyderabad (first grade), is however, affiliated to the Madras University. In 1931-32 the total number of educational Institutions were 4,510, the number of Primary schools in particular having been largely increased.

Executive Council.—Raja Rajayan Rajah Sir Kishen Pershad Maharaja Bahadur, Yaminus Saltanath, G.C.I.E., President; Nawab Walind Dowlah Bahadur, Education, Medical and Military Departments; Members: Nawab Sir Akbar Hydari, Finance and Railway Member; Lt.-Col. Sir R. H. Chenevix Trench, C.I.E., O.B.E., Revenue and Police Member; Nawab Lutfud Dowlah Bahadur, Judicial Member; Nawab Aqueel, Jung Bahadur, Public Works Member; Nawab Mahdi Yar Jung Bahadur, Political Member.

British Resident.—The Hon'ble Mr. D. G. Mackenzie, C.I.E.

MYSORE.

The State of Mysore is surrounded on all sides by the Madras Presidency except on the north and the north-west where it is bounded by the districts of Dharwar and North Canara respectively and towards the south-west by Coorg. It has two natural divisions each with a distinct character of its own—the hill country (or malnad) on the west and the wide spreading valleys and plains (the maidan) on the east. The State has an area of 29,483 square miles including that of the Civil and Military Station of Bangalore and a population of 6,557,302 of whom over 92 per cent. are Hindus. Kannada is the language of the State.

History.—The ancient history of the country is varied and interesting. Tradition connects the table land of Mysore with many a legend enshrined in the great Indian epics, the Ramayana and the Mahabharata. Coming down to historical times, the north-eastern portion of the country formed part of Asoka's Empire in the third century B.C. Mysore then came under the rule of the Andhra dynasty. From about the third to the eleventh century A.D. Mysore was ruled by three dynasties, the north-western portion by the Pallavas and the central and the southern portions by the Gangas. In the eleventh century, Mysore formed part of Chola dominion, but the Cholas were driven out early in the twelfth century by the Hoysalas, an indigenous dynasty with its capital at Halebid. The Hoysala power came to an end in the early part of the fourteenth century. Mysore was next connected with the Vijayanagar empire. At the end of the fourteenth century Mysore became associated with the present ruling dynasty. At first tributary to the dominant empire of Vijayanagar, the dynasty attained its independence after the downfall of Vijayanagar in 1565. In the latter part of the eighteenth century the real sovereignty passed into the hands of Hyder Ali and then his son, Tippu Sultan. In 1799, on the fall of Seringapatam, the British Government restored the State comprised within its present limits, to the ancient dynasty in the person of Maharaja Sri Krishnaraja Wadayar Bahadur III. Owing to the insurrections that broke out in some parts of the country the management was assumed by the British Government in 1831. In 1881 the State was restored to the dynasty in the person of Sri Chamarajendra Wadayar Bahadur under conditions and stipulations laid down in an Instrument of Transfer. That ruler with the assistance of Mr. (afterwards Sir) K. Seshadri Iyer, K.C.S.I., as Dewan, brought Mysore to a State of great prosperity. He died in 1894, and was succeeded by the present ruler. His Highness Sri Krishnarajendra Wadiyar Bahadur, G.C.S.I., G.B.E., who was installed in 1902. In November 1913 the Instrument of Transfer was replaced by a Treaty which indicates more appropriately the relation subsisting between the British Government and the State of Mysore. In 1927, the Government of India remitted in perpetuity Rs. 10½ lakhs of the annual subsidy which till then had stood at Rs. 35 lakhs.

Administration.—The City of Mysore is the Capital of the State, but Bangalore is the Administrative headquarters. His Highness the Maharaja is the ultimate authority in the State, and the administration is conducted under his control, by the Dewan and two Members of Council. The High Court consisting of three Judges is the highest Judicial tribunal in the State. There are two constitutional Houses in the State—the Representative Assembly and the Legislative Council. The Representative Assembly was established in 1881 by an executive order of Government, and its powers and functions have been increased from time to time by similar orders of Government. Under the scheme of constitutional developments announced in October 1923 the Representative Assembly has been placed on a statutory basis and given a definite place in the constitution by the promulgation of the Representative Assembly Regulation XVIII of 1923. The franchise has been extended and the disqualification of women on the ground of sex, from exercising the right to vote and standing as candidates for election has been removed. The privilege for moving resolutions on the general principles and policy underlying the budget and on matters of public administration has been granted in addition to those already enjoyed of making representations about wants and grievances and of interpellating Government. The Assembly is also to be consulted on all proposals for the levy of new taxes and on the general principles of all measures of legislation before their introduction into the Legislative Council. Besides the Budget Session (formerly Birthday Session) and the Dasara Session, provision has been made for a special session of the Assembly to be summoned only for Government business.

The strength of the Legislative Council has been raised from 30 to 50, of whom 20 are official and 30 are non-official members. The Council which exercised the privileges of interpellation, discussion of the State Budget and the moving of the resolutions on all matters of public ad-

ministration is, under the reformed constitution, granted the power of voting on the demands for grants. The Dewan is the Ex-officio President of both the Representative Assembly and the Legislative Council.

The Legislative Council has a Public Accounts Committee which examines the audit and appropriation reports and brings to the notice of Council all deviations from the wishes of the Council as expressed in its Budget grant.

Standing Committees.—With a view to enlarge the opportunities of non-official representatives of the people to influence the everyday administration of the State three Standing Committees consisting of Members of the Representative Assembly and the Legislative Council, have been formed, one in connection with Railway, Electrical and P. W. Departments, the second in connection with Local Self-Government and the Departments of Medicine, Sanitation and Public Health and the third in connection with Finance and Taxation.

All the important branches of the administration are controlled by separate Heads of Departments. The combatant strength of the Military Force at the end of 1930-31 was 2,149 of which 501 were in the Mysore Lancers, 132 in the Mysore Horse, and the remaining 1,516 in the Infantry. Animal Transport Corps, was replaced by the Mechanical Transport which consists of 2 lorries (six wheeler lorries) and 4 commercial lorries with the necessary staff. The total annual cost is about 17 lakhs of rupees. The cost of the Police Administration during 1930-31 was about 19 lakhs.

Agriculture.—Nearly three-fourths of the population are employed in agriculture, and the general system of land tenure is ryotwari. The principal food crops are ragi, rice, jola, millets, gram and sugar cane, and the chief fibres are cotton and sun-hemp. Nearly fifty thousand acres are under mulberry, the silk industry being the most profitable in Mysore next to Gold Mining. The Department of Agriculture is popularising agriculture on scientific lines by means of demonstrations, investigations and experiment. There are seven Government Agricultural Farms at Hebbal, Babbur, Marthur Nagenahally, Hunsur Mandza and the coffee experimental Station at Balehonnur. A live-stock section has been organised which has been taking necessary steps for the improvement of live-stock. A cattle breeding station has been established at Parvatharayanakare, near Ajjampur in the Kadur District, with a sub-station at Basur. A Serum Institute has been opened at Bangalore for the manufacture of serum and virus for inoculation against rinderpest and other contagious diseases there are 63 Veterinary Dispensaries and Hospitals in the State under the control of the Civil Veterinary Department.

Industries and Commerce.—A Department of Industries and Commerce was organised in 1913 with a view to the development of Industries and Commerce in the State. Its main functions are stimulating private enterprise by the offer of technical advice and other assistance for starting new industries, undertaking experimental work for pioneering industries and developing existing industries and serving as a general bureau of information in industrial and commercial matters. The department has under its control the following demonstration factories—The Government Soap Factory, Government Porcelain Factory and the Central Industrial Workshop. The Department has a well-equipped staff to undertake the drilling of boreholes for meeting the requirements of drinking water in the rural areas. Mysore is the largest producer of Silk in India, and the care and development of this industry is entrusted to a Department of Sericulture in charge of a Superintendent subject to the general control of the Director of Industries and Commerce. Arrangements have been made for the supply of disease-free seed and a central and five taluk popular schools have been doing good work. With a view to demonstrate and impart instructions in the utilisation of the high grade silk produced in the State, Government have recently established a silk Weaving Factory and Dyeing and Finishing Works at Mysore. The sandalwood oil factory started on an experimental basis is now working on a commercial scale. A factory is working at Mysore. A large plant at a cost of more than 170 lakhs of rupees has been constructed at Bhadravathi for purposes of manufacturing charcoal, pig-iron, distilling wood-alcohol, and developing subsidiary industries. A new pipe foundry was opened there for the manufacture of pipes which are in great demand in several towns in India. The works are on the borders of an extensive forest area and practically at the foot of the hills containing rich deposits of iron, manganese and bauxite, and are not far from the Gersoppa Water Falls estimated to be capable of producing 100,000 horse-power of electric energy. A Trade Commissioner in London has been appointed to look after the interest of the trade and Industry of the State.

Finances.—The actual total receipts and disbursements charged to Revenue for the past five years together with the revised budget estimate for 1930-31 and budget for 1931-32 were as below :—

Year.	Receipts.	Disbursements.	Surplus.	Deficits.
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1925-26	3,46,36,960	3,46,02,636	34,324	....
1926-27	3,38,69,349	3,47,39,906	....	8,70,557
1928-29	3,60,80,973	3,60,40,350	....	40,623
1929-30	3,74,57,981	3,74,02,395	55,586	....
1930-31	3,75,40,314	3,75,34,720	5,594	....
1931-32	3,32,35,293	3,94,29,342	....	61,94,049
1932-33 (Revised) ..	3,37,47,182	3,56,03,763	....	18,56,581
1933-34 (Budget) ..	3,33,16,000	3,54,19,000	....	21,03,000
	3,43,63,000	3,62,33,300	....	18,70,000

Hydro-Electric and Irrigation Works.—The river Cauvery in its course through the State, possesses a natural fall of about 380 feet near the island of Sivasamudram, and this fall was harnessed in the year 1902 for the development of electric power, to the extent of about 12,000 H. P. for supplying power mainly to the Kolar Gold Mining Companies and incidentally for lighting the cities of Mysore and Bangalore. In course of time, the demand for power increased and with a view to protecting the existing supply and augmenting the generation of additional power to meet the growing demands, the "Krishnarajasagara Reservoir" called after the name of the present Maharaja was constructed. The storage from the reservoir besides enabling the generation of electric power up to 46,000 H. P. will also bring under irrigation about 1,20,000 acres of land situated in an area subject to more or less continuous drought. The new Canal Works were started in 1927, and the main canal is named the "Irwin Canal" after Lord Irwin the then Viceroy. Full advantage is being taken of the available electric power for small industries and the electrification of towns and lift irrigation.

Education.—A separate University for Mysore was established on the 1st July 1916. It is of the teaching and residential type composed of the Central and Engineering Colleges at Bangalore and the Medical Maharaja's and Maharani's Colleges at Mysore, and five Intermediate Colleges with headquarters at Mysore. The colleges are efficiently equipped and organised and there is a training college for men located at Mysore. The Maharani's College at Mysore is a College for Women.

There are 36 High Schools of which 6 are for girls, 326 Middle Schools of which 34 are for girls. Provision has been made for teaching several vocational subjects in general schools with a view to giving a bias towards the vocations and in order to enable the pupils to take to such vocations after their High School life. There are 13 Training Institutions for training teachers in Middle and Primary Schools; 3 of them are for women. The control over Primary Education has been made over to the Local Bodies under the Elementary Educational Regulation of 1930, and the Local Bodies are responsible for making due provision for extension of Primary Education in accordance with a definite programme spread over 20 years. There are also schools for imparting instruction in Agricultural, Commercial, Engineering and other Technical subjects. There were altogether 7,736 schools on 31st March 1933 with a strength of 3,11,371 pupils. This gives one school to every 3.81 square miles of the area, and to every 848·02 persons of the population. The total expenditure on Education was Rs. 67,17,951 yielding an average of Rs. 1-0-5 per head of population.

Resident in Mysore and Chief Commissioner of Coorg.—The Hon. Lieut.-Col. C. T. C. Plowden, C.I.E.

Dewan.—Amin-ul-Mulk Sir Mirza M. Ismail, C.I.E., O.B.E.

Members of the Executive Council.—Rajamantrapravina Diwan Bahadur K. Matthan, B.A., First Member of Council, Mr. S. P. Rajagopalachari, B.A., B.L., Second Member of Council.

BARODA.

The State of Baroda is situated partly in Gujerat and partly in Kathiawar. It is divided into four district blocks: (1) the southern district of Navsari near the mouth of the Tapti river, and mostly surrounded by British territory; (2) central district north of the Narbada, in which lies Baroda, the capital city; (3) to the north of Ahmedabad, the district of Mehsana; and (4) to the west, in the peninsula of Kathiawar the district of Amreli, formed of scattered tracts of land. The area of the State is 8,164 square miles; the population is 2,443,007 of whom over four-fifths are Hindus.

History.—The history of the Baroda State as such dates from the break-up of the Mughal Empire. The first Maratha invasion of Gujerat took place in 1705. In later expeditions Pilaji Gaekwar, who may be considered as the founder of the ruling family, greatly distinguished himself. Songhad was the headquarters till 1766. After 1723 Pilaji regularly levied tribute in Gujerat. His son Damaji finally captured Baroda in 1734, since then it has always been in the hands of the Gaikwars; but Mughal authority in Gujerat did not end until the fall of Ahmedabad in 1753, after which the country was divided between the Gaekwar and the Peshwa. In spite of the fact that Damaji was one of the Maratha chiefs defeated at Panipat by Ahmed Shah, he continued to add to his territory. He died in 1768, leaving the succession in dispute between two rival sons. He was succeeded in turn by his sons Sayaji Rao I, Fattesing Rao, Mannaji Rao and Govind Rao. The last died in 1800 and was succeeded by Anand Rao. A period of political instability ensued which was ended in 1802 by the help of the Bombay Government, who established the authority of Anand Rao at Baroda. By a treaty of 1805 between the British Government and Baroda, it was arranged *inter alia* that the foreign policy of the State should be conducted by the British, and that all differences with the Peshwa should be similarly arranged. Baroda was a staunch ally of the British during the wars with Baji Rao Peshwa, the Pindari hordes and Holkar. But from 1820 to 1841, when Sayaji Rao II was Gaikwar, differences arose between the two Governments which were settled by Sir James Carnac, Governor of Bombay, in 1841. Ganpat Rao succeeded Sayaji Rao II in 1847. During his rule the political supervision of Baroda was transferred to the Supreme Government. His successor, Khande Rao, who ascended the gadi in 1856, introduced many reforms. He stood by the British in the Mutiny. He was succeeded by his brother Malhar Rao in 1870. Malhar Rao was deposed in 1875 for "notorious misconduct" and "gross misgovernment," but the suggestion that he had instigated the attempt to poison Col. Phayre, the Resident, was not proved. Sayaji Rao III, a boy of 13 years of age, who was descended from a distant branch of the family was adopted as heir of Khande Rao in 1875 and is the present Gaekwar. He was invested with full powers in 1881.

Administration.—An executive council consisting of the principal officers of the State carries on the administration, subject to the control of the Maharaja, who is assisted by a Dewan and other officers. A number of departments have been formed, which are presided over by officials corresponding to those in British India. The State is divided into five *Prants* each of which is sub-divided into *Mahals* and *Peta Mahals* of which there are in all 42. Attempts have for some years been made to restore village autonomy, and village panchayats have been formed which form part of a scheme for local self-government. There is a Legislative Department, under a Legal Remembrancer, which is responsible for making laws. There is also a Legislative Council, consisting of nominated and elected members. A High Court at Baroda possesses jurisdiction over the whole of the State and hears all final appeals. From the decisions of the High Court appeals lie in certain cases, to the Maharaja who decides them on the advice of the Huzur Nyaya Sabha. The State Army consists of 5,086 Regular forces and 3,806 Irregular forces.

Finance.—In 1931-32, the total receipts of the State were Rs. 2,49,43,000 and the disbursements Rs. 2,61,89,000. The principal Revenue heads were :—Land Revenue, Rs. 1,20,95,000; Abkari, Rs. 25,64,000; Opium Rs. 4,20,000; Railway, Rs. 13,54,000; Interest Rs. 16,67,000; Tribute from other States, Rs. 6,56,000. British Currency was introduced in 1901.

Production and Industry.—Agriculture and pasture support 63 per cent. of the people. The principal crops are rice, wheat, gram, castor-oil, rapeseed, poppy, cotton, san-hemp, tobacco, sugarcane, maize and garden crops. The greater part of the State is held on *ryotwari* tenure. The State contains few minerals, except sandstone, which is quarried at Songar, and a variety of other stones which are little worked. There are 80 industrial or commercial concerns in the State registered under the State Companies' Act. There are four Agricultural Banks and 1,063 Co-operative Societies in the Baroda State.

Communications.—The B. B. & C. I. Railway crosses part of the Navsari and Baroda *prants* and the Rajputana Malwa Railway passes through the Kadi *prant*. A system of branch lines has been built by the Baroda Durbar in all the four *prants* in addition to which the Tapti Valley Railway and the Baroda-Godhra Chord line (B. B. & C. I.) pass through the State. The Railways owned by the State are about 707.59 miles in length. The total mileage of metalled and fair weather roads in the State is 405 and 932 respectively.

Education.—The Education Department controls 2,643 institutions of different kinds in 105 of which English is taught. The Baroda College is affiliated to the Bombay University. There are a number of high schools, technical schools, and schools for special classes, such as the jungle tribes and unclean castes. The State is "in a way pledged to the policy of free and compulsory primary education." It maintains a system of rural and travelling libraries. Eighteen per cent. of the population is returned in the census as literate. Total expense on Education is Rs. 35.18 (lakhs).

Capital City.—Baroda City with the cantonment has a population of 112,862. It contains a public park, a number of fine public buildings, palaces and offices; and it is crowded with Hindu temples. The Cantonment is to the north-west of the city and is garrisoned by an infantry battalion of the Indian Army.

Ruler.—His Highness Farzandi-i-Khas-i-Dowlat-i-Englishia, Maharaja Sir Sayaji Rao III Gaekwar Sena Khas Khel, Samsher Bahadur, G.C.S.I., G.C.I.E., LL.D., Maharaja of Baroda.
Resident.—Lieut.-Col. J. L. R. Weir, C.I.E.
Dewan.—Sir V. T. Krishnamachari, KT., C.I.E.

BALUCHISTAN AGENCY.

In this Agency lies the State of Kalat with its feudatory State of Las Bela.

Kalat is bounded on the North by the Chagai district, on the East by Sindh and the Marri-Bugti tribal territories, on the South by the Arabian Sea and on the West by Persia.

The State includes the tribal territories of the Chiefs of the Brahui Confederacy of which the Khan of Kalat is head. The divisions of the State are, Sarawan or the Highlands, Jhalawan or the Lowlands, Kachhi, Makran, the Khanate of Kharan and the feudatory State of Las Bela. The inhabitants are for the most part Brahuis or Baloch, both being Muhammadans of the Sunni sect. The area of Kalat with Las Bela is 80,410 sq. miles. The country is sparsely inhabited, the total population being about 379,000.

The relations of Kalat with the British Government are governed by the treaties of 1854 and 1876, by the latter of which the independence of Kalat was recognized, while the Khan agreed to act in subordinate co-operation with the British Government. There are also agreements with Kalat in connection with the construction of the Indo-European telegraph line, the cession of jurisdiction on the railways and in the Bolan Pass, and the permanent leases of Quetta, Nushki and Nasirabad.

The Khan is assisted in the administration of the State by a Wazir-i-Azam, at present a European Officer of the Imperial service. The Governor-General's Agent in Baluchistan conducts the relations between the Government of India and the Khan, and exercises general political supervision over the State. The revenue of the State is about Rs.12,50,641, out of which the Khan retains a civil list of Rs. 3,50,000 per annum. The present Khan is His Highness Beglar Begi Lieut. Mir Ahmad Yar Khan. He was born in 1903.

Las Bela is a small State under the suzerainty of Kalat. The Hab river for the Southern part of its course forms the Eastern boundary with Sind, and the greater part of the State consists of the valley and the delta of the Purali river. Area 7,132 square miles; population 50,696, chiefly Sunni Muhammadans. The estimated average revenue is about Rs. 3,03,067. The Chief of Las Bela, known as the Jam, is bound by agreement with the British Government to

conduct the administration of his State in accordance with the advice of the Governor-General's Agent. This control is exercised through the Political Agent in Kalat. The Jam also employs an approved Wazir, to whose advice he is subject and who assists him generally in the transaction of State business.

Agent to the Governor-General for Baluchistan.—The Hon'ble Sir Norman Cater, K.C.I.E., I.C.S.

RAJPUTANA AGENCY.

Rajputana is the name of a great territorial circle with a total area of about 133,886 square miles, which includes 21 Indian States, one chiefship, one estate, and the small British district of Ajmer-Merwara. It is bounded on the west by Sind, on the north-west by the Punjab State of Bahawalpur, on the north and north-east by the Punjab, on the east by the United Provinces and Gwalior, while the southern boundary runs across the central region of India in an irregular zigzag line. Of the Indian States, Chiefship and estate 19 are Rajput, 2 (Bharatpur and Dholpur) are Jat, and two (Palanpur and Tonk) are Mahomedan. The chief administrative control of the British district is vested *ex-officio* in the political officer, who holds the post of Governor-General's Agent for the supervision of the relations between the several Indian States of Rajputana and the Government of India. For administrative purposes they are divided into the following groups:—Bikaner and Sirohi in direct relations with the Agent to the Governor-General. Eastern Rajputana Agency 5 States (Alwar, Bharatpur, Dholpur, Karauli and Kotah). Haraoti and Tonk Agency, 4 States (Bundi, Jhalawar, Shahapura and Tonk); Jaipur and Western Rajputana States Residency 6 States (Danta, Jaipur, Jodhpur, Jaiselmer and Kishangarh, Palanpur and Lawa Estate); Mewar Residency, and Southern Rajputana States Agency 4 States (Mewar, Dangarpur, Banswara and Pratabgarh and the Kushalgarh Chiefship).

The Aravalli Hills intersect the country almost from end to end. The tract to the north-west of the hills is, as a whole, sandy, ill-watered and unproductive, but improves gradually from being a mere desert in the far west to comparatively fertile lands to the north-east. To the south-east on the Aravalli Hills lie higher and more fertile regions which contain extensive hill ranges and which are traversed by considerable rivers.

Communications.—The total length of railways in Rajputana is 3,259 miles, of which about 1000 are the property of the British Government. The B. B. & C. I. (Metre-gauge) (Government) runs from Ahmedabad to Bandikui and from there branches to Agra and Delhi. Of the Indian State railways the most important are the Jodhpur and Bikaner lines from Marwar Junction to Hyderabad (Sind) and to Bikaner. A new Railway line from Manli (on the Udaipur-Chitorgarh Railway) to Marwar Junction is under construction.

Inhabitants.—Over 50 per cent. of the population are engaged in some form of agriculture; about 20 per cent. of the total population are maintained by the preparation and supply of material substances; personal and domestic service provides employment for about 5 per cent. and commerce for 2½ per cent. of the population. The principal language is Rajasthani. Among castes and tribes, the most numerous are the Brahmans, Jats, Mahajans, Chamars, Rajputs, Minas, Gujars, Bhils, Malis and Balais. The Rajputs are, of course, the aristocracy of the country, and as such hold the land to a very large extent, either as receivers of rent or as cultivators. By reason of their position as integral families of pure descent, as a landed nobility, and as the kinsmen of ruling chiefs, they are also the aristocracy of India; and their social prestige may be measured by observing that there is hardly a tribe or clan (as distinguished from a caste) in India which does not claim descent from, or irregular connection with, one of these Rajput stocks.

The population and area of the States are as follows:—

Name of State.	Area in square miles.	Population in 1931.
In direct political relations with A.G.G.—		
Bikaner	23,317	936,218
Sirohi	1,958	216,528
Mewar Residency and S. R. S. Agency.—		
Udaipur	12,694	1,566,910
Banswara	1,606	225,106
Dungarpur	1,447	227,544
Partabgarh	886	66,539
Kushalgarh (Chiefship).	340	35,564
Jaipur and the Western Rajputana States Residency.—		
Danta	347	26,172
Jaipur	15,579	2,631,775
Jodhpur	35,016	2,125,982
Jaisalmer	16,062	76,255
Kishangarh	858	85,744
Palanpur	1,769	264,179
Lawa (Estate) ..	19	2,790
Haraoti and Tonk Agency.—		
Bundi	2,220	216,722
Tonk	2,553	317,360
Jhalawar	810	107,890
Shahpura	405	54,233
Eastern States Agency.—		
Alwar	3,158	749,751
Bharatpur	1,978	486,954
Dholpur	1,221	254,9 6
Karauli	1,242	140,525
Kotah	5,684	68 .804

Udaipur State (also called Mewar) was founded in about 646 A.D. The capital city is Udaipur, which is beautifully situated on the slope of a low ridge, the summit of which is crowned by His Highness the Maharana's palaces, and to the north and west, houses extend to the banks of a beautiful piece of water known as the Pichola Lake in the middle of which stand two island palaces. It is situated near the terminus of the Udaipur-Chittorgarh Railway, 697 miles north of Bombay. His Highness Maharajadhiraj Maharana Sir Bhupal Singhji Bahadur, G.C.S.I., K.C.I.E., who succeeded his father the late Maharana His Highness Maharajadhiraj Maharana Sir Fateh Singhji Bahadur, G.C.S.I., G.C.I.E., G.C.V.O., in 1930, is the Premier Ruling

Prince of Rajputana. The revenue and expenditure of the State are now about 80·6 lakhs. Its archæological remains are numerous, and stone inscriptions dating from the third century have been found.

Banswara State is the southernmost State of Rajputana within the Political Agency of the Southern Rajputana States. The area of the State is 1,946 square miles and the population 2,60,670 souls. It is thus in regard to size eleventh among the States of Rajputana. Banswara with Dungarpur originally formed a country known as Bagar, which was, from the beginning of the thirteenth century until about the year 1529, held by certain Rajput Rulers of the Ghelot or Sishodiya clan, who claimed descent from an elder branch of the family now ruling in Udaipur. After the death of Maha-Rawal Udai Singhji, the Ruler of Bagar, about 1529, his territory was divided between his two sons, Jagmal Singhji and Prithvi Rajji, and the descendants of the two families are now the Rulers of Banswara and Dungarpur respectively. Where the town of Banswara now stands, there was a large Bhil pal or colony under a powerful Bhil Chieftain, named Wasna, who was defeated and slain by Maharawal Jagmal Singhji about 1530. The name of Banswara is by tradition said to be a corruption of Wasnawara or the country of Wasna. Others assert that the word means the country (wara) of bamboos (bans). Nearly three centuries after its foundation by Maharawal Jagmal Singhji, Maharawal Bijai Singhji anxious to get rid of the supremacy of the Mahrattas offered to become a tributary to the British Government. In 1818, a definite treaty was made with his successor, Maharawal Umed Singhji. Banswara has been described as the most beautiful portion of Rajputana; it looks at its best just after the rains. The principal rivers are the Mahi, the Anas, the Eran, the Chap and the Haran.

The present Ruler is His Highness Rayan Rai Maharaja Dhiraj Maharawalji Sahib Shree Sir Pirthi Singhji Bahadur, K.C.I.E., who was born on July 15, 1888, and is the 21st in descent from Maharawal Jagmal Singhji. His Highness was educated in the Mayo College and succeeded his father in 1914. His Highness is entitled to a salute of 15 guns. The State is ruled by His Highness the Maharawalji Sahib Bahadur with the assistance of the Diwan and the Home Minister, and the Judicial and the Legislative Council, of which the Diwan is the President and the heir apparent, Maharaj Raj Kumar Sahib Shri Chandraveer Singhji Sahib, is Senior Member. The revenue of the State is about 7 lakhs and the expenditure is about the same.

Diwan.—Mr. R. K. Chatterjee, B.A., BAR-AT-LAW.

Home Minister.—Mr. Nand Lal Banerjee.

Dungarpur State, with Banswara, formerly comprised the country called the Bagar. It was invaded by the Mahrattas in 1818. As in other States inhabited by hill tribes, it became necessary at an early period of British supremacy to employ a military force to coerce the Bhils. The State represents the *Gadi* of the eldest branch of the Sisodias and dates its separate existence from about the close of the 12th Century. Samant Singh, King of Chitor, when driven away by Kirtipal of Jalor, fled to Bagdad and killed Chowrasimal, Chief of Baroda, and founded the State of Dungarpur. The present Chief is His Highness Raj Rayan Maharajadhiraj Maharawal Shri Lakshman Singhji Bahadur born on 7th March 1908, succeeded on 15th November 1918 and assumed charge of the administration on the 16th February 1928. No railway line crosses the territory, the nearest railway station, Udaipur, being 65 miles distant and Talad on Ahmedabad side, being about 70 miles distant. Revenue about 6¼ lakhs.

Partabgarh State, also called the Kanthal, was founded in the sixteenth century by a descendant of Rana Mokal of Mewar. The town of Partabgarh was founded in 1698 by Partab Singh. In the time of Jaswant Singh (1775-1844), the country was overrun by the Marathas, and the Maharawat only saved his State by agreeing to pay Holkar a tribute of *Salim Shahi* Rs. 72,700 (which then being coined in the State Mint was legal tender throughout the surrounding Native States), in lieu of Rs. 15,000 formerly paid to Delhi. The first connexion of the State with the British Government was formed in 1804; but the treaty then entered into was subsequently cancelled by Lord Cornwallis, and a fresh treaty by which the State was taken under protection was made in 1818. The tribute to Holkar is paid through the British Government, and in 1904 was converted to Rs. 36,350 British currency. The present ruler is His Highness Maharawat Ram Singh Bahadur who was born in 1908 and succeeded in 1929. The State is governed by the Maharawat with the help of the Dewan, and, in judicial matters, of a Committee of members styled the Raj Sabha or State Council. Revenue about 5½ lakhs; expenditure nearly 5½ lakhs. The financial administration is under the direct supervision of the State.

Jodhpur State, is the largest in Rajputana with an area of 36,021 square miles and a population of 2·4 millions, of which 83 per cent. are Hindus, 8 per cent. Musalmans and the rest Jains and Animists. The greater part of the country is an arid region. It improves gradually from a mere desert to comparatively fertile land as it proceeds from West to East. The rainfall is scanty and capricious. There are no perennial rivers and the supply of sub-soil water is very limited. The only important river is Luni.

The Maharaja of Jodhpur is the head of the Rathor clan of Rajputs and claims descent from Rama, the deified King of Ayodhya. The earliest known King of the Clan named Abhimanyu, lived in the fifth century, from which time their history is increasingly clear. After the breaking up of their kingdom at Kanauj they founded this State about 1212, and the foundations of the Jodhpur City were laid by Rao Jodha in 1459. He had abolished the tax levied by Hussain Shah of Jaunpur from Hindu pilgrims at Gaya. His descendant was the famous Rao Maldeva, the most powerful ruler of his time having an army of 80,000 Rajputs and the Emperor Humayun when expelled by Sher Shah in 1542 A.D. had sought refuge with him. Raja Sur Singh, son of Raja Udai Singh, in recognition of his deeds of valour was created a 'Sawai Raja' with a mansab of 5,000 Zat

3,300 Sowars by the Emperor Akbar. Maharaja Jaswant Singh I with whom the secret hostilities of Emperor Aurangzeb are well known was once a pillar of the Indian Empire and a great defender of the Hindus and their temples. He was also a patron of learning and himself wrote books on Philosophy, Prosody and other profound subjects. After his demise, Aurangzeb confiscated Marwar, and Maharaja Jaswant Singh's posthumous son and successor Maharaja Ajit Singh had to pass 8 years in hiding in mountains and subsequent 20 years in constant wars with Aurangzeb's army with the help of his nobles, chief of whom was the famous hero Durga Dass before he ascended the throne of Marwar. In the time of Maharaja Bijey Singh, a later descendant of the same line, one of the richest districts, *viz.*, Godwar, was finally acquired from Mewar and annexed to Marwar. The State entered into a treaty of alliance with the British Government in 1818.

The present ruler, Lieut.-Colonel His Highness Raj Rajeshwar Saramad Rajai Hind Maharaja Dhiraj Maharaja Sri Sir Umaid Singhji Sahib Bahadur, G.C.I.E., K.C.S.I., K.C.V.O., is the head of Rathors, and is the 32nd ruler from Rao Sihaji. His Highness was born on 8th July 1903 and is now in the 30th year of his age. He succeeded his elder brother on 3rd October, 1918. He was educated at the Mayo College, Ajmer, and was invested with full ruling powers on 27th January 1923. In October of the same year he was granted the rank of honorary Captain in the British Army, made a Knight Commander of the Royal Victorian Order in March 1921 was elevated to the rank of Honorary Major in June 1923 and Honorary Lieut.-Colonel in August 1933. He was created K.C.S.I. on 3rd June 1925 and invested with G.C.I.E. on the 1st January 1930. His Highness was married in November 1921, and has four sons and one daughter, the heir-apparent being Maharaj Kumar Sri Hanvant Singhji Sahib born on 16th June 1923. His Highness the Maharaja Sahib Bahadur has one younger brother Maharaja Sri Ajit Singhji Sahib, and two sisters, the elder of whom is Maharani of Jaipur and the younger the Maharani of Rewa.

His Highness is greatly interested in educational, athletic, and progressive institutions generally of modern times, both in India and abroad, and has always exhibited his sympathy with them by liberal donations. An example of this can be easily found in the donation of 3 lakhs made by His Highness for founding the Irwin Chair of Agriculture at the Benares Hindu University. He is a keen sportsman, Polo player and first rate shot. His favourite pasttimes are pig-sticking, fishing, shooting, photography and air-piloting.

His Highness enjoys a salute of 19 guns within his own territories and 17 guns elsewhere.

The administration is carried on with the aid of a State Council composed of His Highness the Maharaja Sahib Bahadur, President, Mr. J. W. Young, O.B.E., (Indian Finance Department), Chief Minister and Finance Minister, Rao Bahadur Thakur Chain Singhji, M.A., LL.B., Judicial Minister; Thakur Madho Singhji, Home Minister; and Mr. J. B. Irwin, D.S.O., M.C., I.C.S., Revenue Minister. There is also an Advisory Committee representing the great body of Sardars who hold as much as five-sixths of the total area, to aid the administration with opinion on matters affecting general customs and usage in the country.

The revenue of the State during the year 1931-32 was Rs. 1,47,43,000 and the expenditure Rs. 1,17,12,000. The Jodhpur Railway extending from Hyderabad (Sind) to Luni Junction and Marwar Junction to Kuchaman Road with its branches on all sides in the territories of the State is the principal railway, while the B. B. & C. I. Railway runs across a portion of the South-Eastern Border. The famous marble quarries of Makrana as well as the salt lake at Sambhar are situated in Jodhpur territory.

Jaisalmer State is one of the largest States in Rajputana and covers an area of 16,062 square miles. The Rulers of Jaisalmer belong to the Jadon clan and are the direct descendants of Sri Krishna. Jaisalmer City was founded in 1156, and the State entered into an alliance of perpetual friendship with the British Government in 1818. In 1844 after the British conquest of Sind the forts of Shahgarh, Garsia and Ghotaru which had formerly belonged to Jaisalmer were restored to the State. The population according to the census of 1931 is 67,652. The present Ruling Prince is His Highness Maharajadhiraj Raj Rajeshwar Maharawalji Sir Jawahir Singhji Saheb Bahadur, Yadukul, Chandrabhal Rukan-ud-Dowla, Muzaffer Jang, Bijaimand, K.C.S.I. Revenue about four Lakhs.

Sirohi State is much broken up by hills of which the main feature is Mount Abu, 5,650 feet. The Chiefs of Sirohi are Deora Rajputs, a branch of the famous Chauhan clan which furnished the last Hindu kings of Delhi. The present capital of Sirohi was built in 1425. The city suffered in the eighteenth century from the wars with Jodhpur and the depredations of wild Mina tribes. Jodhpur claimed suzerainty over Sirohi but this was disallowed and British protection was granted in 1823. The present ruler is His Highness Maharajadhiraj Maharao Shri Sir Sarup Ram Singh Bahadur, G.C.I.E., K.C.S.I. The State is ruled by the Maharao with the assistance of Ministers and other officials. Revenue about 10¾ lakhs.

Jaipur is the fourth largest State in Rajputana. It consists for the most part of level and open country. It was known to the ancients as Matsya Desh, and was the kingdom of the King Virata mentioned in the Mahabharata, in whose court, the five Pandava brothers during their last period of exile resided. Bhairat in the Jaipur State has been identified.

The Maharaja of Jaipur is the head of the Kuchawa clan of Rajputs, which claims descent from Kush, son of Rama, King of Ayodhya, the famous hero of the famous epic poem, the Ramayana. This dynasty in Eastern Rajputana dates as far back as ninth century A. D. Dulha Raj, one of its most early rulers, made Amber the capital of the State in 1037 A. D. About the end of 12th century one of the rulers Pajun at the head of the army of Prithvi Raj, Emperor of Delhi, defeated Shahabuddin Ghori in the Khyber Pass and pursued him as far as Ghazni. Prithvi Raj had given his sister in marriage to him. History of India records several distinguished rulers of Jaipur from amongst whom the following require particular mention. Man Singh, 1590-1615. He was a victorious general, intrepid commander and

tactful administrator, whose fame had spread throughout the country. During most troublous times, he maintained Imperial authority in Kabul and was the brilliant character of Akbar's time. Maharaja Sawai Jai Singh II (1700—44) was the first town planner in India. He removed the capital of the State to Jaipur, so named after him. During his time, the State acquired great power and fame. He was a great mathematician and scientist of his age, and is famous for his astronomical observatories which he built at several important centres in India. His court was visited by foreign astronomers. Maharaja Sawai Ram Singh, 1835-1880. He was one of the most enlightened princes in India at that time. He encouraged art and learning. He embellished the city in various ways and improved the administration and material condition of the people. Maharaja Sawai Madho Singh II, 1880-1922. He was a very wise and intelligent ruler who followed in the foot-steps of his father. He maintained and steadily improved all the useful measures initiated by the late Maharaja. His administration was characterized by great liberality, catholicity and a broad outlook on affairs. His deep religious devotion and piety and unrivalled generosity and genuine and active sympathy are well known. His staunch loyalty and maintenance of the traditions of his house raised him in the estimation of the paramount power. He passed away after a long reign of 41 years. His late Highness' donations and subscriptions to works of charity are enormous and too numerous to detail. His Highness the present Maharaja Sawai Man Singh II Bahadur was born on 21st August 1911. He was adopted by His late Highness on 24th March 1921. He is a scion of the Rajawat House of Isarda, and ascended the gadi on the 7th September 1922, and was married to the sister of the present Maharajah of Jodhpur on the 30th January 1924, from whom he has a daughter and a son and heir (b. 22nd October 1931). His second marriage with the daughter of his late Highness Maharaja Shri Sumer Singhji Bahadur of Jodhpur was celebrated on the 24th April 1932. By this marriage he has a son born in England on May 5, 1933. He studied at the Woolwich Military Academy in England and promises to be an ideal ruler having given abundant evidence already of the keen and sympathetic interest he takes in all that concerns the welfare of his people and mankind in general.

His Highness the Maharaja Sahib Bahadur was invested with full powers on 14th March 1931. A Chief Court of Judicature was established in 1921. The army consists of Cavalry, Infantry, Transport and Artillery. The normal revenue is about one crore and twenty lakhs.

According to the Census of 1931 the population of the State is 26,31,775. In area it is 16,682 square miles.

Kishangarh State is in the centre of Rajputana and consists practically of two narrow strips of land separated from each other with an area of 858 square miles (population 85,744), the northern mostly sandy, the southern generally flat and fertile. The Ruling Princes of Kishangarh belong to the Rathor clan of Rajputs and are descended from Maharaja Kishan Singh (second son of Maharaja Udai Singh of Jodhpur) who founded the town of Kishangarh in 1611. The present ruler is His Highness Umdae Rajhai Buland Makan Maharajah Dhiraj Dikshit Yagnarain Singh Bahadur. He was born on the 26th January, 1896, and was educated at the Mayo College, Ajmer, where he passed the Diploma Examination. He was married to the sister of Raja Bahadur Maksudangarh in May, 1915. He went to England and travelled on the Continent with His Late Highness in 1921. On the demise of His Late Highness on 25th September 1926, he succeeded to the Gadi on the 24th November 1926. He administers the State with the help of a Council. Revenue about 9 lakhs and expenditure 8 lakhs.

Lawa State, or Chief of Rajputana is a separate chiefship under the protection of the British Government and independent of any Native States. It formerly belonged to Jaipur and then became part of the State of Tonk. In 1867, the Nawab of Tonk murdered the Thakur's uncle and his followers, and Lawa was then raised to its present State. The Thakurs of Lawa belonged to the Naruka sect of the Kachwaha Rajputs. The present Thakur, Bansperdeep Singh, was born on September 24, 1923 and succeeded to the chiefship on 31st December 1929. The chiefship is under minority Administration. Revenue about Rs. 50,000.

Bundi State is a mountainous territory in the south-east of Rajputana. The Ruler of Bundi is the head of the Hara sect of the great clan of Chauhan Rajputs and the country occupied by this sect has for the last five or six centuries been known as Haraoti. The State was founded in the early part of the thirteenth century and constant feuds with Mewar and Malwa followed. It threw in its lot with the Mahomedan emperors in the sixteenth century. In later times it was constantly ravaged by the Marathas and Pindaries and came under British protection in 1818. The present ruler of the State is His Highness Maharao Raja Shri Ishwari Singhji Saheb Bahadur. He was born on 8th March 1893 and succeeded to the Gadi on 8th August 1927. His Highness is entitled to a Salute of 17 guns. Revenue about 12½ lakhs Hali and 3½ lakhs Kalder, Expenditure nearly the same.

Tonk State.—Partly in Rajputana and partly in Central India, consists of six Parganas separated from one another. The ruling family belongs to the Salarzai clan of the Bunerwal Afghan tribe. The founder of the State was Nawab Muhammad Amir Khan Bahadur, General of Holkar's Army from 1798-1806. Holkar bestowed grants of land on him in Rajputana and Central India and the land so granted to him was consolidated into the present State. The present Ruler of the State is His Highness Said-ud-Daula, Wazir-ul-Mulk Nawab Hafiz Muhammad Saadat Ali Khan Bahadur, Saulat-i-Jang who ascended the Masnad in 1930. The administration is conducted by the Nawab in consultation with the Council of four members, *viz.*, (1) Major D. de. M. S. Fraser, I.A., Principal Official and Adviser to His Highness, Vice-President, State Council, and Finance Member; (2) Khan Bahadur Sheikh Rahim Bakhsh, O.B.E., Judicial Member; (3) Khan Sahib Mohammad Asad Ullah Khan, Revenue Member; (4) Khan Bahadur Sahibzada Muhammad Abdul Tawwab Khan, Home Member.

Secretary.—M. Hamid Husain, B.A.

Revenue.—Rs. 23,49,282. Expenditure.—Rs. 20,94,060.

Shahpura State.—The ruling family belongs to the Seesodia Clan of Rajputs. The State came into existence about 1629 when the Parganah of Phulia was granted by the Mughal Emperor Shah-i-Jehan to Maharaj Sujan Singh, son of Maharaj Surajmal, the second son of Maharana Amar Singh of Udaipur. Later on Raja Ran Singhji received the paraganah of Kachhola from the Maharana of Udaipur and was recognised as a great noble of the Mewar State.

The present Ruler is Rajadhiraj Sri Umaid Singhji Bahadur. The State enjoys permanent honour of nine gunssalute.

Bharatpur State.—Consists largely of an immense alluvial plain, watered by the Banganga and other rivers.

The present ruling family of Bharatpur are Jats, of the Sinsinwar clan who trace their pedigree to the eleventh century. The family derives its name from its old village Sinsini. Bharatpur was the first State in Rajputana that made alliance with the British Government in 1803. It helped Lord Lake with 5,000 horse in his conquest of Agra and battle of Laswari wherein the Maratha power was entirely broken and received 5 districts as reward for the service. In 1804, however, Bharatpur sided with Jaswant Rao Holkar against the British Government which resulted in a war. Peace was re-established in 1805 under a treaty of alliance and it continues in force. The Gadi being usurped by Darjan Sal in 1825, the British Government took up the cause of the rightful heir Maharaja Balwant Singh Shaib. Bharatpur was besieged by Lord Combermere, and as the faithful subjects of the State also made common cause with the British Army the usurper was quickly disposed of, and Maharaja Balwant Singh, the rightful heir to the Throne, came into his own. Bharatpur also rendered valuable service to the British Government during the Mutiny. During the great War the Bharatpur Durbar gave valuable help to the Imperial Government. The Bharatpur Imperial Service Infantry served in East Africa and the Mule Transport Corps served in all theatres of war except Africa. The following are among the most important contributions made by the State during the great war: (1) reinforcement sent to E. Africa for the Imperial Service Infantry, 714 rank and file, and 64 followers; (2) reinforcements for the Imperial Service Transport Corps, 430 rank and file and 64 followers; (3) State subscriptions to war loans 20 lakhs; (4) State subscriptions to Imperial Indian Relief Funds, Soldiers' Comfort Fund, Aeroplane Fleet Fund, Lord Kitchener's Memorial Fund, St. John's Ambulance, Serbian Relief Fund, and Red Cross, 2 lakhs; (5) public subscriptions to various war funds Rs. 26,000 and (6) public subscriptions to war bonds Rs. 69,000. Immediately upon their return from Europe the Bharatpur Transport Corps went to the North-West Frontier, and remained on active service there during the Afghan War. The Corps returned to Bharatpur at the conclusion of peace in February 1920. The present Ruler is His Highness Shri Maharaja Brijendra Sawai Brijendra Singh Bahadur, Bahadur Jung, who was born in 1918 and succeeded his father, Maharaja Sir Kishen Singh who died on the 27th of March 1929.

Revenue Rs. 30,47,000.

Dholpur State.—The family of the ruling Chiefs of Dholpur belongs to the Bamrolian Jats, the adopted home of one of their ancestors. The family took the name of Bamrolia about the year 1367. They next migrated to Gwalior, where they took the part of the Rajputs in their struggles against the Emperor's Officers. Eventually the Bamrolia Jats settled near Gohad and in 1505 Surjan Deo assumed the title of Rana of Gohad. After the overthrow of the Mahrattas at Panipat, Rana Bhim Singh in 1761 possessed himself of the fortress of Gwalior but lost it six years later. In order to bar the encroachments of the Mahrattas, a treaty was made with the Rana in 1779 by the British Government under Warren Hastings, and the joint forces of the contracting parties re-took Gwalior. In the treaty of the 13th October 1781 between the British Government and Scindia, it was stipulated that so long as the Maharaj Rana observes his treaty with the English, Scindia should not interfere with his territories. The possession of Gohad however led to disputes between the British and Scindia, and in 1805 the Governor-General transferred Gwalior and Gohad to Scindia, and that of Dholpur, Bari, Baseri, Sepau and Rajakhera to Maharaj Rana Kirat Singh. Maharaj Rana Kirat Singh died in 1836 and was succeeded by his son Maharaj Rana Bhagwant Singh on whose death in 1870 his grandson, the late Chief Maharaj Rana Nehal Singh, succeeded to the Gadi. Major His Highness Rais-ud-Daula Sipahdar-ul-Mulk Saramad Rajhai Hind Maharajadhiraj Sri Sawai Maharaj Rana Sir Udai Bhan Singh Lokindra Bahadur Diler Jang Jai Deo, K.C.S.I., K.C.V.O., the present ruler, is the second son of Maharaj Rana Nehal Singh and was born on the 12th February 1893. On the death of his brother Maharaj Rana Ram Singh His Highness succeeded to the gadi on March 1911. He was educated at the Mayo College, Ajmer, where he passed the Diploma Examination and won several prizes. After a short course of training in the Imperial Cadet Corps at Dehra Dun, His Highness went on a tour to Europe in 1912 and was invested with full ruling powers on the 9th October 1913.

By clan and family the Maharaj Rana is connected with the Jat Chiefs of Patiala, Jhind, Nabha and Bharatpur. His mother was the second sister of late Shahzada Basdeo Singh Sahib Bahadur of the family of Maharaj Ranjit Singh of Lahore. His Highness is married to the daughter of the Sardar of Badrukha in the Jhind State.

Karauli State.—A State in Rajputana under the Political control of the Political Agent, Eastern Rajputana States Agency, lying between 26° and 27° north latitude and 76° 30' and 77° 30' east longitude. Area, 1,242 square miles. The river Chambal forms the south-eastern boundary of the State, dividing it from Gwalior (Scindhia's Territory) on the south-west it is bounded by Jaipur; and on the north-east by the States of Bharatpur, Jaipur and Dholpur. The State pays no tribute to Government. Languages spoken Hindi and Urdu.

Ruler—His Highness Maharajadhiraj Maharaja Bhom Pal, Deo Bahadur, Yadukul Chandra Bhal, Heir-apparent, Maharaj Kumar Ganesh Pal. Dewan:— Rao Bahadur Pandit Shanker Nath Sharma.

Kotah State belongs to the Hara section of the clan of Chauhan Rajputs, and the early history of their house is, up to the 17th century, identical with that of the Bundi family from which they are an offshoot. Its existence as a separate State dates from 1625. It came under British protection in 1817. The present ruler is H. H. Lieut.-Colonel Maharao Sir Umed Singhji Bahadur, G.C.S.I., G.C.I.E., G.B.E., who was born in 1873 and invested with full powers in 1896. In administration he is assisted by two members, Rai Bahadur Pandit Bishwambhar Nath, M.A., and Major-General Onkarsingh, C.I.E. The most important event of his rule has been the restoration, on the deposition of the late Chief of the Jhalawar State, of 15 out of the 17 districts which had been ceded in 1838 to form that principality. Revenue 51 lakhs ; Expenditure 47 lakhs.

Jhalawar State consists of two separate tracts in the south-east of Rajputana with an area of 813 square miles yielding a revenue of about 8 lakhs of rupees. The ruling family belongs to the Jhala clan of Rajputs. The present Ruler, Lieutenent His Highness Maharaj Rana Rajendra Singhji, succeeded to the Gadi on 13th April, 1929. He was born in 1900 and educated at the Mayo College, Ajmer, and Oxford University. The heir-apparent Maharaj Kumar Virendra Singh was born in England on 27th September, 1921. Sirdar Mir Maqbul Mahmood, B.A., LL.B., Bar-at-Law, B. Litt. (Oxon.), B. Ag., is the Dewan of the State.

The Bikaner State in point of area is the seventh largest of all the Indian States and the second largest in Rajputna. The population of the State is 9,36,218 of whom 77 per cent. are Hindus, 15 per cent. Mahomedans, 4 per cent. Sikhs and 3 per cent. Jains. The capital city of Bikaner, with its population including the suburbs of 85,927, is the third city in Rajputana.

The northern portion of the State consists of level loam land, whilst the remainder is for the most part sandy and undulating. The average rainfall is about 12 inches. The water level over most of the State is from 150 feet to 300 feet deep.

The Reigning Family of Bikaner is of the Rathore clan of Rajputs, and the State was founded in 1465 A.D. by Rao Bikaji, son of Rao Jodhaji, Ruler of Marwar (Jodhpur), and after him both the Capital and the State are named. Rai Singhji, the first to receive the title of Rajah, was "one of Akbar's most distinguished Generals" and it was during his reign that the present Fort of Bikaner was built in 1593. The title of Maharajah was conferred on Rajah Anup Singhji by the Mughal Emperor in 1687 in recognition of his distinguished services in the capture of Golconda. The conspicuous services of Maharajah Sardar Singhji who in the Indian Mutiny of 1857 personally led his troops to co-operate with the British forces in the field on the outbreak of the Mutiny was acknowledged by the Government of India by the transfer of the Sub-Tehsil of Tibi, consisting of 41 villages from the adjoining Sirsa Tehsil in the Punjab to the Bikaner State.

The present Ruler, Lieutenant-General His Highness Maharajadhiraj Raj Rajeshwar Narendra Shiromani Maharajah Sri Sir Ganga Singhji Bahadur, G.C.S.I., G.C.I.E., G.C.V.O., G.B.E., K.C.B., A.D.C., LL.D., is the 21st of a long line of distinguished rulers renowned for their bravery and statesmanship. He was born on the 13th October 1880, and assumed full ruling powers in December, 1898. He was awarded the first class Kaisar-i-Hind Medal for the active part he took in relieving the famine of 1899-1900, and soon after he went on active service to China in connection with the China War of 1900-1901 in command of his famous Ganga Risala and was mentioned in despatches and received the China Medal and K.C.I.E. The State Forces consist of the Camel Corps, known as 'Ganga Risala,' whose sanctioned strength is 465 strong, an Infantry Battalion known as Sadul Light Infantry 619 strong, a Regiment of Cavalry known as Dungar Lancers 342 strong, including His Highness' Body Guard, a Battery of Artillery (4 guns 2·75), 236 strong and Camel Battery, 20 strong and State Band 35 strong. At outbreak of the Great War in 1914, His Highness immediately placed the services of himself and his State forces and all the resources of the State at the disposal of His Imperial Majesty the King-Emperor, and the Ganga Risala reinforced by the Infantry Regiment, which became incorporated in the Camel Corps in the field, rendered very valuable services in Egypt and Palestine. An extra force was also raised for internal security. His Highness personally went on active service in August 1914 and enjoys the honour of having fought both in France and Egypt, and thus has the distinction of having fought for the British Crown on three Continents, *viz.*, Asia, Europe and Africa. He was mentioned in despatches both in Egypt and France. His Highness also played a very conspicuous political part during the period of the War when he went twice to Europe as the Representative of the Princes of India, once in 1917 to attend the meetings of the Imperial War Cabinet and Conference, and again in 1918-19 to attend the Peace Conference where he was one of the signatories to the treaty of Versailles. His Highness led the Indian Delegation to the 11th Assembly of the League of Nations at Geneva and represented the Indian States at the Imperial Conference in 1930. His Highness also attended the Indian Round Table Conference and the Federal Structure Sub-Committee both in 1930 and 1931.

His Highness enjoys a salute of 19 guns (personal) whilst the permanent local salute of the State is also 19. His Highness has also had the honour of being elected the first Chancellor of the Chamber of Princes, an office which he filled most creditably for 5 years till 1925.

His Highness is assisted in the administration of the State by a Prime Minister and Chief Councillor in the person of Sir Manubhai N. Mehta, Kt., C.S.I., M.A., LL.B., formerly the Dewan of the Baroda State. A Legislative Assembly was inaugurated in 1913, and consists of 45 Members, 20 out of whom are elected Members: it meets twice a year.

The revenues of the State are over a crore of rupees and the State owns a large Railway system, the total mileage being 795·85. The Government have also under contemplation an extension of the Bikaner State Railway from Sadulpur to Rewari and from Bikaner to Sind *Via* Jaisalmer which will have the effect of connecting Delhi with Sind. Hitherto there was practically no Irrigation in the State, the crops depending only on the scanty rainfall; but the Gang Canal taken out from the Sutlej river has now been constructed and opened and will help to protect about 6,20,000 acres of land in the northern part of the State against famine from which it has suffered in the past. 3,35,724 Bighas of the Canal land have already been sold. Even larger expectations are held out from the Bhakra Dam Project from which it is hoped that the remaining level lands in the north of the State will be irrigated. A coal mine is worked at Palana, 14 miles south from the Capital.

Alwar State is a hilly tract of land in the East of Rajputana. The Alwar House is the head in India of the Naruka clan who are descendants of 'Kush', the eldest son of Shri Ram in the Solar dynasty. Raja Udai Karanji was the common ancestor of both the Alwar and Jaipur Houses. Bar Singh, the eldest son of Udai Karanji of Amber, renounced his right of succession in favour of his younger brother Nar Singhji. Nar Singhji's line founded Jaipur which in Bar Singhji's line Maharaj Pratap Singh established the Alwar State. Before his death in 1791 Maharaj Pratap Singh secured possession of large territories. His successor sent a force to co-operate with Lord Lake in the War of 1803. An alliance of mutual friendship was concluded with the British Government in that year. The present Ruler Col. His Highness Shri Sewai Maharaj Raj Rishi Sir Jey Singhji Bahadur, G.C.S.I., G.C.I.E., who is sixth in succession from Maharaj Pratap Singhji was born in 1882, succeeded his father Maharaj Shri Mangal Singhji Dev, G.C.S.I., in 1892 and assumed the Ruling powers in 1903. He carries on the administration with the assistance of 5 Ministers, Members of his Council, and departmental Officers. Normal revenue is about 40 lakhs. His Highness Shri Maharaj Mangal Singhi Dev was the first Prince in Rajputana to offer help in the defence of the Empire in 1888. Alwar State stood first in recruiting in Rajputana at the time of the Great War. His Highness enjoys a salute of 17 guns. The capital Alwar is on the B. B. & C. I. Rly. 98 miles west of Delhi.

Palanpur.—Palanpur is a first class State with an area of 1,76,889 square miles and a population of 264,179. The net revenue of the State calculated on the average of the last five years is about 11 lakhs.

The State is under the rule of Major His Highness Zubd-tul-Mulk Dewan Mahakhan Nawab Shri Taley Muhomed Khan Bahadur, G.C.I.E., K.C.V.O., Nawab Saheb of Palaupur. His Highness is descended from the Usazai Lohani Pathan, an Afghan tribe who appeared in Gujarat in the 14th century. The connection of the British Government with the State dates from 1809, in which year the Ruler was murdered by a body of Sindhi Jamadars. A considerable trade in cloth, wheat, ghee, wool, hides, castor and rape seeds, sugar and rice is carried on in the State. The capital city of Palanpur is situated on the B. B. & C. I. Railway, and is the junction station of the Palanpur-Deesa branch of the B. B. & C. I. Railway. It is a very old settlement of which mention was made in the 8th century.

RAJPUTANA.

Agent to Governor-General—The Hon. Lt.-Col. G. D. Ogilvie, C.S.I., C.I.E.

UDAIPUR.

Resident—Lt.-Col. W. A. M. Garstin, C.B.E.

JAIPUR.

Resident—A. C. Lothian, I.C.S.

EASTERN RAJPUTANA STATES.

Political Agent—L. G. I. Evans, I.C.S.

WESTERN RAJPUTANA STATES.

Resident—A. C. Lothian, I.C.S.

HARAOTI AND TONK.

Political Agent—Capt. D. R. Smith.

SOUTHERN RAJPUTANA STATES.

Political Agent—Lt.-Col. W. A. M. Garstin, C.B.E.

CENTRAL INDIA AGENCY.

Central India Agency is the name given to the country occupied by the Indian States grouped together under the supervision of the Political Officer who is designated the Agent to the Governor-General in Central India with headquarters at Indore. As constituted in 1921—that is, after the separation of the Gwalior Residency—it is an irregularly formed tract lying in two sections, the Eastern comprising Bundelkhand and Baghelkhand Agencies between 22°–38′ and 26°–19′ North and 78°–10′ and 83°–0′ East and the Western consisting of the Bhopal and the Southern States and Malwa Agencies between 21°–22′ and 24°–47′ North and 74°–0′ and 78°–50′ East. The British districts of Jhansi and Saugor and the Gwalior State divide the Agency into two sections. The total area covered is 51,597 square miles and the population (1931) amounts to 6,632,790. The great majority of the people are Hindus. There are 28 Salute States of which the following 10 have direct treaty engagements with the British Government:—Indore, Bhopal, Rewa, Orchha, Datia, Dhar, Dewas Senior Branch, Dewas Junior Branch, Samthar and Jaora. All of these are Hindu except Bhopal Jaora and Baoni which are Muhammadan. Besides these there are 59 Minor States and Guaranteed Estates. Excluding the Indore State and the Hirapur and Lalgarh Estates they are divided into following groups for administrative purposes:—Bhopal Agency, 11 States and Estates (principal States Bhopal), Dewas Senior Branch, Dewas Junior Branch; Bundelkhand Agency, 33 States and Estates (principal Statees Orchha); Southern and Datia States and Malwa Agency, 39 States and Estates (principal States Dhar, Jaora and Ratlam). The Agency may roughly be divided into two natural divisions, Central India West comprising the former Plateau division with such hilly land as lies on this side and Central India

East comprising the former low-lying area and the Eastern hilly tracts." The hilly tracts lie along the ranges of the Vindhyas and Satpuras. They consist of forest areas and agriculture is little practised there, the inhabitants being mostly members of the wild tribes. The territories of the different States are much intermingled and their political relations with the Government of India and each other are very varied.

The following is the size, population and revenue of the ten treaty States mentioned above:—

Name.	Area in square miles.	Population.	Revenue.
			Lakhs Rs.
Indore	9,670	13,18,237	136
Bhopal ..	6,924	7,29,955	80
Rewa	13,000	15,87,445	60
Orchha ..	2,080	3,14,556	10½
Datia	912	1,58,834	16
Dhar	1,784	2,43,430	17½
Dewas, Senior Branch ..	449	83,321	9¼
Dewas, Junior Branch ..	419	70,513	6
Samthar ..	180	33,307	3½
Jaora	602	1,00,166	13½

Gwalior.—The house of Scindia traces its decent to a family of which one branch held the hereditary post of patel in a village near Satara. The head of the family received a patent of rank from Aurangzebe. The founder of the Gwalior House was Ranoji Scindia who held a military rank under the Peshwa Baji Rao. In 1726 the Peshwa granted deeds to Puar, Holkar and Scindia, empowering them to levy "Chauth" and "Sardesmukhi" and retain half the amount for payment to their troops. In 1736 Ranoji Scindia accompanied Baji Rao to Delhi where he and Mulhar Rao Holkar distinguished themselves in military exploits. Ranoji fixed his headquarters at the ancient city of Ujjain, which for the time became the capital of the Scindia dominions. During the time of Mahadji Scindia and Dowlat Rao Scindia Gwalior played an important part in shaping the history of India. Despite the partial reverse which Mahadji Scindia's troops suffered at the hands of the British in 1780, reverses which led to the treaty of Salbai (1782), Scindia's power remained unbroken. For the first time he was now recognized by the British as an independent sovereign and not as a vassal of the Peshwa.

In 1790 his power was firmly established in Delhi. While he was indulging ambitious hopes he fell a prey to fever which ended his remarkable career on 12th February, 1794. Himself a military genius, Mahadji Scindia's armies reached the zenith of their glory under the disciplined training of the celebrated French adventurer—De Boigne. Mahadji was succeeded by his grand nephew Daulat Rao in whose service Perron, a Military Commander of great renown, played a leading part. The strength of Scindi'as Army was, however, considerably weakened by the reverses, sustained at Ahmednagar, Assaye, Asirgarh and Laswari. Daulat Rao Scindia died in 1827. Till his death he remained in undisputed possession of almost all the territory which belonged to him in 1805.

Daulat Rao was succeeded by Jankoji Rao who passed away in the prime of life. On his demise in 1843 intrigue and party spirit were rampant and the Army was in a state of mutiny with the result that it came into collision with the British forces at Maharajpoore and Pannihar.

Jankoji Rao was succeeded by Jiaji Rao whose adherence to the British cause during the dark days of Mutiny, when his own troops deserted him, was unshakable. In 1861 he was created a Knight Grand Commander of the Most Exalted Order of the Star of India and in 1877 was made a Councillor of the Empress. Subsequently he received other titles and entered into treaties of mutual exchange of territories with the British Government. He died on the 20th June 1886 and was succeeded by his son Lieutenant-General H. H. Maharaja Sir Madho Rao Scindia, Alijah Bahadur, G.C.V.O., G.C.S.I., G.B.E., A.D.C., to the King. He succeeded in 1886 and obtained powers in 1894. In 1901 he went to China during the war; he held the rank of honorary Lieutenant-General of the British Army and the honorary degrees of LL.D., Cambridge, and D.C.L., Oxon. He was also a Donat of the Order of St. John of Jerusalem in England. He died in June 1925 and was succeeded by his soñ H. H. Jeewaji Rao Scindia. During His Highness' minority the administration of the State is being conducted by a Council of Regency.

The Ruler of the State enjoys a salute of 21 guns. The State is in direct relations with the Government of India.

The State has an area of 26,367 Sq. miles and population 35,23,070 according to the Census of 1931. Its average rainfall is from 25 to 36 inches. The average revenue is Rs. 2,41,79,000 and average expenditure Rs. 2,06,50,000.

The State has a Police force of 13,897 and Indian State Forces Cavalry 1,615 Infantry and Artillery, besides Regular and Irregular troops.

There is a well equipped State workshop in Lashkar, the capital of the State; there are electric Press, electric Power House, Leather Factory, Tannery and Pottery Works. There are some good cotton mills in Lashkar and Ujjain. The State has its own Light Railway and its own Postal system according to Postal Convention. The G. I. P. Railway traverses through a major portion of the State territories.

Indore.—The founder of the House of the Holkar of Indore was Malhar Rao Holkar, born in 1693. His soldierly qualities brought him to the front under the Peshwa, who took him into his service and employed him for his conquests. When the Maratha power was weakened at the battle of Panipat in 1761, Malhar Rao had acquired territories stretching from the Deccan to the Ganges as a reward for his career as a Military Commander. He was succeeded by his grandson. On his death without issue his mother Ahilya Bai became the Ruler and her administration is still looked upon with admiration and reverence as that of a model ruler. She was succeeded by Tukoji Holkar who had been associated with her to carry the Military Administration and had in course of it distinguished himself in various

battles. Tukoji was succeeded by Kashirao, who was supplanted by Yeshwant Rao, his step-brother, a person of remarkable daring strategy as exhibited in a number of engagements in which he had taken part. The brilliant success he obtained at the battle of Poona against the combined armies of Peshwa and Scindia made him a dictator of Poona for some time and he declared in consequence the independence of Holkar State. During 1804-5 he had a protracted war with the British, closed by a Treaty which recognised the independence of Holkar State with practically no diminution of its territories and rights. Yeshwant Rao showed signs of insanity from 1808 onwards and succumbed to that malady in 1811, when he was succeeded by his minor son Malhar Rao II. During the Regency which followed, the power of the State was weakened by various causes, the most important of which was the refractory conduct of the Military Commanders. On the outbreak of the war between the English and the Peshwa in 1817, some of these Commanders, with a part of the army, rebelled against the authority of the State and were disposed to befriend the Peshwa, while the regent mother and her ministers were for friendship with the British. There was a battle between the British Army and this refractory portion of the Holkar Army which culminated in the latter's defeat. Holkar had to come to terms and to cede extensive territories and rights over the Rajput Princes to the British, but the internal sovereignty remained unaffected. The Treaty of 1818 which embodied these provisions still regulates the relations between the British Government and the State.

Malhar Rao died a premature death in 1833. Then followed the weak administration of Hari Rao and his son. In 1844 Tukoji Rao II ascended the Throne; but as he was a minor the administration was carried on by a Regency under Sir Robert Hamilton, the Resident as its Adviser. The prosperity of the State revived a great deal during this administration and the progress was maintained after the Maharaja assumed powers in 1852. It was interrupted by the out-break of the Mutiny in 1857 in British India. This wave of disaffection did not leave some of the State troops untouched. The Maharaja with his adherents and the remaining troops remained, however, staunch to the British and gave every possible assistance to the British authorities at Indore, Mhow and other places which was recognised by the British Government. The Maharaja died in 1886 after having effected various reforms in the administration and raised the position of the State to a high degree of prosperity and honour. He was succeeded by Shivaji Rao who reigned for 16 years and will be specially remembered for his beneficent measures in matters of education, sanitation, medical relief and abolition of transit duties. Tukoji Rao III succeeded in 1903 while yet a minor. The Regency Administration was continued till 1911 and it effected a number of reforms in all the branches of administration. The policy of the Regency was maintained by the Maharaja. With his assumption of powers the State advanced in education in general, including female education, commerce and industrial developments, municipal franchise and other representative institutions. This prosperity was specially reflected in the Indore City, the population of which rose by 40 per cent.

During the war of 1914 the State placed all its resources at the disposal of the British Government. Its troops took part in the various theatres of war and the contribution of the State towards the war and charitable funds in money was 41 lakhs and its subscriptions to the War Loans amounted to Rs. 82 lakhs, while the contribution from the Indore people amounted to over one crore. This assistance received the recognition of the British Government.

The area of the State is 9,902 square miles with a revenue of about one crore and thirty-eight lakhs. According to the Census of 1931 the population of the State is about 1,325,000, showing an increase of 14.5 per cent. over the Census figures of 1921.

The State now possesses one first grade College teaching up to M.A. and LL.B., 6 High Schools, 1 Sanskrit College and 600 other educational and 71 medical institutions. An Institute of Plant Industry for the improvement of cotton is located at Indore. It has also 9 spinning and weaving mills.

The strength of the State Army is about 3,000. The State is traversed by the Holkar State Railway, the principal station of which is Indore, the B. B. & C. I. Railway and the U. B. Section of the G. I. P. Railway. Besides the trunk roads, there are 600 miles of roads constructed and maintained by the State. The reforms introduced recently are the establishment of State Savings Banks, a scheme of Life Insurance for State officials, establishment of a Legislative Committee consisting of seven elected members out of a total of nine members, introduction of a Scheme of Compulsory Primary Education in the City of Indore, measures for the expansion of education in the mofussil and a scheme for the formation of the Holkar State Executive Service.

His Highness Maharaja Tukoji Rao III abdicated in favour of his son. The present Maharaja Yeshwant Rao Holkar was born on 6th September 1908. He received his education in England during 1920-23 and again at Christ Church College, Oxford, from 1926 till his return in 1929. He married a daughter of the Junior Chief of Kagal (Kolapur) in February 1924. His educational career at Oxford in England having come to an end, he returned to India arriving at Indore on the 12th November 1929, and received administrative training with Mr. C. U. Wills, C.I.E., I.C.S. He assumed full Ruling Powers on the 9th May 1930.

The Chief imports are cloth, machinery, sugar, salt and kerosene oil. The total imports in 1931-32 amounted to Rs. 1,62,12,470.

The chief exports are cotton, cloth, tobacco and cereals. The total exports in 1931-32 amounted to Rs. 56,52,036 exclusive of the exported produce of the Ginning and Pressing factories.

Cloth manufactured at the local mills is valued at over two crores and the local trade in wheat is estimated at one crore.

Cotton excise duty at 3½ per cent. *ad valorem* has been abolished from 1st May 1926 and an industrial tax is levied on the cotton mills from the same date.

Bhopal.—The principal Mohammadan State in Central India ranks next in importance to Hyderabad among the Mohammadan States of India. The ruling family was founded by Sardar Dost Mohammad Khan, Diler Jung, a Tirah Afghan, who, after having served with distinction in the army of the Emperor Aurangzeb, obtained the pargana of Berasia in 1709. With the disintegration of the Moghal Empire Bhopal State developed into an independent State. In the early part of the 19th century, the Nawab successfully withstood the inroads of Scindia and Bhonsla, and by the agreement of 1817 Bhopal undertook to assist the British with a contingent force and to co-operate against the Pindari bands. In 1818 a permanent treaty succeeded the agreement of 1817.

The present ruler of the State, His Highness Sikander Saulat Nawab Iftikharul-Mulk, Lieutenant-Colonel Haji Sir Mohammad Humidullah Khan Bahadur, G.C.S.I., G.C.I.E., C.V.O., B.A., succeeded his mother, Her late Highness Nawab Sultan Jahan Begam, on her abdication in May, 1926. He had previously actively participated in the administration of the State for nearly ten years as Chief Secretary and afterwards as Member for Finance and Law and Justice.

His Highness is the head of the Government and is assisted by an Executive Council consisting of five Members and one Secretary, whose names are given below :—

Alimartabat, James Ferguson Dyer, C.I.E., I.C.S., President of the State Council and Member, Revenue Department.

Alimartabat, Rai Bahadur, Raja Oudh Narain Bisarya, B.A., Member, Finance, Law and Justice and Public Works Departments.

Alimartabat, Nasirul-Mulk, Moulvi Syed Liakat Ali, M.A., LL.B., Member, Robkari Khas.

Alimartabat, Lieutenant-Colonel H. De N. Lucas, Member, Army Department.

Alimartabat, Rafiul-Qadr., Ziaul Uloom, Mufti Mohammad Anwarul Haq, M.A., M.F., Member, Public Health and Education Department.

Secretary.—Munshi Hasan Mohammad Hayat, B.A.

The Political Department is under His Highness' direct control, the Secretary being Ali-Qadr, Kazi Ali Haider Abbasi.

The work of legislation with the right of discussing the budget, moving resolutions and interpellation rests with a representative Legislative Council inaugurated in 1927. The raiyatwari system in which the cultivator holds his land direct from Government has lately been introduced. The State forests are extensive and valuable, and the arable area which comprises more than two-thirds of the total consists mostly of good soil producing cotton, wheat, other cereals, sugar-cane and tobacco. The State contains many remains of great archæological interest including the famous Sanchi Topes, which date from the third century B.C. and which were restored under the direction of Sir John Marshall during the second decade of the century. Sanchi Station on the G. I. P. main line to Delhi adjoins the Topes.

Among other troops, the State maintains one full strength infantry battalion. The capital, Bhopal City beautifully situated on the northern bank of an extensive lake, is the junction for the Bhopal Ujjain Section of the Great Indian Peninsula Railway.

Rewa.—This State lies in the Baghelkhand Agency, and falls into two natural divisions separated by the scrap of the Kaimur range. The area is 13,000 sq. miles with a population of 15,87,352 (in 1931). Its Chiefs are Bagey Rajputs descended from the Solanki clan which ruled over Gujrat from the tenth to the thirteenth century. In 1812, a body of Pindaries raided Mirzapur from Rewa territory and the Prince who had previously rejected overtures for an alliance, was called upon to accede to a threat acknowledging the protection of the British Government. During the Mutiny, Rewa offered troops to the British, and for his services then, various parganas, which had been seized by the Marathas, were restored to the Rewa Chief. The present ruler is H. H. Bandhwesh Maharaja Sir Gulab Singhji Bahadur, K.C.S.I., G.C.I.E., who was born in 1903. He was married in 1919 to the sister of His Highness the Maharaja of Jodhpur. Upon the death of his father Lt.-Col. H. H. Maharaja Sir Venkat Raman Singh Bahadur, G.C.S.I., on 30th October, 1918, H. H. Bandhwesh Maharaja Gulab Singh Bahadur succeeded to the gadi on 31st October, as a minor. During the period of minority the State was administered by a Council of Regency with H. H. Maharaja Colonel Sir Sajjan Singh Bahadur, K.C.S.I., K.C.V.O., A.D.C. of Rutlam as Regent. H. H. Bandhwesh Maharaja Gulab Singh Bahadur attained majority in 1922 and was invested with full ruling powers on 31st October, 1922, by H. E. the Viceroy and the administration of the State is now carried on by him with the aid of a State Council of which His Highness is the President. His Highness has got a son and heir named Shri Yuvaraj Maharaj Kumar Martand Singhji, born on 15th March, 1923.

His Highness' second marriage with the daughter of H. H. Maharaja of Kishengarh was performed on the 18th February 1925.

Dhar.—This State, in the Agency for Southern States in Central India, takes its name from the old city of Dhar, long famous as the capital of the Parmar Rajputs, who ruled over Malwa from ninth to the thirteenth century and from whom the present Rulers of Dhar—Puar Marathas—claim descent. In the middle of the 18th century the Ruler of Dhar, Anand Rao, was one of the leading chiefs of Central India, sharing with Holkar and Scindia the rule of Malwa. The State came into treaty relations with the British Government in virtue of the treaty of 1819. Lt.-Colonel H. H. the Maharaja Sir Udaji Rao Puar Sahib Bahadur, K.C.S.I., K.C.V.O., K.B.E., died on 30th July 1926. There are 13 Feudatories and 9 Bhumias of whom 13 hold a guarantee from the British Government. The population of the State according to the latest

Census figure is 2,43,521 and the average Income and Expenditure are about 17 and 16 lakhs respectively.

The present Ruler, His Highness the Maharaja Anand Rao Puar Saheb Bahadur being minor, the Government of State is carried on by a Council. Dewan Bahadur K. Nadkar is Dewan and President of the Council of Administration.

The famous and the ancient hill fort of Mandul the capital of several ancient and medieval Kingdoms, with its beautiful mausoleums, tombs and palaces and high hills and deep dales is situated in the State at a distance of 24 miles from the city of Dhar.

Jaora State.—This State is the only Treaty State in the Malwa Political Agency covering an area of about 601 square miles with a total population of 1,00,204, and has its headquarters at Jaora Town. The Chiefs of Jaora claim descent from Abdul Majid Khan, an Afghan of the Tajik Khel from Swat. The first Nawab was Abdul Ghafoor Khan who obtained the State about the year 1808. The present Chief is Lt.-Col. His Highness Fakhrud-Daulah Nawab Sir Mohammad Iftikhar Ali Khan Sahib Bahadur, Saulat-e-Jang, K.C.I.E., who was born in 1883. His Highness is an Honorary Lt.-Col. in the Indian Army.

In the administration of the State His Highness is assisted by a Council constituted as under:—

President:—His Highness the Nawab Sahib Bahadur. *Vice-President*:—Khan Bahadur Sahibzada Mohamed Serfraz Ali Khan, Chief Secretary. *Secretary*:—Mr. Nasrat Mohammad Khan, M.A., LL.B., (Aligarh). *Members*:—Nawabzada Mohammad Nasir Ali Khan Sahib; Nawabzada Mohammad Mumtaz Ali Khan Sahib Military Secretary (Military); Khan Bahadur Sahibzada Mohammad Sher Ali Khan, Secretary, Public Health Deptt.; Major P. F. Norbury, D.S.O., I.A., Private Secretary; Mr. Serajur Rehman Khan, Bar.-at-Law, (Offg.) Judicial Secretary. (Law & Justice); Mirza Mohammad Aslam Beg, Revenue Secretary, (Revenue); Mr. Serajur Rehman Khan, Bar.-at-Law, Judge, Chief Court; and Seth Govindramji, (Finance Member).

A Chief Court with a Chief Justice and two Puisne Judges has also been established.

The soil of the State is among the richest in Malwa being mainly of the best black variety bearing excellent crops of wheat, cotton and poppy. The average annual revenue is Rs. 12,00,000.

Rutlam—Is the premier Rajput State in the Malwa Agency. It covers an area of 871 square miles, including that of the Jagir of Khera in the Kushalgarh Chiefship, which pays an annual tribute to the Rutlam Darbar. The State was founded by Raja Ratansinghji, a great grandson of Raja Udai Singh of Jodhpur, in 1652. The Ruler of Rutlam is the religious head of the Rajputs of Malwa, and important caste questions are referred to him for decision. The State enjoys full and final civil and criminal powers. The present Ruler of Rutlam is Colonel His Highness Maharaja Sir Sajjan Singh, G.C.I.E., K.C.S.I., K.C.V.O., A.D.C. to H. R. H. the Prince of Wales, who was born in 1880, and educated at Daly College, Indore, received military training in Imperial Cadet Corps and invested with full powers in 1898. His Highness served in the war in France and Egypt from 1915 to 1918, was mentioned in despatches and received the Croix d'Officiers de Legion d'Honneur. Salute: 13 guns, local 15 guns.

Dewan.—Rao Bahadur Devshanker J. Dave, Advocate.

Datia State.—The rulers of this State, in the Bundelkhand Agency, are Bundela Rajputs of the Orchha house. The territory was granted by the chief of Orchha to his son Bhagwan Rao in 1626, this was extended by conquest and by grants from the Delhi emperors. The present Ruler Major His Highness Maharaja Lokendra Sir Govind Sinh Ju Deo Bahadur, G.C.I.E. (1932), K.C.S.I., 1918, who was born in 1886 and succeeded in 1907, married 1902, enjoys a salute of 15 guns. He placed all his resources and his personal services at the disposal of the Imperial Government during the Great War and established a War Hospital at Datia. He is a progressive Ruler and has created a Legislative Council and introduced many useful and important reforms in his State. He is a Vice-President of St. John Ambulance Association, a patron of Red Cross Society and has recently offered to the Imperial City of Delhi the life size marble statue of Lord Reading, the late Viceroy. He has built a hospital in the city named after Mrs. Heale and to advance female education he has built a girls' school named after Lady Willingdon. His Highness is a famous big game shot and has shot more than 156 tigers.

Orchha State.—The rulers of this State are Bundela Rajputs claiming to be descendants of the Gaharwars of Benares. It was founded as an independent State in 1048 A.D. It entered into relations with the British by the treaty made in 1812. His Highness Sir Pratap Singh, G.C.S.I., G.C.I.E., died in March 1930 and has been succeeded by his grandson His Highness Sawai Mahendra Maharaja Vir Singh Dev Bahadur, the present ruler. The ruler of the State has the hereditary titles of His Highness Saramad-i-Rajahai-Bundelkhand Maharaja Mahendra Sawai Bahadur. The State has a population of about 3,15,000 and an area of 2,080 square miles. The capital is Tikamgarh, 36 miles from Lalitpur Station, on the G.I.P. Railway. Orchha, the old capital, has fallen into decay but is a place of interest on account of its magnificent buildings of which the finest were erected by Maharaja Bir Singh Dev I, the most famous ruler of the State (1605-1627).

Dewan—Major B. P. Pande, B.A., LL.B., F.R.E.S.

GWALIOR.

Resident (Officiating)—Lieut.-Col. D. G. Wilson.

BHOPAL.

Political Agent—Lt.-Col. H. W. C. Robson.

BUNDELKHAND.

Political Agent—Lt.-Col. A. S. Meek, C.M.G.

SIKKIM.

Sikkim is bounded on the north and north-east by Tibet, on the south-east by Bhutan, on the south by the British district of Darjeeling, and on the west by Nepal. The population consists of Bhutias, Lepchas, and Nepalese. It forms the direct route to the Chumbi Valley in Tibet. The main axis of the Himalayas, which runs east and west, forms the boundary between Sikkim and Tibet. The Singalilla and Chola ranges, which run southwards from the main chain, separate Sikkim from Nepal on the west, and from Tibet and Bhutan on the east. On the Singalila range rise the great snow peaks of Kinchinjunga (28,146 feet), one of the highest mountains in the world. The Chola range which is much loftier than that of Singalila, leaves the main chain at the Dongkya La.

Tradition says that the ancestors of the Rajas of Sikkim originally came from eastern Tibet. The State was twice invaded by the Gurkhas at the end of the eighteenth century. On the outbreak of the Nepal War in 1814, the British formed an alliance with the Raja of Sikkim and at the close of the war the Raja was rewarded by a considerable cession of territory. In 1835 the Raja granted the site of Darjeeling to the British and received Rs. 12,000 annually in lieu of it. The State was previously under the Government of Bengal, but was brought under the direct supervision of the Government of India in 1906. The State is thinly populated, the area being 2,818 square miles, and the population 1,09,651, chiefly Buddhists and Hindus. The most important crops are maize and rice. There are several trade routes through Sikkim from Darjeeling District into Tibet. In the convention of 1890 provision was made for the opening of a trade mart but the results were disappointing, and the failure of the Tibetans to fulfil their obligations resulted in 1904 in the despatch of a mission to Lhasa, where a new convention was signed. Trade with the British has increased in recent years, and is now between 40 and 50 lakhs yearly. A number of good roads have been constructed in recent years. The present ruler, His Highness Maharajah Sir Tashi Namgyal, K.C.I.E., was born in 1893 and succeeded in 1914. His Highness was invested with full ruling powers on the 5th April 1918. The title of a C.I.E. was conferred upon the Maharaja on the 1st January 1918 and K.C.I.E. on 1st January 1923. The average revenue is Rs. 5,20,422.

Political Officer in Sikkim:—F. Williamson.

BHUTAN.

Bhutan extends for a distance of approximately 190 miles east and west along the southern slopes of the central axis of the Himalayas, adjacent to the northern border of Eastern Bengal and Assam. Its area is 18,000 square miles and its population, consisting of Buddhists and Hindus, has been estimated at 300,000. The country formerly belonged to a tribe called Tek-pa, but was wrested from them by some Tibetan soldiers about the middle of the seventeenth century. British relations with Bhutan commenced in 1772 when the Bhotias invaded the principality of Cooch Behar and British aid was invoked by that State. After a number of raids by the Bhutanese into Assam, an envoy (the Hon. A. Eden) was sent to Bhutan, who was grossly insulted and compelled to sign a treaty surrendering the Duars to Bhutan. On his return the treaty was disallowed and the Duars annexed. This was followed by the treaty of 1865, by which the State's relations with the Government of India were satisfactorily regulated. The State formerly received an allowance of half a lakh a year from the British Government in consideration of the cession in 1865 of some areas on the southern borders. This allowance was doubled by a new treaty concluded in January 1910, by which the Bhutanese Government bound itself to be guided by the advice of the British Government in regard to its external relations, while the British Government undertook to exercise no interference in the internal administration of Bhutan. On the occasion of the Tibet Mission of 1904, the Bhotias gave strong proof of their friendly attitude. Not only did they consent to the survey of a road through their country to Chumbi, but their ruler, the Tongsa Penlop, accompanied the British troops to Lhasa, and assisted in the negotiations with the Tibetan authorities. For these services he was made a K.C.I.E., and he has since entertained the British Agent hospitably at his capital. The ruler is now known as H.H. the Maharaja of Bhutan, Sir Uggen Wangchuk, K.C.S.I., K.C.I.E. At the head of the Bhutan Government, there are nominally two supreme authorities; the Dharma Raja, known as Shapting Renipoche, the spiritual head; and the Deb or Depa Raja, the temporal ruler. The Dharma Raja is regarded as a very high incarnation of Buddha, far higher than the ordinary incarnations in Tibet, of which there are several hundreds. On the death of a Dharma Raja a year or two is allowed to elapse, and his reincarnation then takes place, always in the Choje, or royal family of Bhutan.

Cultivation is backward and the chief crop is maize. The military force consists of local levies under the control of the different chiefs. They are of no military value.

NORTH-WEST FRONTIER STATES.

The Indian States of the North-West Frontier Provinces are Amb, Dir, Swat and Chitral. The area of the latter three is 3,000,1,800 and 4,000 square miles and population 250,000, 216,000 and 99,000 respectively.

Amb.—Is only a village on the western bank of the Indus in Independent Tanawala.

Chitral.—Runs from Lowarai top to the south of the Hindu-Kush range in the north, and has an area of about 4,000 square miles. The ruling dynasty has maintained itself for more than three hundred years, during the greater part of which the State has constantly been at war with its neighbours. It was visited in 1885 by the Lockhart Mission, and in 1889, on the establishment of a political agency in Gilgit, the ruler of Chitral received an annual subsidy from the British Government. That subsidy was increased two years later on condition that the ruler, Amen-ul-Mulk, accepted the advice of the British Government in all matters connected with foreign policy and frontier defence. His sudden death in 1892 was followed by a dispute as to the succession. The eldest son Nizam-ul-Mulk was recognised by Government, but he was murdered in 1895. A war was declared by Umra-khan of Jandul and Dir against the infidels and the Agent at Gilgit, who had been sent to Chitral to report on the situation, was besieged with his escort and a force had to be despatched (April 1895) to their relief.

The valleys of which the State consist are extremely fertile and continuously cultivated. The internal administration of the country is conducted by His Highness Sir Shujaul-mulk, K.C.I.E., the Mehtar of Chitral and the foreign policy is regulated by the Political Agent at Malakand.

Dir.—The territories of this State, about 3,000 square miles in area, include the country drained by the Panjkora and its affluents down to the junction of the former river with the Bajaur Rud. The Nawab of Dir is the overlord of the country, exacting allegiance from the petty chiefs of the clans. Dir is mainly held by Yusufzai Pathans, the old non-Pathan inhabitants being now confined to the upper portion of the Panjkora Valley known as the Dir Kohistan.

Swat.—The Ruler of the State, Miangul Gulshahzada Sir Abdul Wadood, K.B.E., is a descendent of the famous Akhund Sahib of Swat. He consolidated his rule in Swat from 1917 to 1922, and was recognized by the Government of India as Wali of Swat in 1926. The area of the State is 1,800 square miles and population 216,000. The Headquarters of the State is at Saidu Sharif about 40 miles from Malakand and connected with Malakand by motor road.

Political Agent for Dir, Swat and Chitral—L. W. H. D. Best, O.B.E., M.C., I.C.S.

STATES IN THE MADRAS PRESIDENCY.

The Madras Presidency includes 5 Indian States covering an area of 10,608 square miles Of these, the States of Travancore and Cochin represent ancient Hindu dynasties. Pudukottai is the inheritance of the chieftain called the Tondiman, Banganapalle and Sandur two petty States, of which the first is ruled by a Nawab, lie in the centre of two British districts.

Name.	Area sq. miles.	Population.	Estimated Gross Revenue in lakhs of rupees
Travancore ..	7,625	5,095,973	230·04
Cochin ..	1,480	1,205,016	83·62
Pudukottai ..	1,179	400,694	52·40
Banganapalle .	256	39,218	3·71
Sandur ..	158	13,583	1·78

These States were brought into direct relation with the Government of India on October 1st, 1928.

Travancore.—This State, which has an area of 7,624.84 square miles and a population of 5,095,973 with a revenue of Rs. 232.88 lakhs occupies the south-west portion of the Indian Peninsula, forming an irregular triangle with its apex at Cape Comorin. The early history ns Travancore is in great part traditional; but there is little doubt that H. H. the Maharaja is the representative of the Chera dynasty, one of the three great Hindu dynasties which exercised sovereignty at one time in Southern India. The petty chiefs, who had subsequently set up as independent rulers within the State, were all subdued, and the whole country, included within its present boundaries, was consolidated and brought under one rule, by Maharaja Marthanda Varma (1729-58). The English first settled at Anjengo, a few miles to the north of Trivandrum, and built a factory there in 1684. In the wars in which the East India Company were engaged in Madura and Tinnevelly, in the middle of the 18th century, the Travancore State gave assistance to the British authorities. Travancore was reckoned as one of the staunchest allies of the British Power and was accordingly included in the Treaty made in 1784 between the East India Company and the Sultan of Mysore. To protect the State from possible inroads by Tippu, an arrangement was come to in 1788 with the East India Company, and in 1795 a formal treaty was concluded, by which the Company agreed to protect Travancore from all foreign enemies. In 1805 the annual subsidy to be paid by Travancore was fixed at 8 lakhs of rupees.

H. H. the Maharaja (*b.* 7th November 1912) ascended the masnad on the 1st September 1924. During the minority the State was ruled by Her Highness Maharani Setu Lakshmi Bai, C.I., aunt of the Maharaja, as Regent on his behalf. His Highness was invested with ruling powers on the 6th November 1931. The work of legislation was entrusted to a Legislative Council established as early as 1888. The Legislature was last re-constituted in January 1933, when a bicameral body was instituted. The new Chambers, *viz.*, the Sri Mulam Assembly and the Sri Chitra State Council have a predominant elected non-official majority. Both Chambers possess the right to vote on the annual Budget, to move resolutions and ask questions. Both Chambers have also the right to initiate legislation. The elections to the Assembly are based on a wide franchise. Differences of opinion between the two Chambers will be settled bya Joint Committee consisting of an equal number of members selected by each Chamber. Women are placed on a footing of complete equality with men in the matter both of franchise and membership in the Legislature.

Local Self-Government on a small scale exists in the more important towns. The State supports a military force of 1,471 men. Education has advanced considerably in recent years and the State takes a leading place in that respect. In the matter of female Education the State has a leading place among Indian States and the British Indian Provinces. The principal food-grain grown is rice, but the main source of agricultural wealth is the cocoanut. Other crops are pepper, areca-nut, jack-fruit, sugar-cane and tapioca. Rubber and tea are among other important products. Cotton weaving and the making of matting from the coir are among the chief industries. The State is well provided with roads, and with a natural system of back-waters, besides canals and rivers navigable for country crafts. One line of railway about one hundred miles in length cuts across the State from east to west and then runs along the Coast to the Capital. More Railway lines are in contemplation. The capital is Trivandrum.

Acent to the Governor-General—Lieut.-Col. D. M. Field.

Dewan—Sir Mahomed Habibullah, K,C.S.I., K.C.I.E.

Cochin.—This State on the south-west coast of India is bounded by the Malabar District of the Madras Presidency and the State of Travancore. Very little is known of its early history. According to tradition, the Rajas of Cochin hold the territory in right of descent from Cheraman Perumal, who governed the whole country of Kerala, including Travancore and Malabar, as Viceroy of the Chola Kings about the beginning of the ninth century, and afterwards established himself as an independent Ruler. In 1502, the Portuguese were allowed to settle in what is now British Cochin and in the following year they built a fort and established commercial relations in the State. In the earlier wars with the Zamorin of Calicut, they assisted the Rajas of Cochin. The influence of the Portuguese on the west coast began to decline about the latter part of the seventeenth century, and in 1663 they were ousted from the town of Cochin by the Dutch with whom the Raja entered into friendly relations. About a century later, in 1759, when the Dutch power began to decline, the Raja was attacked by the Zamorin of Calicut, who was expelled with the assistance of the Raja of Travancore. In 1776, the State was conquered by Hyder Ali, to whom it remained tributary and subordinate, and subsequently to his son, Tippu Sultan. A treaty was concluded in 1791 between the Raja and the East India Company, by which His Highness agreed to become tributary to the British Government for his territories which were then in the possession of Tippu, and to pay a subsidy.

His Highness Sri Sir Rama Varmah, G.C.I.E., who ascended the throne in January 1915 having demised on 25th March 1932, His Highness Srce Rama Varma who was born on 30th December 1861 succeeded to the throne and was duly installed as Maharaja on 1st June 1932. The administration is conducted under the control of the Maharaja whose chief Minister and Executive officer is the Dewan, C. G. Herbert, Esq., I.C.S. The forests of Cochin form one of its most valuable assets. They abound in teak ebony, blackwood, and other valuable trees. Rice forms the staple of cultivation Cocoanuts are largely raised in the sandy tracts and their products form the chief exports of the State. Communications by road and backwaters are good, and the State owns a line of railway from Shoranore to Ernakulam, the capital of the State, and a Forest Steam Tramway used in developing the forests. The State uppsorts a force of 32 officers and 337 men.

Acent to the Governor-General—Lieut.-Col. D. M. Field.

Pudukkottai.—This State is bounded on the north and west by Trichinopoly, on the south by Ramnad and on the east by Tanjore. In early times a part of the State belonged to the Chola Kings and the southern part to the Pandya Kings of Madura. Relations with the English began during the Carnatic wars. During the siege of Trichinopoly by the French in 1752, the Tondiman of the time did good service to the Company's cause by sending them provisions, although his own country was on at least one occasion ravaged as a consequence of his fidelity to the English. In 1756 he sent some of his troops to assist Muhammad Yusuf, the Company's sepoy commandant, in settling the Madura and Tinnevelly countries. Subsequently he was of much service in the wars with Haidar Ali. His services were rewarded by a grant of territory subject to the conditions that the district should not be alienated (1806). Apart from that there is no treaty or arrangement with the Raja. His Highness Sri Brihadamba Das Raja Rajagopala Tondiman Bahadur, the present ruler, is a minor. He was installed as Raja on 19-11-28. The administration of the State is carried on by an Administrator. The various departments are constituted on the British India model. The principal food crop is rice. The forests which cover about one-seventh of the State, contain only small timber. There are no large industries. The State is well provided with roads, but Pudukkottai is the only municipal town in the State.

Acent to the Governor-General—Lt.-Col. D. M. Field.

Banganapalle.—This is a small State in two detached portions which in the eighteenth century passed from Hyderabad to Mysore and back again to Hyderabad. The control over it was ceded to the Madras Government by the Nizam in 1800. The present ruler is Nawab Meer Fazle Ali Khan Bahadur. The chief food-grain is cholam. The Nawab pays no tribute and maintains no military force. The revenue of the State is over 3 lakhs. The Nawab enjoys a salute of 9 guns.

Agent to the Governor-General:—Lt.-Col. D. M. Field.

Sandur.—The State is almost surrounded by the District of Bellary. The State is under the political control of the Agent to the Governor General, Madras States. After the destruction of the Empire of Vijayanagar in 1565 the State came to be held by semi-independent chiefs under the nominal sovereignty of the Sultan of Bijapur and in 1728 one of these chiefs, a Poligar of Bedar tribe, was turned out by an ancestor of the present Raja named Siddoji Rao of the Bhosle family of the famous Mahratta Chief Sivaji; they were Senapathies of Sivaji. In Siva Rao's time the State came under the Madras Government and his heirs in perpetuity with full powers. In 1876 the title of Raja was conferred on the Chief as a hereditary distinction. The present ruler is Raja Shrimant Yeshwantrao Hindurao Ghorpade who was invested with full ruling powers in February 1930.

The Raja pays no tribute and maintains no military force. The most important staple crop is cholam. Teak and sandalwood are found in small quantities in the forests.

The minerals of the State possess unusual interest. The hematites found in it are probably the richest ore in India. An outcrop near the southern boundary forms the crest of a ridge 150 feet in height, which apparently consists entirely of pure steel grey crystalline hematite (specular iron) of intense hardness. Some of the softer ores used to be smelted, but the industry has been killed by the cheaper English iron. Manganese deposits have also been found in three places, and during 1911 to 1914 over 223,000 tons of manganese ore were transported by one company.

Agent to the Governor-General:—Lt.-Col. D. M. Field.

STATES OF WESTERN INDIA.

Owing to the large number of States concerned and the interlacing of their territories with neighbouring British districts, the transfer of States under the Bombay Government to direct political relations with the Government of India (which was advocated in the Montagu-Chelmsford Report on the Constitutional Reforms) had been delayed. The first stage of that process, however, was carried out in October, 1924, when a new Residency was created in direct relation with the Government of India comprising the whole of the compact area making up the Kathiawar, Cutch and Palanpur Agencies under the Government of Bombay.

The remaining States in the Bombay Presidency which continued to remain in political relations with the Government of Bombay were transferred to the direct control of the Government of India with effect from the 1st April 1933. The transfer necessitated regrouping not only of the remaining Bombay States but also of some of the States comprised in the Western India States Agency. All the States and Estates hitherto included in the Mahi Kantha Agency except the Danta State are now in the Western India States Agency. These and the States and Estates comprised in the Banas Kantha Agency except the Palanpur State under the Western India States Agency now form a combined Agency which is designated "Sabar Kantha Agency." The Danta State has been transferred to the Rajputana Agency; so also the Palanpur State which was in the Western India States Agency has been transferred to the Rajputana Agency.

Resident of the First Class and Agent to the Governor-General in the States of Western India:—

The Honourable Mr. C. Latimer, C.S.I., C.I.E., I.C.S.

Judicial Commissioner in the States of Western India:—D. R. Norman, I.C.S.

Kathiawar.—Kathiawar is the peninsula lying immediately to the north of Gujarat in the Bombay Presidency. Its extreme length is about 220 miles and its greatest breadth about 165 miles, the area being 23,445 square miles. There are nearly 200 separate States in Kathiawar, which for purposes of administrative convenience is sub-divided into subordinate Agencies known as the Western and Eastern Kathiawar Agencies. The Western Kathiawar Agency comprises the Halar and Sorath Prants, while the Eastern Kathiawar Agency comprises the Prants of Jhalawad and Gohelwad but in whichever of these two Agencies States with Salutes of guns are situated, they are in direct political relations with the Hon'ble the Agent to the Governor-General. The history of the British connection with Kathiawar commences from Colonel Walker's settlement of 1807. In 1863, the States in Kathiawar were classified into 7 classes, and although classes have since been abolished, the various jurisdictions still remained graded, as fixed in 1863.

Cutch.—Before the creation in October 1924, of the Western India States Agency, the relations of the Cutch Durbar with the Bombay Government were conducted through a Political Agent in charge of the Cutch Agency, with Headquarters at Bhuj. The Cutch Agency and the appointment of the Political Agent have since been abolished and the State of Cutch is in direct relations with the Hon'ble the Agent to the Governor-General in the States of Western India.

Sabar Kantha Agency.—As stated above, this is a new group comprising the States and Estates in the old Banas Kantha Agency and State and Estates in the old Mahi Kantha

Agency except the Danta State. Before the year 1925, the Banas Kantha Agency was known as the Palanpur Agency when it also comprised the First Class States of Palanpur and Radhanpur. Of these two States, Palanpur is now in direct political relationship with the Government of India through the Honourable the Agent to the Governor-General in Rajputana and Radhanpur, through the Honourable the Agent to the Governor-General in the States of Western India. The First Class State of Idar which was included in the old Mahi Kantha Agency is also in direct political relationship with the Government of India through the Honourable the Agent to the Governor-General in the States of Western India; so also the full powered State of Vijayanagar. The group comprising the remaining minor States, Estates and Talukas which were included in the old Banas Kantha Agency under the Western India States Agency and the old Mahi Kantha Agency under the Government of Bombay has been named the Sabar Kantha Agency and is in charge of a Political Agent who is subordinate to the Honourable the Agent to the Governor-General in the States of Western India.

Bhavnagar.—This State lies at the head and west side of the Gulf of Cambay. The Gohel Rajputs, to which tribe the Ruler of Bhavnagar belongs, are said to have settled in the country about the year 1260, under Sajakji from whose three sons—Ranoji, Sarangji and Shahji—are descended respectively the rulers of Bhavnagar, Lathi and Palitana. An intimate connexion was formed between the Bombay Government and Bhavnagar in the eighteenth century when the ruler of that State took pains to destroy the pirates which infested the neighbouring seas. The State was split up when Gujarat and Kathiawar were divided between the Peshwa and the Gaekwar; but the various claims over Bhavnagar were consolidated in the hands of the British Government in 1807. The State pays an annual tribute of Rs. 1,28,060 to the British Government, Rs. 3,581-8-0 as Peshkashi to Baroda, and Rs. 22,858 as Zortalbi to Junagadh. His Highness Maharaja Krishna Kumarsinhji succeeded to the *gadi* on the death of his father, Maharaja Sir Bhavsinhji, K.C.S.I., on 17th July 1919, and was invested with full powers on 18th April 1931. The State Council consists of Sir Prabhashankar D. Pattani, K.C.I.E., as President. The other members of the Council are Dewan Bahadur T. K. Trivedi and Khan Bahadur S. A. Goghawala, M.A., LL.B., Bar-at-Law. One noteworthy feature in the administration is the complete separation of judicial from executive functions and the decentralisation of authority is another. The authority and powers of all the Heads of Departments have been clearly defined, and each within his own sphere is independent of the others being directly responsible to the Council.

The chief products of the State are grain, cotton, sugar-cane and salt. The chief manufactures are oil, copper and brass vessels and cloth. The Bhavnagar State Railway is 307 miles in length. The capital of the State is the town and port of Bhavnagar, which has a good and safe harbour for shipping and carried on an extensive trade as one of the principal markets and harbours of export for cotton in Kathiawar. Bhavnagar supports 270 State Lancers and 250 State Infantry.

Population (in 1931) was 500,274 of whom 86 per cent. were Hindus and 8 per cent. Mahomedans. The average income for the last five years was Rs. 1,34,74,796, and the average expenditure Rs. 1,11,24,783.

Dhrangadhra State is a State of the First Class in Kathiawar with a population of nearly one lakh and an area of 1,167 square miles exclusive of the Dhrangadhra portion of the Runn of Cutch. The ruler of Dhrangadhra is the head of the Jhala family of Rajputs, originally called the Makvanas. This Rajput clan is of great antiquity having migrated to Kathiawar from the North, establishing itself first at Patri in the Ahmedabad District, thence moving to Halvad and finally settling in its present seat. Being the guardians of the North-Eastern marches of Kathiawar they had to suffer repeatedly from the successive inroads of the Mahomedans into that Peninsula, but after suffering the various vicissitudes of war they were confirmed in their possession of Halvad, its surrounding territories and the salt-pans attached thereto by an Imperial Firman issued by Emperor Aurangzeb. The States of Wankaner, Limbdi, Wadhwan, Chuda, Sayla and Than-Lakhtar are off shoots from Dhrangadhra. His Highness Maharana Shri Sir Ghanshyamsinhji, G.C.I.E., K.C.S.I., Maharaja Raj Saheb, is the ruler of the State and the titular head of all the Jhalas. The administration is conducted under the Maharaja's directions by the Dewan Raj Rana Shri Mansinhji S. Jhala, C.I.E. The soil being eminently fit for cotton cultivation, the principal crops are long stapled cotton and cereals of various kinds. Excellent building and ornamental stone is quarried from the hills situated within the State. Wadagara Salt of an excellent quality with Magnesium Chloride and other by-products of salt are also manufactured in the State Salt Works at Kuda which offer practically inexhaustible supplies for their manufacture. To utilize these valuable resources, the State has recently built and put into operation a huge factory in Dhrangadhra, known as the Shri Shakti Alkali Works, for the manufacture on a large scale of Soda Ash, Caustic Soda and Soda Bicarb as bye-products of salt, and these are finding a ready market all over India. The capital town is Dhrangadhra, a fortified town, 75 miles west of Ahmedabad.

Dhrangadhra State owns the Railway from Wadhwan Junction to Halvad, a distance of 40 miles, which is worked by the B. B. & C. I. Railway. An extension of this line to Maliya is under contemplation. A railway siding has been laid from Dhrangadhra to Kuda—a distance of 11 miles—to facilitate the salt traffic.

Gondal State.—The Ruling Prince of Gondal is a Rajput of the Jadeja stock with the title of H. H. Maharaja Thakore Saheb, the present Ruler being H. H. Shri Bhagwat Sinhji, G.C.I.E. The early founder of the State Kumbhoji I., had a modest estate of 20 villages. Kumbhoji II., the most powerful Chief of the House, widened the territories to almost their present limits by conquest; but it was left to the present ruler to develop

its resources to the utmost, and in the words of Lord Reay, Governor of Bombay, by its "importance and advanced administration to get it recognised as a First Class State. The State pays a tribute of Rs. 1,10,721. The chief products are cotton, groundnuts and grain and the chief manufactures are cotton and woollen fabrics and gold embroidery. Gondal has always been pre-eminent amongst the States of its class for the vigour with which public works have been prosecuted, and was one of the earliest pioneers of railway enterprise in Kathiawar, having initiated the Dhasa-Dhoraji line, it owns the Dhasa-Jam Jodhpur section called the Gondal Railway and manages it along with the Jetalsar-Rajkot Railway and H. H. Gaekwad's Khijadiya-Dhari line; it subsequently built the Jetalsar-Rajkot Railway in partnership with other Native States in Kathiawar. There are no export and import dues, the people being free from taxes and dues. Comparatively speaking Gondal stands first in Kathiawar in respect of the spread of education. Compulsory female education in the State has been ordered by His Highness. Rs. 25 lakhs have been spent on irrigation tanks and canals, water supply and electricity to the town of Gondal. The Capital is Gondal, a fortified town on the line between Rajkot and Jetalsar.

Junagadh State.—A first class State under the Western India States Agency and lies in the South-Western portion of the Kathiawar Peninsula between 24°-44′ and 21°-53′ North latitude; 80° and 72° East longitude with the Halar division of the province as its northern boundary and Gohilwad Prant to its east. It is bounded on the south and west by the Arabian Sea. The State is divided into 13 Mahals. It has 16 ports of which the principal are Veraval and Mangrol. The principal rivers in the State are the Bhadar, Uben, Ozat, Hiran, Saraswati, Machhundri, Singaoda, Meghal, Vrajmi, Raval and Sabli. The principal town of Junagadh, which is one of the most picturesque towns in India, is situated on the slope of the Girnar and the Datar Hills, while in antiquity and historical interest it yields to none. The Upperkote or old citadel contains interesting Buddhist caves and the whole of the ditch and neighbourhood is honeycombed with caves of their remains. There are a number of fine modern buildings in the town. The famous Asoka inscription of the Buddhist time carved out on a big bolster of black granite stone is housed at the foot of the Girnar Hill, which is sacred to the Jains, the Shivaites, the Vaishnavites and other Hindus. To the south-east of the Girnar Hill lies the extensive forest of the Gir comprising 494 square miles, 823 acres and 10 gunthas. It supplies timber and other natural products to the residents of the State and the neighbouring districts and is unique as the sole stronghold of the Indian lion. The area of the State is 3,337 square miles and the average revenue amounts to about Rs. 80,00,000. The total population according to the census of 1931 is 545,152. Until 1472 when it was conquered by Sultan Mahomed Begra of Ahmedabad Junagadh was a Rajput State ruled by Chiefs of the Chuda Sama tribe. During the reign of the Emperor Akbar it became a dependency of Delhi under the immediate authority of the Moghal Viceroy of Gujarat. About 1735 when the representatives of the Moghals had lost his authority in Gujarat, Sherkhan Babi, the ancestor of the present Babi Ruler expelled the Moghal Governor, and established his own rule. The ruler of Junagadh first entered into engagements with the British Government in 1807. The principal articles of production in the State are cotton, bajri, juwar, sesamum, wheat, rice, sugarcane, cereals, grass, timber, stone, castor-seed, fish, country tobacco groundnuts, cocoanuts, bamboos, etc., while those of manufacture are ghee, molasses, sugar candy, copper, and brassware, dyed cloth, gold and silver embroidery, pottery, hardware, leather, bamboo furniture, etc. The State pays a tribute of Rs. 28,394 annually to the Paramount Power and Peshkashi of Rs. 37,210 to His Highness the Gaekwar; on the other hand, the State of Junagadh receives a tribute styled Zortalbi amounting to Rs. 92,421 from not less than 134 States and Talukas, a relic of the day of Mahomedan supremacy. The State maintains State forces consisting of Lancers and the Mahabat Khanji Infantry, the sanctioned strength of the former being 173 and of the latter 224 inclusive of Bag-pipe Band.

The Ruler bears the title of Nawab. The present Nawab is His Highness Sir Mahabat Khan III, G.C.I.E., K.C.S.I., and is the ninth in succession and seventh in descent from His Highness Bahadurkhanji I, the founder of the Babi Family of Junagadh in 1735 A.D. His Highness the Nawab Saheb was born on 2nd August 1900 and succeeded to the *gadi* in 1911, visited England in 1913-14, received his education at the Mayo College, Ajmer, and has been invested with full powers since March 1920. His Highness the Nawab Saheb is the Ruler of the Premier State in Kathiawar, ranks first amongst the Chiefs of Kathiawar, exercising plenary powers and enjoys a salute of 15 guns personal, 13 permanent and 15 local within the territorial limits of the Junagadh State. Languages spoken:—Gujarati and Urdu.

Ruler:—His Highness Sir Mahabat Khanji Rasulkhanji, G.C.I.E., K.C.S.I.

Heir-Apparent—Shahzada Mahomed Dilawarkhanji, 2nd Shahzada Mahomed Himatkhanji.

President of the Council.—P. R. Cadell, C.S.I., C.I.E.

Navanagar State, on the southern shore of the Gulf of Cutch, has an area of 3,791 square miles. The Maharaja of Navanagar is a Jadeja Rajput by caste, and belongs to the same family as the Rao of Cutch. The Jadejas originally entered Kathiawar from Cutch, and dispossessed the ancient family of Jethwas then established at Ghumli. The town of Jamnagar was founded in 1540. The present Jam Saheb is Captain His Highness Maharaja Jam Shri Digvijayasinhji who succeeded in April 1933. The principal products are grain, cotton and oil-seeds, shipped from the ports of the State. A small pearl fishery lies off the coast. The State pays a tribute of Rs. 1,20,093 per annum jointly to the British Government, the Gaekwar of Baroda and Zortalbi to the Nawab of Junagadh. The State maintains two squadrons of Nawanagar State Lancers and 1½ company

of the State Infantry. The Capital is Jamnagar, a flourishing place, nearly 4 miles in circuit, situated 5 miles east of the port of Bedi. Population 4,09,192. Revenue nearly Rs. 1,09,00,000.

DEWAN :—Khan Bahadur Merwanji Pestonji, B.A., LL.B.

Revenue Secretary
Political Secretary } Gokulbhai B. Desai, Bar-at-Law.
General Secretary

Military Secretary :—Lt.-Col. R. K. Himmatsinhji.

Cutch.—The State is bounded on the north and north-west by Sind, on the east by the Palanpur Agency, on the south by the Peninsula of Kathiawar and the Gulf of Cutch and the south-west by the Indian Ocean. Its area, exclusive of the great salt marsh called the Rann of Cutch, is 7,616 square miles. The capital is Bhuj, where the ruling Chief (the Maharao) His Highness Maha Rao Sri Khengarji Saval Bahadur, G.C.S.I., G.C.I.E., resides. From its isolated position, the special characteristic of its people, their peculiar dialect, and their strong feeling of personal loyalty to their ruler, the peninsula of Cutch has more of the elements of a distinct nationality than any other of the dependencies of Bombay. The earliest historic notices of the State occur in the Greek writers. Its modern history dates from its conquest by the Sind tribe of Samma Rajputs in the fourteenth century. The section of the Sammas forming the ruling family in Cutch were known as the Jadejas or 'children of Jada'. The British made a treaty with the State in 1815. There is a fair proportion of good arable soil in Cutch, and wheat, barley and cotton are cultivated. Both iron and coal are found but are not worked. Cutch is noted for its beautiful embroidery and silverwork and its manufactures of silk and cotton are of some importance. Trade is chiefly carried by sea. The ruling chief is the supreme authority. A few of the Bhayats are invested with jurisdictional powers in varying degrees in their own estates and over their own ryots. A notable fact in connection with the administration of the Cutch State is the number and position of the Bhayat. These are Rajput nobles forming the brothernood of the Rao. They were granted a share in the territories of the ruling chief as provision for their maintenance and are bound to furnish troops on an emergency. The number of these chiefs is 137, and the total number of the Jadeja tribe in Cutch is about 16,000. The British military force having been withdrawn from Bhuj, the State now pays Rs. 82,257 annually as an Anjar equivalent to the British Government. The military force consists of about 1,000 in addition to which, there are some irregular infantry, and the Bhayats could furnish on requisition a mixed force of four thousand.

Porbandar.—The Porbandar State on the Western Coast of the province of Kathiawar comprises an area of 642¼ square miles and has a population of 1,15,741 souls according to the Census of 1931. The capital of the State is Porbander, a flourishing port having trade connections with Java, Burma, Persian Gulf, Africa and the important Continental Ports. The State has its own Railway. The well-known Porbandar stone is quarried in the Barda Hills near Adityana and is largely exported to important places in as well as outside India. Porbandar Ghee (butter) has also a reputation of its own and is largely exported to Africa. The Indian Cement Factory of Messrs. Tata & Sons was established at Porbandar in 1912. It manufactures Ganapati Brand Portland cement which has stood keen competition. Among more recent industries may be mentioned the establishment of the Nadir Salt Works and Distemper and Paints manufacture. The State maintains a Military Force.

His Highness Maharaja Rana Saheb Shri Sir Natwarsinhji Bahadur, K.C.S.I., is the present Ruler of the State. Born on the 30th June 1901, His Highness the Maharaja was educated at the Rajkumar College, Rajkot, where he distinguished himself both in studies and sports. His Highness ascended the Gadi on the 26th January 1920 and was married next month to Kunvari Shri Rupaliba Saheb, M.B.E., of Limbdi. His Highness belongs to the ancient Rajput clan of the Jethwas, the earliest settlers in Western India and enjoys a salute of 13 guns. His Highness led the All-India Cricket Team to England in 1932. The Porbandar State ranks fourth among the States of Western India.

Radhanpur is a first class State, with an area of 1,150 square miles, which is held by a branch of the illustrious Babi family, who since the reign of Humayun have always been prominent in the annals of Gujarat. The present Ruler is His Highness Nawab Jalal-ud-inkhanji Bismillahkhanji Babi, Nawab Saheb of Radhanpur. The State maintains a Police force of 209. The principal products are cotton, wheat and grain. The capital is Radhanpur town, a considerable trade centre for Northern Gujarat and Cutch. Sami has a cotton press and 3 ginning factories. There is one ginning factory at Munjpur, one at Lolada and one at Sankeshwar which is a great centre of Jain pilgrimage all the year round. Gotarka, Dev and Trakod Lofi are also the principal places of pilgrimage for Mahommedans, Vaishnavas and Brahmins, respectively.

There are several ancient monuments in the State, *viz.*, Fatehkote at Radhanpur, Jhalore's Teba at Subapure, Loteshvara Mahadev at Loti Sankheshvara temple at Sankheshvara, Waghel tank at Waghel, Varanatha place at Waghel, Tatleshwar Mahadev at Fatehpur, Rajaypura Bhotava, Old Masjid at Munjpur, Place of Ashas at Gotarka, Mahabali Pir's Dargah at Gotarka and Nilkantha Mahadev at Kunwar.

There is also an Anath Ashram for the poor known as "The Husseinbakhte Saheba Mohobat Vilas."

His Highness the Nawab Saheb Bahadur has established a Bank named "Vadhiar Bank" to lend money to cultivators and others on easy terms, and thus save them from the clutches of the money-lenders.

Idar.—Idar is a First Class State with an area of 1,669 square miles and an average revenue of about 20 lakhs. The present Ruler of Idar H. H. Maharaja Himatsinghji is a Rajput of the Rathod clan. He was born in 1899 A.D. and ascended the gadi in 1931 on the demise of His late Highness Maharaja Sir Dowlatsinghji. His Highness accompanied His late Highness Lt.-Col. Sir Dowlatsanghji to Europe when the latter went to attenid the Coronation of His Majesty the King-Emperor in London and acted as Page to his Imperial Majesty at the Coronation Darbar held at Delhi in 1911. The subordinate Feudatory Jagirdars are divided into three classes. The Jagirdars comprised in the class of Bhayats are cadets of the Ruling House to whom grants have been made in maintenance or as a Jiwarak. Those known as Sardar Pattawats are descendants of the military leaders who accompanied Anandsingh and Rai Singh, the founder of tne present Marwar dynasty when they took possession of the State in the first quarter of the eighteenth century and to whom grants of land were made by Maharaja Anandsingh in 1741 A.D. on condition of military service. In the case of the Bhoomias are included all subordinate Feudatories who were in possession of their Pattas prior to the advent of the present Marwar dynasty. The pattas they hold were acquired by their ancestors by grant from the former Rao Rulers of the State. The Maharaja receives Rs. 52,427 annually on account of Khichdi and other Raj Haks from his subordinate Sardars the tributary talukas of the Mahi Kantha Agency and others and pays Rs. 30,340 as Ghasdana to Gackwar of Baroda through the British Government.

Vijaynagar.—The State has an area of 135 square miles with a population of 5,858 and an annual revenue of about Rs. 57,630. The Ruler is Rathod Rajput. His ancestors were the Rulers of Idar but on being driven from that place established their rule in Polo. The present Chief is Rao Shri Hamnirsinhji Hindusinhji. He was born on 3rd January 1904 and succeeded to the Gadi in 1916. The Ruler has no salute but on account of the historic importance of the family he enjoyed rank above the Ruler of the salute State of Danta in the old Mahi Kantha Agency.

GUJARAT STATES AGENCY AND BARODA RESIDENCY.

Consequent upon the establishment of direct relations between the Government of India and the Bombay States since April 1933 many States and Estates which were previously included in the various Political Agencies of the Bombay Government have now been included in a newly formed Political Agency of the Government of India designated the Gujarat States Agency. The charge of this new Agency has been added to the charge of the Resident at Baroda, who is now known as the A.G.G. for the Gujarat States and Resident at Baroda. The Political Agencies thus amalgamated were the Rewa Kantha Agency, the Kaira Agency, the Surat Agency, the Nasik Agency and the Thana Agency.

The following are the full-powered salute States now in direct political relations with the Government of India through the Agent to the Governor-General for the Gujarat States and Resident at Baroda :—

(1) Balasinor .. (Old Rewa Kantha Agency).
(2) Bansda .. (Old Surat Agency).
(3) Baria .. (Old Rewa Kantha Agency).
(4) Baroda .. ..
(5) Cambay .. (Old Kaira Agency).
(6) Chhota Udepur .. (Old Rewa Kantha Agency).
(7) Dharampur. . (Old Surat Agency).
(8) Jawhar .. (Old Thana Agency).
(9) Lunawada .. (Old Rewa Kantha Agency).
(10) Rajpipla .. (Old Rewa Kantha Agency).
(11) Sachin .. (Old Surat Agency).
(12) Sant .. (Old Rewa Kantha Agency).

The Headquarters of the Agency are at Baroda and consist of :—

Agent to the Governor-General, Gujarat States, and Resident at Baroda.—Lieutenant-Colonel J. L. R. Weir, C.I.E.

Secretary to the Agent to the Governor-General, Gujarat States and Resident at Baroda.—Major C. W. L. Harvey, M.C., I.A.

Indian Assistant to the Agent to the Governor-General, Gujarat States and Resident at Baroda.—Mr. A. W. De Cruz.

Balasinor.—This State has an area of 189 square miles, a population of 52,525, and an annual revenue of about Rs. 2½ lakhs. The Ruling Prince belongs to the Babi Family. The State pays a tribute of Rs. 9,766-9-8 to the British Government and Rs. 3,077-11-1 to the Baroda Government. The name of the present Ruler is Babi Shri Jamiatkhanji Manvarkhanji, Nawab of Balasinor. He was born on the 10th November 1894 and succeeded to the gadi in 1899. The Ruler of the State received in 1890 a Sanad guaranteeing succession according to Muhammadan Law in the event of failure of direct heirs. The Nawab is a member of the Chamber of Princes and enjoys a dynastic salute of 9 guns.

Bansda.—This State has an area of 215 square miles a population of 48,807 and an annual revenue of about Rs. 7¼ lakhs. The Ruler of Bansda are Solanki Rajputs of the Lunar Race and descendants of the Great Sidhraj Jaysing. The present Ruler Maharaval Shri Indrasinhji was born on 16th February 1888, and succeeded to the gadi in September 1911. The Rulers of the State has received a Sanad guaranteeing succession to an adopted heir in the event of failure of direct heirs. He is a member of the Chamber of Princes and enjoys a dynastic salute of 9 guns.

Baria.—This State has an area of 813 square miles with a population of 159,429 and is situated in the heart of the Panchmahals District. The capital Devgad Baria is reached by the Baria State Railway from Piplod Station on the B. B. & C. I. Railway at a distance of 10 miles. The average revenue of the State is about 12 lakhs. The Ruler, Major His Highness Maharaol Shri Sir Ranjitsinhji, K.C.S.I., is the direct descendant of the Great House of Khichi Chowhan Rajputs who ruled over Gujarat for 244 years with their capital at Champaner, enjoying the proud title of Pavapatis. The State pays no tribute either to the British Government or to any other Indian State. His Highness served in France and Flanders in the Great European War and in the Afghan War, 1919. He is a member of the Chamber of Princes and enjoys a dynastic salute of 9 guns and a personal salute of eleven guns.

Cambay.—This State has an area of 350 square miles, a population of 87,761 and an annual revenue of about Rs. 10½ lakhs. The founder of the Ruling family was Mirza Jafar Najamud-Daulah Nominkhan I, the last but one of the Muhammadan Governors of Gujarat. The present Ruler is His Highness Mirza Hussain Yavar Khan Saheb. He was born on the 16th May 1911, succeeded to the gadi on the 21st January 1915 and was invested with ruling powers on the 13th December 1930. His Highness is a member of the Chamber of Princes and enjoys a dynastic salute of 11 guns.

Chhota Udepur.—This State has an area of 890 square miles, a population of 1,44,640 and an annual revenue of about Rs. 14½ lakhs. The Ruling family belongs to the Khichi Chavan Rajput clan and claims descent from the last Patai Raja of Pawagadh or Champaner, the State being founded shortly after the fall of that fortress in 1484. The name of the present Ruler is Maharawal Shri Natwarsinhji. He was born on the 16th November 1906 and succeeded to the gadi on the 29th August 1923 on the death of his father. He is a member of the Chamber of Princes and enjoys a dynastic salute of 9 guns.

Dharampur.—This State has an area of 704 square miles, a population of 1,12,051 and an annual revenue of about Rs. 12 lakhs. The Rulers of Dharampur trace their descent from Ramchandraji of Hindu Mythology. They belong to the Solar Sisodia Rajputs dynasty. The present Raja, His Highness Maharana Shri Vijaydevji Mohandevji, was born on the 3rd December 1884 and succeeded to the gadi on the 26th March 1921. His Highness is a member of the Chamber of Princes and enjoys a dynastic salute of 9 guns and a personal salute of 11 guns.

Jawhar.—This State is situated to the North of the Thana District of the Bombay Presidency on a plateau above the Konkan plain. It has an area of 310 square miles, a population of 57,288 and an average annual revenue of about Rs. 5¼ lakhs. Up to 1924, the period of the first Mahomedan invasion of the Deccan, Jawhar was held by a Varli, not a Koli Chief. The first Koli Chief obtained his footing in Jawhar by a device similar to that of Dido when he asked for and received as much land as the hide of a bull would cover. The Koli Chief cut a hide into strips, and thus enclosed the territory of the State. The present Chief, Raja Patangsha *alias* Yeshwantrao Vikramsha, is a minor and the State is at present under minority administration. The Raja is entitled to become a member of the Chamber of Princes and enjoys a dynastic salute of 9 guns.

Lunawada.—The State has an area of 388 square miles, a population of 95,162 and an annual revenue of about Rs. 5½ lakhs. The Rulers of Lunawada belong to the historic Solanki clan of Rajputs claiming their descent from the famous Sidhraj Jaysinh of Anhilwad (Gujarat). Besides having fine patches of good agricultural land, the State contains a considerable forest area yielding rich timber. The present Raja, Maharana Shri Virbhadrasinhji, was invested with full powers on 2nd October 1930. He is a member of the Chamber of Princes and enjoys a dynastic salute of 9 guns.

Rajpipla.—This important State lies to the south of the Narbada. It has an area of 1,517½ square miles, a population of 206,114 and an average annual revenue of about Rs. 24½ lakhs. The lands are rich and very fertile and, except for a few forest-clad hills, are suitable and available for cultivation in large quantities in the south-east talukas. The family of the Maharaja of Rajpipla, Major H. H. Maharana Shri Sir Vijaysinhji, K.C.S.I., is said to derive its origin from a Rajput of the Gohel clan. Cotton is the most important crop in the State. In the hills there are valuable teak forests. The capital is Rajpipla which is connected with Ankleshwar by railway built by the State. His Highness is a member of the Chamber of Princes and enjoys a dynastic salute of 13 guns.

Sachin.—This State has an area of 49 square miles, a population of 22,125 and an annual revenue of about Rs. 4 lakhs. The ancestors of the Nawab of Sachin were the Rulers of Janjira. The founder of the Sachin family was Abdul Karim Yakut Khan commonly called Balu Miyan. In 17 4 on the death of his father Abdul Karim, (Nawab of Janjira), the Chiefship was seized by Sidi Jawhar and Balu Miyan fled to Poona where he sought the protection of Nana Furnavis, who managed to secure for him a tract of land near Surat then estimated to yield Rs. 75,000 a year. Balu Miyan was granted the hereditary title of Nawab by the Emperor of Delhi. The present Ruler is Nawab Mohamed Hyder Khan who was born on the 11th September 1909 and succeeded to the gadi in November 1930. He is a member of the Chamber of Princes and enjoys a dynastic salute of 9 guns.

Sant.—This State has an area of 394 square miles, a population of 83,538 and an annual revenue of about Rs. 5½ lakhs. The Ruling family belongs to the Mahipavat branch of the Puvar or Parmar Rajputs. The Rulers used to pay a tribute of 5,384-9-10 to Scindia. This tribute is now paid by the State to the British Government. The present Ruler Maharana Shri Jorarwarsinhji Pratapsinhji was born on 24th March 1881 and succeeded to the gadi in 1896. He is a member of the Chamber of Princes and enjoys a dynastic salute of 9 guns.

Rewa Kantha Agency.—Including the Surgana State and the Dangs.

This Agency is a subordinate Political Agency of the Gujarat States Agency. It is comprised of all the non-salute States and Estates of the Old Rewa Kantha Agency, the State of Surgana, previously in the Nasik Agency, and the petty states known as the Dangs, previously in the Surat Agency.

Rewa Kantha means the district or province situated on the banks of the river Rewa or Narmada or Narbada. This river is held in high veneration among the Hindus especially in the Bombay Presidency.

All the States comprised in the Province of Rewa Kantha are not on the banks of Narbada, for some of the Northern States, *i.e.*, Kadanas and the States in Pandu Mewas are on the banks of the Mahi river. In fact the Rewa Kantha Agency comprises territories watered both by the Rewa and Mahi Rivers.

The population consists of the following main classes: Hindus, Jains, Musalmans, Animistic Bhils, Dhankas, Kolis and Naikdas.

Surgana.—Is situated on the borders of the Nasik District.

The **Dangs** consist of a tract of country between the Sahyadris and the Surat District which is parcelled out among 14 petty Chiefs. Of these 13 are Bhils and 1 a Kokani.

The headquarters of the Agency, which is situated at the Baroda Residency in view of the fact that the Secretary to the Agent to the Governor-General, Gujarat States and Resident at Baroda is also *ex-officio* Political Agent of this Agency, consist of:—

Political Agent, Major C. W. L. Harvey, M.C., I.A.

Deputy Political Agent.—Mr. M. B. Mehta.

Assistant Political Agent for the Dangs.—Mr. E. O. Sampson, L.E.S.

Many of the States and Estates are small and only a few enjoy restricted jurisdictional powers. The four Chiefs of Kadana, Bhaderwa, Surgana and Jambughoda are however, larger and more important, the first three named being included in the list of electorates for representative members of the Chamber of Princes.

DECCAN STATES AGENCY AND KOLHAPUR RESIDENCY.

This Agency which was formed in consequence of the transfer of the Bombay States to the direct control of the Government of India includes the following States:—

Kolhapur.	Miraj (Senior).
Janjira.	Miraj (Junior).
Savantvadi.	Kurandwad (Senior).
Mudhol.	Kurandwad (Junior).
Sangli.	Ramdurg.
Bhor.	Aundh.
Jamkhandi.	Akalkot
Phaltan.	Savanur.
Jath.	Wadi Estate.

The above States have been brought into political relations with the Government of India through the Agent to the Governor-General for the Deccan States and Resident at Kolhapur, whose headquarters are at Kolhapur.

Agent to the Governor-General for the Deccan States and Resident at Kolhapur:—Lieutenant-Colonel H. Wilberforce-Bell C.I.E.

Kolhapur Agency.—Kolhapur is a State with an area of 3,217 square miles and population of 9,57,137. Subordinate to Kolhapur are nine feudatories, of which the following four are important: Vishalgarh, Bavda, Kagal (senior), and Ichalkaranji. The ruling house traces its descent from a younger son of Shivaji, founder of the Maratha power. The prevalence of piracy from the Kolhapur port of Malvan compelled the Bombay Government to send expeditions against Kolhapur in 1765, and again in 1792, when the Raja agreed to give compensation for the losses which British merchants had sustained since 1785, and to permit the establishment of factories at Malvan and Kolhapur. Internal dissensions and wars with neighbouring States gradually weakened the power of Kolhapur. In 1812 a treaty was concluded with the British Government, by which, in return for the cession of certain ports, the Kolhapur Raja was guaranteed against the attacks of foreign powers; while on his part he engaged to abstain from hostilities with other States, and to refer all disputes to the arbitration of the British Government. The principal articles of production are rice, joowar and sugar-cane and the manufactures are coarse cotton and woollen cloths, pottery and hardware. The State pays no tribute, and supports a military force of 692. The nine feudatory estates are administered by their holders, except in the case of two whose holders are minors. Kolhapur proper is divided into seven pethas or talukas and three mahals and is managed by the Maharaja, who has full powers of life and death. The Madras and Southern Mahratta Railway passes through the State and is connected with Kolhapur City by a line which is the property of the State. The present Ruler is Lt.-Col. His Highness Maharaja Shri Sir Rajaram Shahu Chhatrapati, G.C.S.I., G.C.I.E. He has a dynastic salute of 19 guns.

Janjira.—This State is situated to the South of the Kolaba District of the Bombay Presidency. The ruling family is said to be descended from an Abyssinian in the service of one of the Nizam Shahi Kings of Ahmednagar at the end of the fifteenth century. The most noticeable point in its history is the successful resistance that it alone, of all the States of Western India, made against the determined attacks of the

Marathas. The British, on succeeding the Marathas as masters of the Konkan, refrained from interfering in the internal administration of the State. The chief is a Sunni Mahomedan; by race a Sidi or Abyssinian, with a title of His Highness the Nawab. He has a sanad guaranteeing succession according to Mahomedan law and pays no tribute. Till 1868 the State enjoyed singular independence, there being no Political Agent, and no interference whatever in its internal affairs. About that year the mal administration of the chief, especially in matters of police and criminal justice, became flagrant; those branches of administration were in consequence taken out of his hands and vested temporarily in a Political Agent. The last ruler, H. H. Nawab Sidi Sir Ahmed Khan, G.C.I.E., died on 2nd May 1922, and was succeeded by his son His Highness Sidi Muhammad Khan, born on the 7th March 1914. The area of the State is 379 square miles, and the population 1,10,366. The average revenue is 8 lakhs, including that derived from a small dependency named Jafferabad in the south of Kathiawar under the Western India States Agency. The State maintains an irregular military force of 243. The capital is Murud on the main land, the name of Janjira being retained by the island fort opposite. The Nawab is entitled to a dynastic salute of 11 guns. In recognition of services rendered in connection with the war the last ruler's salute was raised on the 1st January 1918 to 13 guns personal and 13 guns local on the 1st January 1921.

Sawantwadi.—This State has an area of 930 square miles and population of 230,589. The average revenue is Rs. 6,33,000. It lies to the north of the Portuguese territory of Goa, the general aspect of the country being extremely picturesque. Early inscriptions take the history of the State back to the sixth century. So late as the nineteenth century the ports on this coast swarmed with pirates and the country was very much disturbed. The present Ruler is Major His Highness Raje Badadur Shrimant Khem Sawant *alias* Bapu Saheb Bhonsle, Raja of Savantwadi. Rice is the principal crop of the State, and it is rich in valuable teak. The sturdy Marathas of the State are favourite troops for the Indian Army and supply much of the immigrant labour in the adjacent British districts. The Capital is Sawantwadi, also called Sundar Wadi, or simply Wadi. The Raja enjoys a dynastic salute of 9 guns and a permanent local salute of 11 guns.

Mudhol.—The State has an area of 368 square miles, a population of 62,860 and an annual revenue of about Rs. 5,61,000. The present Ruler is Lieutenant Raja Sir Malojirao Venkatrao *alias* Nana Saheb Ghorpade, K.C.I.E. He was born in 1884 and succeeded to the *gadi* in 1900 when he was a minor. He was invested with Ruling powers in 1904. He enjoys a dynastic salute of 9 guns and is a Member of the Chamber of Princes.

Sangli.—The State has an area of 1,136 square miles, a population of 2,58,442 and an annual revenue of Rs. 15,37,000. The founder of the family was Harbhut who rose to distinction during the rule of the Peshwas. The present Ruler Lieutenant (Honorary) His Highness Raja Sir Chintamanrav Dhundirao *alias* Appasaheb Patwardhan, K.C.I.E., was born on the 14th February 1890 and succeeded to the *gadi* in 1901 on the death of his adoptive father Dhundiraj Chintamanrav Patwardhan. His Highness has been granted the hereditary title of Raja. He enjoys a dynastic salute of 9 guns and a personal salute of 11 guns.

Bhor.—The State lies in the Western Ghats in wild and mountainous country. It has an area of 925 square miles, a population of 1,41,546 and an annual revenue of about Rs. 6¾ lakhs. The present Chief Shrimant Raghunathrao Shankarrao *alias* Babasaheb Pant Sachiv, was born on 20th September 1878. He succeeded to the *gadi* in 1922. The honour of receiving a dynastic salute of 9 guns was conferred on him in 1927.

The following are the particulars of the remaining States grouped in this Agency:—

State.	Name of Chief.	Area.	Population.	Revenue.	Tribute to British Government.
				Rs.	Rs.
Akalkot ..	Shrimant Meherban Vijaysinhrao Fatesinhrao Raje Bhonsle Raje Saheb of.	498	92,636	7,13,000	14,592
Aundh ..	Meherban Bhavanrao Shrinivasrao *alias* Balasaheb Pant Pratinidhi.	501	76,507	4,15,000	No tribute.
Jamkhandi .	Meherban Shankarrao Parshuramrao *alias* Appasaheb Patwardhan.	524	1,14,282	8,27,000	20,841
Jath.. ..	Shrimant Vijayasinh Raomrao *alias* Babasaheb Dafle.	980	91,102	3,42,000	11,247

The following are the particulars of the remaining States grouped in this Agency :—*contd.*

State.	Name of Chief.	Area.	Population.	Revenue.	Tribute to British Covernment.
				Rs.	Rs.
Kurundwad (Senior).	Meherban Chintaman r a o Bhalchandrarao *alias* Balasaheb Patvardhan.	182	44,251	2,26,000	9,619
Kurundwad (Junior).	(1) Meherban Ganpat r a o Madhavrao *alias* Bapusaheb Patwardhan.				
	(2) Meherban Trimbakrao Harihar *alias* Abasaheb Patwardhan.	116	39,587	1,94,000	No tribute.
Miraj (Senior)	Meherban Sir Gangadharrao Ganesh *alias* Balasaheb Patwardhan, K.C.I.E.	342	93,957	5,27,000	12,558
Miraj (Junior).	Meherban Madhavrao Harihar *alias* Babasaheb Patwardhan.	196	40,686	3,23,000	6,413
Phaltan ..	Captain Meherban Malojirao Mudhojirao Naik Nimbalkar.	397	58,761	4,51,000	9,600
Ramdurg ..	Meherban Ramrao Venkatrao *alias* Raosaheb Bhave.	169	35,401	36,000	No tribute.
Savanur ..	Major Meherban Nawab Abdul Majidkhan Saheb Dilair Jung Bahadur.	70	20,320	2,35,000	Do.
Wadi Estate.	Meherban Ganpatrao Gangadharrao *alias* Dajisaheb Patwardhan Jahagirdar.	12	1,704	8,000	Do.

UNDER THE GOVERNMENT OF BENGAL.

Cooch Behar.—This State, which at one time comprised almost the whole of Northern Bengal, Assam and a part of Bhutan known as the Duars and formed part of the famous kingdom of Kamrup, is a low-lying plain in North Bengal. It has an area of 1,318 square miles and a population of 5,90,866. On the demise of the late Ruler His Highness Maharaja Jitendra Narayan Bhup Bahadur in December 1922 in England, his eldest son Yuvaraja Jagaddipendra Narayan (born on December 15, 1915) succeeded to the *gadi* at the age of 7. His Highness the Maharaja Bhup Bahadur belongs to the Kshatriya Varna of Kshatriya origin. His Highness the Maharaja Bhup Bahadur has three sisters Maharajkumaris Ila Devi (aged 19), Ayesha Devi (aged 14) and Menaka Devi (aged 13) and one brother Maharajkumar Indrajitendra Narayan (aged 15). Her Highness the Maharani Saheba is Regent of the State and the administration of the State is conducted by a Council of Regency composed of Her Highness the Regent, *President*, Lt.-Col. K. A. G. Evans-Gordon, I.A., *Vice-President*, with Sj. Jatindra Mohan Sen Gupta, B.L., Revenue Officer, Sj. Satindra Nath Guha, B.L., Civil and Sessions Judge, and Sj. Dineshananda Chakraverty, Civil Surgeon, as members.

The capital is Cooch Behar, which is reached by the Cooch Behar Railway, linked to the Eastern Bengal Railway System.

Tripura.—This State lies to the east of the district of Tippera and consists largely of hills covered with dense jungles. It has an area of 4,116 square miles and a population of 382,450. The revenue from the State is about 20 lakhs and from the Zemindaries in British India is about 13 lakhs. The State enjoys a Salute of 13 guns. The present Ruler is Maharaja Manikya Bir Bikram Kishore Deb Barman Bahadur, who is a Kshatriya by caste and comes of the Lunar race. He was born on 19th August 1908 and he is entitled to a salute of 13 guns. He succeeded the late Maharaja Manikya Birendra Kishore Deb Barman Bahadur on 13th August 1923. The Military prestige of Tripura dates back to the fifteenth century and a mythical account of the State takes the history to an even earlier date. Both as regards its constitution and its relations with the British Government, the State differs alike from the large Native States of India, and from those which are classed as tributary. Besides being the Ruler of Tripura, the Maharaja also holds a large landed property situated in the plains of the Districts of Tippera, Noakhali and Sylhet. This estate covers an area of 600 square miles, and is held to form with the State an indivisible Raj. Disputes as to the right of succession have occurred on the occasion of almost every vacancy in the *gadi* producing in times gone by disturbances and domestic wars, and exposing the inhabitants to serious disorders and attacks from the Kukis, who were always called in as auxiliaries by one or other of the contending parties. The principles which govern succession to the State have recently, however, been embodied in a *sanad* which was drawn up in 1904. The chief products of the State are rice, cotton, til, tea and forest produce of various kinds, the traffic being carried chiefly by water. The Maharaja received full administrative powers on 19th August 1927. His Highness married the sixth daughter of the late Maharaja Sir Bhagabati Prasad Singhji Saheb Bahadur, K.C.I.E., K.B.E., of Balarampur (Oudh) on the 16th January 1929 but on her death in November, 1930, married the eldest daughter of H. H. Maharaja Mahendra Sir Yadvendra Singh Bahadur, K.C.I.E., Maharaja of Panna. The State courts are authorised to inflict capital punishment. The capital is Agartala.

Political Agent:—Magistrate and Collector of Tippera (*Ex-officio*.)

EASTERN STATES AGENCY.

From the 1st April 1933 the States in Bihar and Orissa and in the Central Provinces (with the exception of Makrai) were comprised in the newly created Eastern States Agency and placed in the political charge of an Agent to the Governor General.

The names of the States are:—Athgarh, Athmallik, Bamra, Baramba, Bastar, Baud, Bonai, Changbhakar, Chhuikhadan, Daspalla, Dhenkanal, Gangpur, Hindol, Jashpurr, Kalahandi, Kanker, Kawardha, Keonjha, Khairagarh, Khandpara, Kharsawan, Korea, Mayurbhaj, Nandgaon, Narsinghpur, Nayagarh, Nilgiri, Pal-Lahara, Patna, Raigarh, Rairakhol Ranpur, Sakti, Sarangarh, Seraikela, Sonpur Surguja, Talcher, Tigiria, and Udaipur.

The total area is 59,680 square miles and the total population 71,08,736. The annual income is Rs. 1,47,67,529. These States pay a tribute amounting to Rs. 3,35,549 to Government.

Kharsawan and Seraikela.—The inhabitants are mostly hill-men of Kolarian or Dravidian origin. The Chief of Kharsawan belongs to a junior branch of the Porahat Raja's family. The State first came under the notice of the British in 1793, when in consequence of disturbances on the frontier of the old Jungle Mahals the Thakur of Kharsawan and the Kunwar of Seraikela were compelled to enter into certain agreements relating to the treatment of fugitive rebels. The Chief is bound, when called upon, to render service to the British Government, but he has never had to pay tribute. The Bengal Nagpur Railway runs through a part of the State. The adjoining State of Seraikela is held by the elder branch of the Porahat Raja's family.

The States of Athgarh, Athmallik, Bamra, Baramba, Baud, Bonai, Daspalla, Dhenkanal Gangpur, Hindol, Kalakhandi, Keonjharr, Khandpara, Mayurbhanj, Narsinghpur, Nayagarh, Nilgiri, Pal-Lahara, Patna, Rairakho, Ranpur, Sonpur, Talcher, and Tigiria have no connected or authentic history. They were first inhabited by aboriginal races who were divided into innumerable communal or tribal groups each under its own Chief or headman. These carried on incessant warfare with their neighbours on the one hand and with the wild beasts of the forests on the other. In course of time their hill retreats were penetrated by Aryan adventurers who gradually overthrew the tribal Chiefs and established themselves in their place. Tradition relates how these daring interlopers, most of whom were Rajputs from the north, came to Puri on a pilgrimage and remained behind to found kingdoms and dynasties. It was thus that Jal Singh became ruler of Mayurbhanj over 1,300 years ago, and was succeeded by his eldest son, while his second son seized Keonjhar. The Chiefs of Baud and Daspalla are said to be descended from the same stock; and a Rajput origin is also claimed by the Rajas of Athmallik, Narsinghpur, Pal-Lahara, Talcher and Tigiria. Nayagarh, it is allegged, was founded by a Rajput from Rewah, and a scion of the same family was the ancestor of the present house of Khandpara. On the other hand, the Chiefs of a few States such as Athgarh, Baramba, and Dhenkanal owe their origin to favourites or distinguished servants of the Ruling sovereigns of Orissa. The State of Ranpur is believed to be the most ancient, the list of its Chiefs covering a period of over 3,600 years. It is noteworthy that this family is of Khono origin and furnishes the only known instance in which, amid many vicissitudes, the supremacy of the original settlers has remained in tact. The States acknowledged the suzerainty of the paramount power and were under an implied obligation to render assistance in resisting invaders; but in other respect neither the ancient kings of Orissa nor their successors, the Moghuls and

Marathas, ever interfered with their internal administration. All the States have annals of the dynasties that have ruled over them; but they are made up for the most part of legend and fiction and long genealogical tables of doubtful accuracy, and contain very few features of general interest. The British conquest of Orissa from the Marathas which took place in 1803, was immediately followed by the submission of ten of the tributary States the Chiefs of which were the first to enter into treaty engagements.

The States have formed the subject of frequent legislation of a special character. They were taken over from the Marathas in 1803 with the rest of Orissa; but, as they had always been tributary States rather than regular districts of the native Governments, they were exempted from the operation of the general regulation system. This was on the ground of expediency only and it was held that there was nothing in the nature of British relations with the proprietors that would preclude their being brought under the ordinary jurisdiction of the British Courts, if that should ever be found advisable. In 1882 it was held that the States did not form part of British India and this was afterward accepted by the Secretary of State.

The staple crop in these States is rice. The forests in them were at one time among the best timber producing tracts in India, but until lately forest conservancy was practically unknown. The States have formed the subject of frequent legislation of a special character.

The States of Bastar, Changbhakar, Chhuikhadan, Jaspur, Kanker, Kawardha, Khairagarh, Korea, Nandgaon, Raigarh, Sakti, Sarangarh, Surguja and Udaipur are scattered round the Chhattisgarh Division in the Central Provinces to the different districts of which the majority of them were formerly attached.

Bastar.—This State is situated in the south-east corner of the Central Provinces. In area (13,602 square miles) it is the twelfth largest State in India and is very scattered and backward. A point of interest is that Bastar is the only State in India of which the Chief is a Hindu lady. She is the last descendant of an ancient family of Lunar Rajputs, which ruled over Warangal until the Mahommedan conquest of the Deccan in the 14th century A.D. when the brother of the last Raja of Warangal fled into Bastar and established a kingdom there. From then till the days of the Marathas the State was virtually independent, its inaccessibility securing it from all but occasional raids of Mahommedan freebooters. The Bhonslas of Nagpur imposed a small tribute on Bastar in the 18th century, and at various times for delay in payment deprived it of the Sihawa tract in the Raipur district, and allowed the Raja of Jeypore in the adjacent Vizagapatam Agency of Madras to retain possession of the Kotapad tract, originally pledged to Jeypore by a Bastar Raja for assistance during family dissensions. The dispute between Bastar and Jeypore over this land led to constant border disturbances, and was not finally settled till 1863, when the Government of India, while recognising Bastar's claim, finally made the tract over to Jeypore on the ground of long possession, on condition of payment by Jeypore of Rs. 3,000 tribute, two-thirds of which was remitted from the tribute payable by Bastar. The present tribute paid by Bastar is Rs. 18,000 a year.

On the formation of the Central Provinces Bastar was recognised as a Feudatory State. Since then the state has made steady, if slow, progress, hampered by the innate convervatism of its aboriginal population, which has from time to time rebelled. The last rebellion in 1910 was due to oppression by minor State official and dislike of the rigorous forest policy then under introduction. After the rebellion the Raja had his powers reduced and a series of Diwans were appointed by the Central Provinces Administration. The State has since his death continued to be under Government management owing to the minority of Maharani Profulla Kumari Devi.

Nearly 11,000 square miles are covered by forest of which about 3,000 square miles are reserves. Cultivation is therefore sparse. Rice and mustard are the chief crops. There is a large export of grain, timber and minor forest produce, particularly myrabolams. Most of the sal forest is leased for sleeper manufacture. There are more than 600 miles of gravel motorable road in the State. The capital, Jagdalpur, on the Indrawati river is 184 miles, by motorable road, from Raipur in the Central Provinces.

Surguja.—Until 1905 this was included in the Chotanagpur States of Bengal. The most important feature is the Mainpat, a magnificent table land forming the southern barrier of the State. The early history of Surguja is obscure; but according to a local tradition in Palamau the present Ruling family is said to be descended from an Arksel Raja of Palamau. In 1758 a Maratha army overran the State and compelled its Chief to acknowledge himself a tributary of the Bhonsla Raja. At the end of the eighteenth century in consequence of the Chief having aided a rebellion in Palamau against the British an expedition entered Surguja and though order was temporarily restored, disputes again broke out between the Chief and his relations, necessitating British interference. Until 1818 the State continued to be the scene of constant lawlessness; but in that year it was ceded to the British Government under the provisional agreement concluded with Mudhoji Bhonsla of Nagpur, and order was soon established. The principal crops are rice and other cereals.

Agent to the Governor-General: Mr. E. C. Gibson, C.I.E., I.C.S.

Secretary, Ranchi: Mr. L. G. Wallis, I.C.S.
Assistant Secretary, Ranchi: Mr. G. A. Heron.
Secretary, Eastern States Agency and Political Agent, Sambalpur: Mr. J. Bowstead, M.C., I.C.S.

Forest.

Agency Forest Officer Eastern States Agency, (Sambalpur): Mr. F. A. A. Hart, I.F.S. (on leave).

Education:

Agency Inspector of Schools, (Raipur): Rai Sahib P. H. Kataria.

Agency Inspector of Schools, (Sambalpur): Mr. H. Misra.

UNDER THE GOVERNMENT OF ASSAM.

Manipur.—The only State of importance, under the Government of Assam, is Manipur which has an area of 8,620 square miles and a population of 4,45,606 (1931 Census), of which about 58 per cent. are Hindus and 35 per cent. animistic hill tribes. Manipur consists of a great tract of mountainous country, and a valley about 50 miles long and 20 miles wide, which is shut in on every side. The State adopted Hinduism in the early eighteenth century, in the reign of Pamheiba or Gharib Nawaz, who subsequently made several invasions into Burma. On the Burmese retaliating, Manipur negotiated a treaty of alliance with the British in 1762. The Burmese again invaded Manipur during the first Burmese war, and on the conclusion of peace in 1826 Manipur was declared independent. The chief event in its subsequent history was the intervention of the British in 1891 to establish the claim of Kula Chandra Singh as Maharaja, followed by the treacherous murder of the Chief Commissioner, Mr. Quinton, and the officers with him, and the withdrawal of the escort which accompanied him. From 1891 to 1907 the State was administered by the Political Agent, during the minority of H. H. Chura Chand Singh. The Raja was invested with ruling powers in 1907 and formally installed on the gadi in 1908. For his services during the War the hereditary title of Maharaja was conferred on him. He is entitled to a salute of 11 guns.

The administration of the State is now conducted by H. H. the Maharaja, assisted by a Durbar, which consists of a President, who is usually a member of the Indian Civil Service, his services being lent to the State by the Assam Government three ordinary and three additional members, who are all Manipuris. The staple crop of the country is rice. Forests of various kinds cover the great part of the mountain ranges.

Khasi States.—These petty chiefships, 25 in number, with a total area of about 3,600 square miles and a population of 1,80,000, are included under the Government of Assam. Most of the States have treaties or engagement with the British Government. The two largest are Khyrim and Mylliem and the smallest is Nongliwai, which has a population of only 213. Most of them are ruled by a Chief or Siem. The Siemship usually remains in one family. The succession was originally controlled by a small electoral body constituted from the heads of certain clans but in recent years there has been a tendency to broaden the elective basis. The constitution of a Khasi State has always been of a very democratic character, a Siem exercising but little control over his people.

UNDER THE GOVERNMENT OF THE UNITED PROVINCES.

Three States: Rampur, Tehri and Benares are included under this Government:—

State.	Area Sq. Miles.	Population.	Revenue in lakhs of Rupees.
Rampur ..	892	453,607	54
Tehri (Garhwal)	4,502	318,482	18
Benares ..	875	362,735	22

Rampur State.—The State of Rampur was founded by Nawab Sayed Ali Mohammad Khan Bahadur in the middle of the 18th century and his dominions included a considerable portion of what is now known as Rohilkhand. The founder belonged to the famous Sayeds of the Bareha clans in the Muzaffarnagar district and was a statesman of remarkable ability. He rendered invaluable services to the Moghal Emperor who recognised him as Ruler of Rohilkhand.

Upon his death, his Kingdom underwent many vicissitudes and was considerably reduced in size during the reign of his son Nawab Sayed Faizulla Khan Bahadur. The Province of Rohilkhand had now passed into the hands of the East India Company. Nawab Sayed Faizulla Khan Bahadur was most loyal and true to the British Government to whom he always looked up for help during those unsettled days and he gave tangible proof of his loyalty when during the war against France he offered all his cavalry 2,000 strong to the British Government in 1878 and received the following message of thanks from the then Governor-General:—

"That in his own name as well as that of the Board, he returned him the warmest thanks for this instance of his faithful attachment to the Company and the English Nation."

Another opportunity arose for the ruler of Rampur to evince his steadfast loyalty and devotion to the Imperial Cause on the outbreak of the Mutiny of 1857. His Highness Nawab Sir Sayed Yusuf Ali Khan Bahadur occupied the Musnad of Rampur in those days. From the very start till peace was re-established in the country, he was lavish in his expenditure of men and money on the side of the British Government he fought their battles, saved the lives of many Europeans whom he provided with money and other means of comfort and had so much established his reputation as a good administrator that he was placed in charge of the Moradabad district. These signal services were recognised by the Government by the grant of an Illaqa besides other marks of distinction.

The reign of His Late Highness Nawab Sir Sayed Mohammad Hamid Ali Khan Bahadur stood out unique in many ways. Rampur made great strides in trade and commerce and in fact in every walk of life. He took keen interest in Education and did not only contribute handsome donations but made annual grants to the various educational institutions. He was no whit behind his compatriot in his loyalty

to the British Government. The Great War of 1914 found him foremost in offering his personal services and all the resources of the State—men, money and material—to the British Government. The 1st Rampur Infantry was sent to East Africa and returned home after nearly four years' service and won the favourable remarks of high British Officers. Besides the expenditure involved in this His Highness also participated in the Scheme of the Hospitalship "Loyalty" and contributed one lakh of rupees towards the cost and upkeep of it. His other contributions to the various funds amounted to over half a lakh of rupees and he also subscribed Rs. 7,00,000 to the two War Loans. At the time of the Afghan War 1919 the I. S. Lancers and the Imperial Service Infantry were sent on garrison duty in British India.

The present Ruler His Highness Nawab Sayed Raza Ali Khan Bahadur succeeded his father on 20th June 1930. His Highness was born on 17th November 1906 and was educated at the Rajkumar College, Rajkot. He is an enlightened ruler and takes very keen interest in the administration of the State.

Since his accession to the masnad, His Highness has introduced reforms in Judicial, Police, Revenue and Army Departments and during the short period that the reins of the State have been in his hands he has overhauled and reorganised the whole administration. His Highness is also greatly interested in education, commerce and industry and has taken practical steps to improve them. The welfare of his subjects and their advancement in every walk of life is the cherished desire of His Highness.

His Highness has two sons and two daughters. The eldest son Sahebzada Sayed Murtaza Ali Khan Bahadur is the Heir Apparent.

The permanent salute of the State is 15 guns and the annual income over fifty lakhs of rupees.

Tehri State (or Tehri-Garhwal).—This State lies entirely in the Himalayas and contains a tangled series of ridges and spurs radiating from a lofty series of peaks on the border of Tibet. The sources of the Ganges and the Jumna are in it. The early history to the State is that of Garhwal District, the two tracts having formerly been ruled by the same dynasty since 688 A. D. Pradyumna Shah, the last Raja of the whole territory, was killed in battle fighting against the Gurkhas; but at the close of the Nepalese War in 1815, his son received from the British the present State of Tehri. During the Mutiny the latter rendered valuable assistance to Government. He died in 1859. The present Raja is Major H. H. Sir Narendra Shah Bahadur, K.C.S.I., who is 59th direct male lineal descendant from the original founder of the dynasty, Raja Kanak Pal. The principal products are rice and wheat grown on terraces on the hill sides. The State forests are very valuable and there is considerable export of timber. The Raja has full powers within the State. The strength of the State forces is 330. The capital is Tehri, the summer capital being Pratapnagar, 8,000 feet above the sea-level.

Agent to the Governor-General: The Governor of the U. P. of Agra and Oudh.

Benares.—The kingdom of Benares under its Hindu Rulers existed from time immemorial and finds mention in Hindu and Buddhist literature. In the 12th century it was conquered by Shahab-ud-din Ghori and formed a separate province of the Mohammadan Empire. In the 18th century when the powers of Moghal Emperors declined after the death of Aurangzeb, Raja Mansa Ram an enterprising zamindar of Gangapur (Benares district) founded the State of Benares and obtained a Sanad from the Emperor Mohammad Shah of Delhi in the name of his son Raja Balwant Singh in 1738. Raja Mansa Ram died in 1740 and his son Balwant Singh became the virtual ruler. During the next 30 years attempts were unsuccessfully made by Safdar Jang and after him by Shuja-ud-daula of Oudh to destroy the independence of the Raja and the Fort of Ramnagar was built on the bank of the Ganges opposite the Benares City. Raja Balwant Singh died in 1770 and was succeeded by his son Chet Singh. He was expelled by Warren Hastings. Balwant Singh's daughter's son Mahip Narain Singh was placed on the *gadi*. The latter proved an imbecile and there was maladministration which led to an agreement in 1794 by which the lands, held by the Raja in his own right which was granted to him by the British Government, were separated from the rest of the province. The direct control of the latter was assumed by the Government and an annual income of one lakh of rupees was assured to the Raja while the former constituted the Domains. Within the Domains the Raja had revenue powers similar to those of a Collector in a British district. There was thus constituted what for over a century was known as the Family Domains of the Maharaja of Benares. On the 1st of April, 1911, the major portion of these Domains became a State consisting of the perganas of Bhadohi and Chakia (or Kera Mangraur). The town of Ramnagar and its neighbouring villages were ceded by the British Government to the Maharaja in 1918 and became part of the State. The Maharaja's powers are those of a Ruling Chief, subject to certain conditions, of which the most important are the maintenance of all rights acquired under laws in force prior to the transfer, the reservation to Government of the control of the postal and telegraph systems, of plenary criminal jurisdiction within the State over servants of the British Government and European British subjects, and of a right of control in certain matters connected with Excise.

The present ruler is Captain H. H. Maharaja Sir Aditya Narain Singh Bahadur, K.C.S.I., who was born in 1874 and succeeded to the State in 1931.

PUNJAB STATES.

There are 14 States of the Punjab which since 1921, have been in direct political relation with the Government of India through the Hon'ble the Agent to the Governor-General, Punjab States, who resides at Lahore.

The following are details :—

Name.	Permanent salute in guns.	Area (Sq. miles.)	Population (1921.)	Approximate revenue in lakhs of rupees.
Patiala	17	5,942	1,625,520	1,35.6
Bahawalpur	17	16,434	984,612	49.7
Khairpur‡	15	6,050	227,143	20.4
Jind	13	1,299	324,676	29.3
Nabha*	13	947	287,574	29.8
Kapurthala	13	599	316,757	37.0
Mandi	11	1,139	207,465	15.3
Sirmur, (Nahan)†	11	1,046	148,568	6.0
Bilaspur (Kahlur)*	11	453	100,994	3.0
Malerkotla	11	165	83,072	14.6
Faridkot*	11	638	164,364	18.9
Chamba	11	3,127	146,870	8.3
Suket	9	392	58,408	2.2
Loharu*	226	23.338		1.3

* Under administration.

‡ Brought under the Political control of the A. G. G. Punjab States in April 1933.

† Personal salute raised to 13 guns.

Bahawalpur.—A Native State in direct political relationship with the Government of India through the Agent to the Governor-General, Punjab States Agency. Bahawalpur is situated between the Punjab and Rajputana, Latitude 27° 41′ to 30° 22′ 15″, Long. 70° 47′ to 74° 1′ and bounded on the North-East by the District of Ferozepur; on the East and South by the Rajputana States of Bikaner and Jaisalmere: on the South-West by Sind, on the North-West by the Indus and Sutlej rivers. Area, 15,000 square miles.

This State is about 300 miles in length and about 50 miles wide, is divided lengthwise into three great strips. Of these, the first is a part of the Great Indian Desert; the central track which is as barren as uplands of the Western Punjab; has however been partly rendered capable of cultivation by the net work of Sutlej Valley Canals constructed recently; and the third a fertile alluvial tract in the river valley is called the Sind. The State is a partner in the great Sutlej Valley Project which is now nearing completion. The scheme embodies four colossal weirs and a network of canals that are gradually but surely converting the arid and bleak desert of Cholistan into a valley of smiling fields and rich gardens. It has been estimated that the perennial and non-perennial areas to be brought under cultivation by the Project would cover 14·64 and 25·82 lakh acres of land respectively. The ruling family is descended from the Abbassaide Khalifas of Baghdad. The tribe originally came from Sind, and assumed independence during the dismemberment of the Durrani Empire in the Treaty of Lahore in 1809. Ranjit Singh was confined to the right bank of the Sutlej.

The first treaty with Bahawalpur was negotiated in 1833, the year after the treaty with Ranjit Singh for regulating traffic on the Indus. It secured the independence of the Nawab within his own territories and opened up the traffic on the Indus and Sutlej. During the first Afghan War the Nawab rendered assistance to the British and was rewarded by a grant of territory and life pension. On his death his heir being minor for a time the administration of the State was in the hands of the British authorities. The present ruler is Rukn-ud-Daula, Nusrat-Jang, Mukhlis-ud-Daula, Hafiz-ul-Mulkh, His Highness Major Nawab Sir Sadiq Muhammad Khan Abbasi V. G.C.I.E., K.C.V.O., K.C.I.E., who was born in 1904 and succeeded in 1907. During his minority the State was managed by a Council of Regency which ceased to exist in March 1924, when His Highness the Nawab was invested with full power. His Highness is now assisted in the administration of his State by a Prime Minister, Izzat Nishan, Imad-ul-Mulk, Rai Rais-ul-Wozra, Khan Bahadur, Mr. Nabi Buksh Mahomed Husain, M.A., LL.B., C.I.E., K.C.A.O., BO.C.S., a Public Works and Revenue Minister, Mr. C. A. H. Townsend, C.I.E., a Minister for Law and Justice, Rafi-us-Shan, Iftikhar-ul-Mulk, Lt.-Col. Maqbool Hasan Kureishy, M.A., LL.B., C.A.O., C.H.O., a Home Minister, Amin-ul-Mulk, Umdat-ul-Umra, Sardar Mohammad Amir Khan, C.H.O., an Army Minister, Major General Sahibzada Haji Mohammad Dilawar Khan Abbasi, C.H.O., C.A.O., and a Minister for Commerce, Dewan Sukha Nand, M.A.O.

The chief crops are wheat, rice and millet. The Lahore-Karachi branch of the North Western State Railway passes through the State. The State supports an Imperial Service combined infantry, in addition to other troops. The capital is Bahawalpur, a walled town built in 1718.

Income from all sources over 70 lakhs. Languages spoken Multani or Western Punjabi (Jatki), and Marwari.

Agent to the Governor-General, Punjab States.—The Hon. Sir James Fitzpatrick, B.A., LL.B., K.C.I.E., C.B.E., I.C.S.

Chamba.—This State is enclosed on the west and north by Kashmir, on the east and south by the British districts of Kangra and

Gurdaspur, and it is shut in on almost every side by lofty hill ranges. The whole country is mountainous and is a favourite resort of sportsmen. It possesses a remarkable series of copper plate inscriptions from which its chronicle have been compiled.

Founded probably in the sixth century by Marut, a Surajbansi Rajput, who built Brahmapura, the modern Barmaur, Chamba was extended by Meru Varma (680) and the town of Chamba built by Sahil Varma about 920. The State maintained its independence, until the Moghal conquest of India.

Under the Moghals it became tributary to the empire, but its internal administration was not interfered with, and it escaped almost unscathed from Sikh aggression. The State first came under British influence in 1846. The part, west of the Ravi, was at first handed over to Kashmir, but subsequently the boundaries of the State were fixed as they now stand, and it was declared independent of Kashmir. The present chief is H. H. Raja Ram Singh, who was born in 1890, and succeeded in 1919. The principal crops are rice, maize and millets. There are some valuable forests which were partly leased to Government in 1864 for a term of 99 years, but the management of them has now been retroceded to the Chamba Durbar. The mountain ranges are rich in minerals which are little worked. The principal road to Chamba town is from Pathankot, the terminus of the Amritsar Pathankot branch of the North-Western Railway. Chamba town, on the right bank of the Ravi, contains a number of interesting temples, of which that of Lakshmi Narayan, dating possibly from the tenth century, is the most famous.

Faridkot.—The ruling family of this sandy level tract of land belongs to the Sidhu-Barar clan of the Jats, and is descended from the same stock as the Phulkian houses. Their occupation of Faridkot and Kot Kapura dates from the time of Akbar, though quarrels with the surrounding Sikh States and internal dissensions have greatly reduced the patrimony.

The present Ruling Prince, Farzand-i-Saadat Nishan Hazarat-i-Kaisar-i-Hind Brar Bans Raja Har Indar Singh Bahadur was born in 1915 and succeeded his father in 1919. Under the orders of the Government of India the administration of the State has been entrusted to a Council of Administration consisting of a President, Sardar Bahadur Sardar Indar Singh, B.A., and three members. The State has an area of 643 square miles with a population of 164,364 souls and has an annual income of 18 lakhs. The Ruler is entitled to a salute of 11 guns and a visit and return visit from the Viceroy. The State Forces consist of State Sappers and Household Troops (Cavalry and Infantry).

Jind.—Jind is one of the three Phulkian States (the other two being Patiala and Nabha). Its area is 1,268 square miles, with a population of 3,24,676 souls and an income of 25 lakhs.

The history of Jind as a separate State dates from 1763, when Raja Gajpat Singh, the maternal grandfather of Maharaja Ranjit Singh, and great grandson of the famous Phul, established his principality. He was succeeded by Raja Bhag Singh, who greatly assisted Lord Lake in 1805. His grandson Raja Sangat Singh was succeeded by the nearest male collateral Raja Sarup Singh in 1837. In the crisis of 1857 Raja Sarup Singh rendered valuable services to the British and was rewarded with a grant of nearly 600 square miles of land, known as Dadri territory. He was succeeded by his son Maharaja Raghbir Singh, who gave help to the British Government on the occasion of Kuka outbreak (1872) and the 2nd Afghan War (1878). The present ruler Maharaja Ranbir Singh was born in 1879, succeeded in 1887, and invested with full powers in 1899. The State rendered exemplary services in the Great European War. It supplied 8,673 men to the Indian Army and Imperial Service Troops and doubled the strength of its Imperial Service Infantry. The total contribution amounted to nearly 35 lakhs, in gifts of cash, materials, animals and loan.

His Highness enjoys a salute of 15 guns. The capital is Sangrur, which is connected by a State Railway with the North-Western Railway. The principal executive Officer of the State is called Chief Minister.

Ruler.—Colonel His Highness Farzand-i-Dilband Rasikh-ul-Itikad, Daulat-i-Inglishia Raja-i-Rajgan Maharaja Sir Ranbir Singh Rajendra Bahadur, G.C.I.E., K.C.S.I., etc.

Kapurthala.—This State consists of three detached pieces of territory in the great plain of the Jullundur Doab. The ancestors of the ruler of Kapurthala at one time held possessions both in the Cis and Trans-Sutlej and also in the Bari Doab. In the latter lies the village of Ahlu whence the family springs, and from which it takes the name of Ahluwalia. When the Jullundur Doab came under the dominion of the British Government in 1846, the estates north of the Sutlej were maintained in the independent possession of the Kapurthala Ruler, conditional on his paying a commutation in cash for military service engagements by which he had previously been bound to Maharaja Ranjit Singh, of Lahore. This annual tribute of Rs. 1,31,000 a year was remitted by the Government of India in perpetuity in (1924) in recognition of the splendid war record and uniformly efficient administration of the State. The Bari Doab estates are held by the head of the House as a jaghir in perpetuity, the civil and police jurisdiction remaining in the hands of the British authorities. For good services during the Mutiny, the present Maharaja's grandfather was rewarded with a grant of other estates in Oudh, which yield a large annual income equal to those of Kapurthala State. The present Ruler's titles are Col. H. H. Farzand-I-Dilband Rasikhul-Itikad Daulat-I-Inglishia Raja-I-Rajagan Maharaja Jagatjit Singh Bahadur Maharaja of Kapurthala, G.C.S.I. (1911), G.C.I.E. (1918), G.B.E. (1927) who was born on 24th November 1872 and succeeded his father His Highness the late Raja-i-Rajgan Kharak Singh of Kapurthala in 1877. He was granted the title of Maharaja as an hereditary distinction in 1911. His salute was raised to 15 guns and he was made Honorary Colonel of the 45th Rattrays Sikhs. The Maharaja received the Grand Cross of the Legion d'Honneur from the French Government in 1924, and possesses also the Grand Cross of the

Order of Carlos 3rd, of Spain, Grand Cross of the Order of the Star of Roumania, Grand Cross of the Order Menelek of Abyssinia, Grand Cordon of the Order of the Nile of Egypt, Grand Cordon of the Order of Morocco, Grand Cordon of the Order of Tunis, Grand Cross of the Order of Chili, Grand Cross of the Order of the Sun of Peru, Grand Cross of the Order of Cuba; represented Indian Princes and India on the League of Nations in 1926, 1927 and 1929, celebrated the Golden Jubilee of his reign in December 1927 with great eclat, when Their Excellencies the Viceroy and Lady Irwin, the Commander-in-Chief in India and Lady Birdwood, Governor of the Punjab and Lady Hailey, Their Highnesses the Maharajas of Jammu and Kashmir, Bikaner Patiala, Jamnagar, Alwar, Bharatpur, Rajpipla, Mandi, the Nawabs of Palanpur, Malerkotla, Loharu and the Raja of Kalsia were present, besides a very large and distinguished gathering of European and Indian guests.

The rulers of Kapurthala are Rajput Sikh, and claim descent from Rana Kapur, a distinguished member of the Rajput House of Jaisalmer. Only a small proportion of the population however are Sikhs, the majority being Mahomedans. The chief crops are wheat, gram, maize, cotton and sugarcane. The town of Sultanpur in this State is famous for hand-printed cloths. Phagwara is another important town in the State and is very prosperous on account of its grain markets and factories for manufacture of agricultural implements, and metallic utensils of household use. The situation of this town on the main railway line and the consequent facilities of export and import make its importance still greater and this is the chief commercial town in the State. The main line of the North-Western Railway passes through part of the State and the Grand Trunk Road runs parallel to it. A branch railway from Jullundur City to Ferozepur passes through the capital. The Imperial Service and local troops of the State have been re-organized and are now designated as Kapurthala State Forces. The State Troops, the strength of which was raised during the Great War, to nearly 2,000, served the Empire in that crisis in East Africa, Mesopotamia and on the Afghan Frontier. Primary education is free throughout the State, and it spends a large proportion of its revenues on its Education Department. The State also possesses a Legislative Assembly which was created by the present Maharaja on the occasion of the Silver Jubilee of his reign in 1916. The capital is Kapurthala which has been embellished by the present Maharaja with a Palace of remarkable beauty and grandeur and with various buildings of public utility. The town boasts modern amenities such as electric light, water-works, etc.

Political Officer: The Hon'ble Agent to the Governor-General, Punjab States, Lahore.

Malerkotla.—This State consists of a level sandy plain unbroken by a hill or stream, bounded by the district of Ludhiana on the north, by Patiala territory on the east and south and by the Ludhiana District, Patiala and Nabha territories on the west. The Rulers (Nawabs) of Malerkotla are of "Kurd" descent who came originally from the Province of "Sherwan" and settled in the town of "Sherwan" north of Persia, and after settling for a time in Afghanistan near Ghazni came to India and settled at *Maler*, the old capital of the State in 1442. Originally they held positions of trust under the Lodhi and Moghal Emperors. As the Moghal Empire began to sink into decay they gradually became independent. They were in constant feuds with the newly created adjacent Sikh States. After the victory of Laswari, gained by the British over Sindhia in 1803 and the subjugation and flight of Holkar in 1805, when the Nawab of Malerkotla joined the British Army, the British Government succeeded to the power of the Mahrattas in the districts between the Sutlej and the Jumna. The State entered into political relations with the British Government in 1809. The present Ruler is Lt.-Col. His Highness Nawab Sir Ahmad Ali Khan, Bahadur, K.C.S.I., K.C.I.E., who was born in 1881 and succeeded in 1908. He was created Hony. Major in the Indian Army in June 1916 and promoted to the rank of Lt.-Col. in December 1919.

The chief products are cotton, sugar, poppy, aniseed, mustard, ajwain, methi, tobacco, garlic, onions and all sorts of grains.

The State maintains Sappers, Infantry, Cavalry and Artillery. The capital is Malerkotla. The population of the town is 30,000. Annual revenue of the State is about 16 lakhs.

Mandi is an Indian State in the Punjab Political Agency lying in the upper reaches of Bias river which drains nearly all its area. Its area is 1,200 square miles and it lies between 31°-23′ North Lat.; and 76°-22′ East Long.; and is bounded on the east by Kulu; on the south by Suket and on the north and west by Kangra. It has an interesting history of considerable length which finally resulted in its entering into a treaty with the British in 1846.

The present Ruler, Capt. His Highness Raja Sir Jogindar Sen Bahadur, K.C.S.I., assumed full powers in February 1925. His Highness married the only daughter of His Highness the Maharaja of Kapurthala.

The Mandi Hydro-Electric Scheme was formally opened by H. E. the Viceroy in March this year.

The principal crops are rice, maize, wheat and millet. About three-fifths of the State are occupied by forests and grazing lands. It is rich in minerals. The capital is Mandi, founded in 1527, which contains several temples and places of interest and is one of the chief marts for commerce with Ladhakh and Yarkand.

Nabha.—Nabha which became a separate State in 1763 is one of the 3 Phulkian States —Nabha, Patiala and Jind—and though second in point of population and revenue of the 3 sister States, it claims seniority being descended from the eldest branch. It consists of two distinct parts, the main portion comprising 12 separate pieces of territory scattered among the other Punjab States and Districts, forms the City of Nabha and the *Nizamats* of Phul

and Amloh; the second portion forms the *Nizamat* of Bawal in the extreme south-east of the Punjab on the border of Rajputana; this Nizamat of Bawal was subsequently added to its territory as a reward from the British Government for the loyalty of the Rulers of Nabha. The State now covers an area of about 1,000 square miles and has a population of about 3 lakhs. The State maintains one battalion of Infantry known as the Nabha Akal Infantry under the Indian States Forces Scheme consisting of 482. For the preservation of the peace there is also a Police force consisting of about 400 men.

The State is traversed by the main and 3 branch lines of the N. W. Railway and the B. B. & C. I. crosses the *Nizamat* of Bawat. A portion of the State is irrigated by the Sirhind Canal. The crops of the State are gram, pulses, bajra, sugarcane, cotton, wheat and barley, to facilitate trade the Durbar has opened grain markets and Banks near the principal railway station within the State territory. The chief industries of the State consist of the manufacture of silver and gold ornaments, brass utensils, and cotton carpets, lace and *gota*, etc. There are some ginning factories and a cotton steam press in the State which are working successfully. In 1923 an inquiry was held into certain matters in dispute between the Patiala and the Nabha Durbars which showed that the Nabha Police had fabricated cases against persons connected with the Patiala State with the object of injuring them through the Patiala Durbar. As a result, the Maharaja Ripudaman Singh, who was born in 1883 and succeeded his father in 1911 entered into an agreement with the Government of India whereby he voluntarily separated himself from the administration and the control of the State was accordingly assumed by the Government of India. In consequence of repeated breaches of the agreement by the Maharaja, he was in February 1928 deprived of the title of Maharaja, His Highness and of all rights and privileges pertaining to the Ruler of the State, and his eldest son, Partab Singh, was recognized as Maharaja in his stead.

Patiala.—This is the largest of the Phulkian States, and the premier State in the Punjab. Its territory is scattered and interspersed with small States and even single villages belonging to other States and British districts. It also comprises a portion of the Simla Hills and territory on the border of Jaipur and Alwar States. Area 5,932 square miles. Population 16,25,520. Gross income Rs. one crore and forty lakhs. Its history as a separate State begins in 1762. The present Ruler, Lieutenant-General His Highness Farzand-i-Khas Daulati-Inglishia Mansur-ul-Zaman Amir-ul-Umra Maharaja Dhiraj Raj Rajeshwar, Sri Maharaja-i-Rajgan Sir Bhupindra Singh Mohinder Bahadur, Yadu Vanshavatans Bhatti Kul Bhushan, G.C.S.I., G.C.I.E., G.C.V.O., G.B.E., A.D.C., was born in 1891, succeeded in 1900, and assumed the reins of government in 1909 on attaining majority. His Highness the Maharaja Dhiraj enjoys at present personal salute of 19 guns and he and his successors the distinction of exemption from presenting Nazar to the Viceroy in Durbar in perpetuity. The principal crops are grain, barley, wheat, sugar-cane, rapeseed, cotton and tobacco. A great part of the State is irrigated by the Sirhind and Western Jumna Canal distributaries. It possesses valuable forests. The State is rich in antiquities, especially at Pinjaur, Sunam, Sirhind, Bhatinda, Narnaul, etc. One hundred and thirty-eight miles of broad-gauge railway line comprising two Sections—from Rajpura to Bhatinda and from Sirhind to Rupar—have been constructed by the State at its own cost. The North-Western Railway, the E. I. Railway, the B. B. & C. I. Railway and the J. B. Railway traverse the State. His Highness maintains a contingent of two regiments of cavalry and four battalions of infantry—one battery of Horse Artillery.

The State maintains a first grade college which imparts free education to state subjects. Primary education is also free throughout the State. The Durbar sanctioned a scheme of compulsory education in 1928.

Since the State has entered into alliance with the British Government in 1809 A.D. it has rendered help to the British Government on all critical occasions such as the Gurkha War of 1819, the Sikh War of 1845, the Mutiny of 1857, the Afghan War of 1878-79, and the Tirah and N. W. F. campaign of 1897. On the outbreak of the European War His Highness placed the entire resources of his State at the disposal of His Majesty the King-Emperor and offered his personal services. The entire Imperial Service Contingent was on active service throughout the period of the War and served on various fronts in Egypt, Gallipoli, Mesopotamina and Palestine, winning numerous distinctions. Two mule and one camel corps were raised and placed at the service of the British Government for the period of the War, and in addition to furnishing nearly 28,000 recruits for the British Indian Army and maintaining the State Imperial Service Contingent at full strength, contributed substantially in money and material. Again in 1919 on the outbreak of hostilities with Afghanistan His Highness served personally on the Frontier on the Staff of the General Officer Commanding and the Imperial Service Contingent saw active service towards Kohat and Quetta fronts. For his services on the N. W. Frontier His Highness was mentioned in despatches.

His Highness was selected by His Excellency the Viceroy to represent the Ruling Princes of India at the Imperial War Conference and Imperial War Cabinet in June 1918 and during his stay in Europe His Highness paid visits to all the different and principal fronts in Belgium, France, Italy and Egypt (Palestine) and received the following decorations from the allied Sovereigns and Governments:—(*a*) Grand Cordon of the Order de Leopold, (*b*) Grand Cross of the Legion of Honour, France, (*c*) Grand Cross of the Order of the Crown of Italy, (*d*) Grand Cordon of the Order of the Nile, (*e*) Grand Cross of the Order of the Crown of Roumania and (*f*) Grand Cross of the Order of St. Saviour of Greece (1926).

His Highness represented the Indian Princes at the League of Nations in 1925. In 1926, he was elected Chancellor of the Chamber of Princes (Narendra Mandal). He was re-elected

Chancellor of the Chamber in 1927-28-29-30. In 1930, His Highness led the Princes' delegation to the Round Table Conference. He was again elected Chancellor of the Chamber of Princes in 1933.

Sirmur (Nahan).—This is a hilly State in the Himalayas under the Political control of the Hon'ble the Agent to the Governor-General, Punjab States, Lahore. Its history is said to date from the 11th century. In the eighteenth century the State was able to repulse the Gurkha invasion, but the Gurkhas were invited to aid in the suppression of an internal revolt in the State and they in turn had to be evicted by the British. In 1857 the Raja rendered valuable services to the British, and during the second Afghan War he sent a contingent to the North-West Frontier. The present Prince is H. H. Maharaja Rajendra Prakash who was born in 1913 and succeeded in 1911. The main agricultural feature of the State is the recent development of the Kiarda Dun, a fertile level plain which produces wheat, gram, rice, maize and other crops. The State forests are valuable and there is an iron foundry at Nahan which was started in 1867 but, being unable to compete with the imported iron, is now used for the manufacture of sugar-cane crushing mills. The State supports a Corps of Sappers and Miners which served in the Great War. It was captured with General Townshend's force at Kut-al-Amara but the Corps was reconstituted and sent to service.

UNDER THE GOVERNMENT OF BURMA.

The States under this Government comprise the Shan States which are included in British India though they do not form part of Burma proper and are not comprised in the regularly administered area of the Province and the Karenni States which are not part of British India and are not subject to any of the laws in force in the Shan States or other parts of Burma.

The Shan States comprise the two isolated States of Hsawnghsup and Singaling Hkamti in the Upper Chindwin District under the supervision of the Commissioner, Sagaing Division, the eight petty village communities under separate hereditary Chiefs known as Hkamti Long in the Myitkyina District and the two main divisions of the Shan States known as the Northern and Southern Shan States numbering six and thirty States respectively which are under the Commissioner, Federated Shan States.

Hsawnghsup with an area of 529 square miles and a population of 7,239 lies between the 24th and 25th parallels of latitude and on the 95th parallel of longitude between the Chindwin river and the State of Manipur.

Singaling Hkamti has an area of 983 square miles and a population of 2,157 and lies on the 28th and 90th parallels of latitude and longitude respectively.

The Hkamti Long States have an area of 200 square miles with a population of 5,349 and lie between the 27th and 28th parallels of latitude on the Upper Waters of the N'Mai branch of the Irrawaddy.

The Northern Shan States (area 20,156 square miles and population 636,107) and the Southern Shan States (area 36,157 square miles and population 870,230), form with the unadministered Wa States (area about 2,000 square miles) and the Karenni States, a huge triangle lying roughly between the 19th and 24th parallels of latitude and the 96th and 102nd parallels of longitude with its base on the plains of Burma and its apex on the Mehkong river.

The population consists chiefly of Shans who belong to the Shan group of the Tai Chinese family; the remainder belong chiefly to the Wa-palaung and Mon Khmer groups of races of the Austro-Asiatic brand of the Austric family, or to the Karen family which Sir George Grievson now proposes to separate from the Tai Chinese family. There are also a number of Kachins and others of the Tibeto Burman family. The Shans themselves shade off imperceptibly into a markedly Chinese race on the frontier. Buddhism and Animism are the principal religions.

The climate over so large an area varies greatly. In the narrow lowlying valleys the heat in summer is excessive. Elsewhere the summer shade temperature is usually 80 to 95° Fahr. In winter frost is severe on the paddy plains and open downs but the temperature on the hills is more equable. The rainfall varies from 50 to 100 inches in different localities.

The agricultural products of the States are rice, pulses, maize, buckwheat, cotton, sessamum, groundnuts, oranges and pineapples.

Land is held chiefly on communal tenure but unoccupied land is easily obtainable on lease from the Chiefs in accordance with special rules for non-natives of the States. Great spaces of the States are suitable for cattle, pony and mule breeding and in the Northern States Chinese settlers appear to have found the latter a very paying proposition.

The mineral resources of the States are still unexplored. The Burma Corporation have a concession for silver, copper, lead and zinc in the Northern States which they claim to be the richest in the world. The Mawson area in the Southern States is also rich in lead. Lignite and iron ore of a low grade are found in many places.

Lashio, the headquarters of the Northern Shan States, is the terminus of the Myohaung-Lashio Branch of the Burma Railways (178 miles) and is also connected with Mandalay by a cart road

The Burma Corporation's narrow-gauge private railway track 46 miles long connects their Bawdwin mine with the Burma Railways system at Namyao.

The Southern Shan States are served by the Burma Railways branch line Thazi to Heho (37 miles) which has recently been extended to Tayaw in the Yawnghwe plain.

Taunggyi, the headquarters of the Southern Shan States, is connected with Thazi by a well-graded motor road. The States vary much in size and importance. The largest State is Kengtung with an area of 12,400 square miles and population 225,894.

Hsipaw with an area of 4,400 square miles and population 148,731 is the richest State with a gross revenue of Rs. 10,62,418.

The Sawbwas of Kengtung, Hsipaw and Yawnghwe and Mongnai have salutes of nine guns while the Mong Mit Sawbwa has a personal salute of the same number.

Administration.

Under the Burma Laws Act, 1898, the Civil, Criminal and Revenue administration of every Shan State is vested in the Chief of the State subject to the restrictions specified in the sanad of appointment granted to him and under the same Act the law to be administered in each State is the customary law of the State so far as it is in accordance with justice, equity and good conscience and not opposed to the law in force in the rest of British India. The customary law may be modified by the Governor who has also power to appoint officers to take part in the administration of any State and to regulate the powers and proceedings of such officers. The Chiefs are bound by their sanads to follow the advice of the Superintendents appointed but subject to certain modifications which have been made in the customary law relating to criminal and civil justice have more or less maintained the semi-independent status which was found existing at the annexation of Upper Burma.

In 1920, Sir Reginald Craddock, Lieutenant-Governor of Burma, proposed a scheme for the sanction of the Secretary of State under which the Chiefs of the Northern and Southern Shan States have agreed to federalise the departments of Government in which they had been previously largely dependent on contributions from the Provincial Funds. Under this scheme no interference is contemplated in the internal management of the States and the Chiefs continue to collect their taxes and be responsible for law and order, maintain Courts for the disposal of criminal and civil cases, appoint their own officials and control their own subjects under the advice of the Superintendents. But the Federation is responsible for the centralised Departments of Public Works, Medical, Forests, Education, Agriculture and to a small extent Police. In place of the individual tribute formerly paid by them the Chiefs contribute to the Federation a proportion of their revenue which amounts roughly to the expenditure hitherto incurred by them on the heads of administration now centralised while the Provincial Government surrenders to the Federation all provincial revenue previously derived from the States and makes an annual contribution to enable it to maintain its services at the same degree of efficiency formerly enjoyed. The Federation on the other hand pays a fixed proportion of its revenue to the Provincial Treasury as tribute in place of the individual contributions of the Chiefs. Under this scheme the Federation is a sub-entity of the Burma Government, is self-contained and responsible for its own progress. The Chiefs express their views on Federal and general matters through a Council of Chiefs consisting of all Chiefs of the rank of Sawbwa and four elected representatives of the lesser Chiefs. The Superintendents, Northern Shan States and the Commissioner of the Federated Shan States to whom the supervision of the Federation has been entrusted are *ex-officio* members of the Council. The scheme was sanctioned and brought into force with effect from October 1922. The first meeting of the Council of Chiefs was formally opened by His Excellency the Governor Sir Spencer Harcourt Butler, G.C.I.E., K.C.S.I., I.C.S., in March 1923.

Karenni.

This district which formerly consisted of five States now consists of three as two have been amalgamated with others. It has a total area of 3,015 square miles and a population of 58,761. It lies on the south of the Southern Shan States between Siam and the British district of Toungoo. The largest State is Kantarawadi with an area of 3,000 square miles and a population of 30,677 and a revenue of nearly 1½ lakhs of rupees. More than half of the inhabitants are Red Karens. An Assistant Political Officer is posted at Loikaw subject to the supervision of the Superintendent, Southern Shan States, who exercises in practice much the same control over the Chiefs as is exercised in the Shan States though nominally they are more independent than their Shan neighbours. Mineral and forest rights however in Karenni belong to the Chiefs and not to the Government. In the past substantial contributions from Provincial revenues have been made to the Karenni Chiefs for education and medical service. The Chiefs are at present unwilling to surrender their special rights and join the Shan States Federation though very considerable advantages might accrue from their doing so.

The principal wealth of the country used to be in its teak timber and a large alien population was at one time supported by the timber trade. This has largely declined in the last few years and unless the Chiefs are prepared to deny themselves and close their forests they will soon disappear.

JAMMU AND KASHMIR STATE.

The territory known generally as the Jammu and Kashmir State lies between 32° and 37° N. and 73° and 80° E. It is an almost entirely mountainous region with a strip of level land along the Punjab Border, and its mountains, valleys and lakes comprise some of the grandest scenery in the world. The State may be divided physically into three areas: the upper, comprising the area drained by the River Indus and its tributaries; the middle, drained by the Jhelum and Kishenganga Rivers; and the lower area, consisting of the level strip along the southern border, and its adjacent ranges of hills. The dividing lines between the three areas are the snow-bound inner and outer Himalayan ranges known as the Zojila and the Panchal. The area of the State is 84,258 square miles. Beginning in the south where the great plain of the Punjab ends, it extends northwards to the high Karakoram mountains "Where three Empires Meet."

Briefly described, the State comprises the valleys of the three great rivers of Northern India, *viz.*, the upper reaches of the Chenab and the Jhelum, and the middle reaches of the Indus. The total population is 3,220,518 souls.

History.—Various historians and poets have left more or less trustworthy records of the history of the Valley of Kashmir and the adjacent regions. In 1586 it was annexed to the Moghul Empire by Akbar. Srinagar, the Capital, originally known as Pravarapura, had by then been long established though many of the fine buildings said to have been erected by early Hindu rulers had been destroyed by the Muhammadans who first penetrated into the Valley in the fourteenth century. In the reign of Sikandar, who was a contemporary of Tamer lane, a large number of Hindus was converted to Islam. Jehangir did much to beautify the Valley but after Aurangzeb there was a period of disorder and decay and by the middle of the eighteenth century the Suba or Governor of Kashmir had become practically independent of Delhi. Thereafter the country experienced the oppression of Afghan rule until it was rescued in 1819 by an army sent by Maharaja Ranjit Singh. The Sikh rule was less oppressive than that of the Afghans. The early history of the State as at present constituted is that of Maharaja Shri Gulab Singhji, a scion of the old Ruling Family of Jammu, who rose to eminence in the service of Maharaja Ranjit Singh of Lahore and was, in recognition of his distinguished services, made Raja of Jammu in 1820. He held aloof from the war between the British and the Sikhs, only appearing as mediator after the battle of Sobraon (1846), when the British made over to him the valley of Kashmir and certain other areas in return for his services in re-establishing peace. His son, His Highness Maharaja Ranbir Singhji, G.C.S.I., G.C.I.E., a model Hindu and one of the staunchest allies of the British Government, ruled from 1857 to 1885. He did much to consolidate his possessions and evolve order in the frontier districts. He was succeeded by his eldest son His Highness Maharaja Sir Pratap Singhji, G.C.S.I., G.C.I.E., G.B.E., who died on 23rd December 1925 and was succeeded by His Highness the present Maharaja Shri Harisinghji Bahadur.

The most notable reform effected in the State during the reign of the late Maharaja was the Land Revenue Settlement originally carried out under Lawrence and revised from time to time.

Administration.—For some years after the accession to the *gadi* of the late Maharaja, the administration of the State was conducted by a Council over which the Maharaja presided. In 1905 this Council was abolished and the administration of the State was thenceforward carried on by His Highness the Maharaja with the help of a Chief Minister and a number of Ministers in charge of different portfolios. This system continued until the 24th January 1922 when an Executive Council was inaugurated. Very recently, certain modifications have been introduced in the Constitution as a result of which the contact of His Highness with the administration of the State has become more direct and intimate.

The British Resident has his headquarters at Srinagar and Sialkot and there is also a Political Agent at Gilgit. A British Officer is stationed at Leh to assist in the supervision of the Central Asian Trade with India which passes through Kashmir.

In the Dogras the State has splendid material for the Army which consists of 7,798 troops. Besides this, thousands of Dogras serve in the Indian Army.

Finance.—The financial position of the State is strong. The total revenue including jagirs, is about Rs. 2,70,00,000; the chief sources being land, forests, customs and excise and Sericulture. There is a big reserve and no debt.

Production and Industry.—The population is pre-eminently agricultural and pastoral. The principal food crops are rice, maize and wheat. Oilseed is also an important crop. Barley, cotton, saffron, tobacco, beans, walnuts, almonds and hops are also grown. Pears and apples, the principal fruits of the Valley, are exported in large quantities. The State forests are extensive and valuable. The principal species of timber trees are deodar, blue pine and fir. The most valuable forests occur in Kishtwar, Karnah and Kamraj Ilaqas. A survey of the mineral resources of the State is being conducted under an expert. The most noteworthy of the minerals are bauxite, coal, fuller's earth, kaolino, slate, zinc, copper and talc. Gold is found in Baltistan and Gilgit, sapphires in Paddar, aquamarines in Skardu and lead in Uri. The silk filature in Srinagar is the largest of its kind in the world. Manufacture of silk is a very ancient industry in Kashmir. Zain-ul-Abidin who ruled from 1421 to 1472 is said to have imported silk weavers from Khurasan and settled them here. Woollen cloth, shawls, papier-mâché and wood carving of the State are world-famous. The State participated in the British Empire Exhibition of 1924. The Kashmir Court was styled "The Gem of The Smaller Courts" and attracted many visitors.

Communications.—Great efforts have been made and are being made towards the improvement of roads for wheeled traffic in the State. The Jhelum Valley road (196 miles) which links the Kashmir Valley with the Punjab and the North-Western Frontier Province is considered to be one of the finest motorable mountain roads in the world.

The Banihal Cart Road, 205 miles long, which has recently been completed, joins Kashmir with the North Western Railway system at Jammu-Tawi and is also a fine motorable road.

Roads for pack animals lead from Srinagar, the summer capital of Kashmir, to the frontier districts of Gilgit and Ladakh. Internal village communications have also been much improved.

The Jammu-Suchetgarh Railway, a section of the Wazirabad-Sialkot branch line of the North Western Railway system, is the only Railway in the State. The mountainous nature of the country has made the extension of the line into the heart of the State so far impracticable.

Public Works.—In 1904 a flood spill channel above Srinagar was constructed to minimise the constant danger of floods in the River Jhelum and it was hoped that the danger would be still further reduced by the carrying out of a scheme for lowering a part of the bed of the River Jhelum by dredging, which has been taken in hand. It is interesting to know that dredging operations were once before carried out in the reign of Avantivarman (A.D. 855-883) by his engineer Suyya near Sopore, with the same object. Good progress has been made with irrigation but the most important scheme of recent years has been the installation of a large Electric Power Station on the Jhelum River at Mahora which was completed in 1907.

Education.—Of the total population of 3,259,527 excluding the frontier ilaqas where literacy is not recorded, there are 72,228 persons who are able to read and write, of whom 4,007 only are females. In other words, 26 out of every 1,000 persons aged five or more can read and write. Among males 46 in every 1,000 are literate. The number of educational institutions including two Arts Colleges and two technical institutes is 784 and is being steadily increased. In municipal areas education for boys has been made compulsory from 1929. Much progress has also been made in female education and two new girls' schools have been established during the year.

Reforms.—The most important reforms connected with the present Maharaja's reign have been the establishment of an independent High Court of Judicature modelled on British High Courts and the annual summoning of representatives from the provinces as a beginning of popular institutions in the State. Important legislative measures passed by His Highness' Government in recent years include the raising of the age of consent to 14 for girls and 18 for boys and the Agriculturists' Relief Regulation meant to cope with the problem of rural indebtedness.

THE CHAMBER OF PRINCES.

The Narendra Mandal, or Chamber of Princes came into existence, with the earnest co-operation of a number of leading Princes themselves as one of the results of the Report on Indian constitutional reform presented to Parliament by Mr. Montagu, Secretary of State for India and H. E. Lord Chelmsford, Viceroy and Governor-General of India, in 1919. The proposal was that the Chamber should exist as a permanent consultative body, with the Viceroy as President and the members composing the Chamber consisting mainly of the Princes and Chiefs having salutes, or whose membership might otherwise be considered desirable by the Viceroy. Certain smaller Chiefs were grouped and were given the privilege of nominating a member to represent them from year to year. The Chamber is a recommendatory body, which performs its functions under a constitution approved by the Secretary of State and it deals with questions submitted to it concerning the Princes and their rights and privileges generally and their position in imperial affairs.

The Chamber was formally inaugurated by H.R. H. the Duke of Connaught on 8th February 1921. It meets regularly once a year and the agenda of subjects for discussion is framed and proposed by the Chancellor of the Chamber who at present is His Highness the Maharajah of Patiala. The Chamber selects by vote its own officers, who are the Chancellor, a pro-Chancellor to act for him in his absence out of India and a Standing Committee of the Chamber. This Committee considers before the annual meetings the subjects to be discussed at them.

Until 1929, the proceedings of the Chamber were considered as confidential and there was no admittance of the general public to its meetings. At the annual session in February 1929, the Princes passed a resolution by which all meetings were ordinarily made open to the public. The Chamber contains very restricted accommodation and admission has to be regulated according to the number of seats available.

Indian States' Tribute.

Many of the States pay tribute, varying in amount according to the circumstances of each case, to the British Government. This tribute is frequently due to exchanges of territory or settlement of claims between the Governments, but is chiefly in lieu of former obligations to supply or maintain troops. The actual annual receipts in the form of tribute and contributions from Indian States are summarised in the following table. The relations of the States to one another in respect of tributes are complicated, and it would serve no useful purpose to enter upon the question. It may, however, be mentioned that a large number of the States of Kathiawar and Gujarat pay tribute of some kind to Baroda, and that Gwalior claims tribute from some of the smaller States of Central India :—

States paying tribute directly to the Government of India.

	£
Tribute from Jaipur	26,667
„ „ Kotah	15,648
„ „ Udaipur	13,333
„ „ Jodhpur	6,533
„ „ Bundi	8,000
„ „ Other States	15,170
Contribution of Jodhpur towards cost of Erinpura Irregular Force	7,667
„ of Kotah towards cost of Deohi Irregular Force	13,333
„ of Bhopal towards cost of Bhopal Levy	10,753
„ of Jaora towards cost of United Malwa Contingent	9,142
Contributions towards cost of Malwa Bhil Corps	2,280
Central Provinces and Berar.	
Tribute from various States	15,696
Burma.	
Tributes from Shan States	28,524
„ „ other States	1,367
Assam.	
Tribute from Manipur	333
„ „ Rambrai	7
Bengal.	
Tribute from Cooch Behar	4,514
United Provinces.	
Tribute from Benares	14,000
Punjab.	
Tribute from Mandi	6,667
„ „ other States	3,086
Madras.	
Tribute from Travancore	53,333
Peshkash and subsidy from Mysore	233,333
„ „ „ „ Cochin	13,333
„ „ „ „ Travancore	888
Bombay.	
Tribute from Kathiawar	31,129
„ „ various petty States	2,825
Contribution from Baroda States	25,000
„ „ Jagirdars, Southern Mahratta Country	5,765
Tribute from Cutch	5,484

It was announced at the Coronation Durbar of 1911 that there would in future be no Nazarana payments on successions.

Foreign Possessions in India.

Portugal and France both hold small territorial possessions in the Indian Peninsula.

The Portuguese possessions in India, all of which are situated within the limits of Bombay Presidency, consist of the Province of Goa on the Arabian Sea Coast; the territory of Daman with the small territory called Pragana-Nagar-Avely on the Gujarat Coast, at the entrance to the Gulf of Cambay; and the little island of Diu, with two places called Gogla and Simbor, on the southern extremity of the Kathiawar Peninsula. All these three territories constitute what is called the State of India.

GOA.

Goa forms a compact block of territory surrounded by British districts. Savantwadi State lies to the north of it, the Arabian Sea on the west and North Kanara on the south, and the eastern boundary is the range of the Western Ghats, which separates it from the British districts of Belgaum and North Kanara. The extreme length from north to south is 62 miles and the greatest breadth from east to west 40 miles. The territory has a total area of 1,301 square miles and consists of the *Velhas Conquistas*, or Old Conquests, comprising the island of Goa, acquired by the Portuguese in 1510, and the neighbouring municipalities of Salsette, Bardez, and Mormugao acquired in 1543; and of the *Novas Conquistas*, or New Conquests, comprising the municipalities of Pernem, Sanquelim, Ponda, Quepem, Canacona, Satari and Sanguem acquired in the latter half of the 18th century. The small island of Angediva situated opposite the port of Karwar, in the British district of North Kanara, forms administratively a portion of the Canacona municipality. This was acquired in 1505. The whole country is hilly, especially the eastern portion, the predominating physical feature being the Western Ghats, which besides bounding the country along the north-east and south-east, just off westward and spread across the country in a succession of spurs and ridges. There are several conspicuous isolated peaks, of which the highest, Sonsagar, is 3,827 feet high.

The country is intersected by numerous rivers running westward from the Ghats, and the principal eight, which are all navigable, are in size of some importance. Goa possesses a fine harbour, formed by the promontories of Bardez and Salsette. Half-way between these extremities lies the *cabo*, or cape, which forms the extremity of the island of Goa. This divides the whole bay into two anchorages, known as Aguada and Mormugao. Both are capable of accommodating the largest shipping from September to May, but Aguada is virtually closed during the south-west monsoon, owing to the high winds and sea and to the formation of sand bars across the estuary of the Mandovi river, which opens into Aguada. Mormugao is accessible at all times and is therefore the harbour of commercial importance. It is the terminus of the railway running to the coast from the inland British system of lines. A breakwater and port have been built there and the trade is considerable being chiefly transit trade from British territory. The international transit of Mormugao port was in 1926 about Rs. 440 lakhs.

The People.

The total population of Goa was 531,952 at the census of 1921. This gives a density of 408 persons to the square mile and the population showed an increase of 9 per cent. since the census ten years previously. In the Velhas Conquistas the majority of the population is Christian. In the Novas Conquistas Hindus are more numerous than Christians. The Moslems in the territory are numbered in a few thousands. The Christians still very largely adhere to caste distinctions, claiming to be Brahmans, Charados and low castes, which do not intermarry. The Hindus who form about one-half of the total population are largely Maratha and do not differ from those of the adjacent, Konkan districts of Bombay. All classes of the people, with the exception of Europeans, use the Konkani dialect of Marathi with some admixture of Portuguese words. The official language is Portuguese, which is commonly spoken in the capital and the principal towns as well as by all educated people. Nearly all the Christians profess the Roman Catholic religion and are spiritually subject to an archbishop who has the titles of Primate of the East and Patriarch of the East Indies and exercises ecclesiastical jurisdiction also over a portion of British India, and the provinces of Macau (China) and Timor (Oceania), with missions in foreign countries and Mocambique (Portuguese East Africa). The Christians of Daman and Diu are subject under a new Treaty signed in 1928 between Portugal and the Holy See to the Archbishop of Goa. There are numerous churches in Goa, mostly built by the Jesuits and Franciscans prior to the extinction of the religious orders in Portuguese territory. The churches are in charge of secular priests. Hindus and Mahomedans now enjoy perfect freedom in religious matters and have their own places of worship. In the early days of Portuguese rule the worship of Hindu gods in public and the observance of Hindu usages were strictly forbidden and rigorously suppressed.

The Country.

A little over one-third of the entire territory of Goa is stated to be under cultivation. The fertility of the soil varies considerably according to quality, situation and water-supply. The Velhas Conquistas are as a rule better and more intensively cultivated than the Novas Conquistas. In both these divisions a holding of fifteen or sixteen acres would be considered a good sized farm but the majority of holdings are of much smaller extent varying from half an acre to five or six acres. The staple produce of the country is rice, of which there are two good harvests, but the quantity produced is barely sufficient to meet the needs of the population for two-thirds of the year. Next to rice, the culture of cocoanut palms is deemed most important, from the variety of uses to which the products are applied. Hilly places and inferior

soils are set apart for the cultivation of cereals and several kinds of fruits and vegetables are cultivated to an important extent. The condition of the agricultural classes in the Velhas Conquistas has improved during recent years, owing to the general rise in the prices of all classes of agricultural produce and partly to the current of emigration to British territory. There is a great shortage of agricultural labour in the Velhas Conquistas, and the cultivation of rice fields is now practically controlled by the Hindu population. In the summer months bands of artisans and field labourers from the adjoining British territory make their way into Bardez where the demand for labour is always keen. Stately forests are found in the Novas Conquistas. They cover an area of 116 square miles and are under conservation and yield some profit to the administration. Iron is found in parts of the territory; but has not been seriously worked. Manganese also exists and some mines are being worked at present, the ore being exported to the Continent.

Commerce.

In the days of its glory, Goa was the chief entrepot of commerce between East and West and was specially famous for its trade in horses with the Persian Gulf. It lost its commercial importance with the downfall of the Portuguese Empire and its trade is now insignificant.

The present trade of Goa is not very large. Its imports amount to about Rs. 160 lakhs and exports to about Rs. 40 lakhs. The discrepancy is met from the money sent to Goa by the many emigrants who are to be found all over the world. Few manufacturing industries of any moment exist and most manufactured articles in use are imported. Exports chiefly consist of cocoanuts, betel nuts, mangoes and other fruits and raw produce.

A line of railway connects Mormugao with the Madras and Southern Mahratta Railway. Its length from Mormugao to Castle Rock above the Ghats where it joins the British system, is 51 miles, of which 49 are in Portuguese territory. The railway is under the management of the Madras and Southern Mahratta Railway administration, and the bulk of the trade of Mormugao port is what it brings down from and takes to the interior. The telegraphs in Portuguese territories are worked as a separate system from the British. The latter, however, had an office at Nova-Goa maintained jointly by the two Governments but since 1925 the Nova-Goa office has been handed over to the Portuguese Government which now maintains and works all the telegraphs in its territories.

Taxes and Tariffs.

The country was in a state of chronic financial equilibrium for nearly sixty years with occasional exceptions. The last war enhanced the deficits to alarming proportions and these were met by fresh taxes and new loans. Most of the new taxes were the result of the initiative of the Governor-General Jaime de Morais, who is popularly known as the 'Governor of Taxes." Only in 1927 the country experienced the joys of a balanced budget and the public servants whose salaries had always remained in arrears are now being paid regularly. There is an estimated surplus of about a lakh and a half which has been ear-marked for promoting the industrial progress of the country. If municipal and national taxes be added together, the country presents a very high incidence of taxation, even higher than that of British India, the average coming to about Rs. 8-8 *per capita*. There is no income-tax, except for government servants, but there is a special ten per cent tax on all incomes derived in the shape of interest on loans. This tax is a powerful contributory cause to the flight of capital from Portuguese India. The chief sources of revenue are the land tax, Excise and the customs. There is a special tax on emigrants which yields to the State about Rs. 60,000 The country being economically backward, the taxes give very little indication of its productive capacity or of its annual wealth. The national wealth is a matter of pure conjecture for lack of statistics.

The tariff schedule is based on the three-fold principle, fiscal, protective and preferential. There is a limited free list on which books and paper figure prominently. The fiscal tariff ranges from 10 to 30 per cent. according to the nature of the commodities, but the duties in several cases are specific, not *ad valorem*. This causes considerable hardship to trade, and specially to the poorer classes of consumers. The preferential tariff applies to goods coming from Lisbon and the Portuguese Colonies. Very recently the principle of protection has been extended to the export of canned fruits which are entitled to a bounty of 10 per cent. on their basic price.

The Capital.

Nova-Goa, the present capital of Portuguese India, comprehends Panjim and Ribandar, Old Goa is some six miles distant from the new city. Panjim occupies a narrow strip of land leading up to the Cabo, the cape dividing the Aguada bay from that of Mormugao, and mainly slopes down to the edge of the Aguada. It was selected as the residence of the Portuguese Viceroy in 1759, and in 1843 it was raised to its present rank as the capital of Portuguese India. The appearance of the city, with its row of public buildings and elegant private residences, as seen from the water is very picturesque and this impression is not belied by a closer inspection of its neat and spacious roads, bordered by decent, tidy houses. The most imposing public structures are the barracks, an immense quadrangular building the eastern wing of which accommodates the Primary School, the Public Library and the Government Press. Other noticeable buildings are the Cathedral and various churches, the viceregal palace, the High Court and so on. The square in the lower part of the town is adorned with a life-sized statue of Albuquerque standing under a canopy.

History.

Goa was captured for the Portuguese by Alfonso de Albuquerque in 1510. Albuquerque promptly fortified the place and established Portuguese rule on a firm basis. From this time Goa rapidly rose in importance and became the metropolis of Portuguese power in the East. There was constant fighting with the armies of the Bijapur kingdom, but the Portuguese held their own and gained the surrounding territory now known as the Velhas Conquistas.

The subsequent history of the town is one of ostentation and decay. Goa reached its summit of prosperity at the end of the sixteenth century. The accounts of travellers show that the Goa of those days presented a scene of military, ecclesiastical and commercial magnificence which has had no parallel in the British capitals of India. Portugal, however, with its three millions of population, was too small to defend itself against Spain and maintain at the same time its immence Empire in the four Continents. Albuquerque tried to consolidate Portuguese rule in India by his policy of attracting the conquered Indians and granting them civil and religious liberties. His contemporaries, however, could not understand his far-seeing statesmanship and after his death they undid all his work basing their dominion on conquest by the sword and military force and they laboured to consolidate it by a proselytising organisation which throws all the missionary efforts of every other European power in India into the shade. Old Goa, as the ruins of the old capital are called to-day, had a hundred churches, many of them of magnificent proportions, and the Inquisition which was a power in the land. The sixty years' subjection to Spain in the 17th century completed the ruin of the Portuguese Empire in the East and though the Marquis of Pombal in the 18th century tried to stave off its decadence, his subordinates in far-off India either could not understand or would not carry out his orders and even his strong hand was unable to stop the decline. It was in the 19th century that the colonials began to enjoy full Portuguese citizenship and sent their representatives to the Parliament in Lisbon.

Modern Times.

There was frequently recurring fighting and in 1741 the Marathas invaded the neighbourhood of Goa and threatened the city itself. An army of 12,000 men arrived from Portugal at the critical moment. The invaders were beaten off, and the Novas Conquistas were added to the Portuguese possessions. In 1844 the shelter given by Goa to fugitives from justice in British territory threatened to bring about a rupture with the British Government at Bombay. In 1852 the Ranes of Satari, in the Novas Conquistas, revolted. In 1871 the native army in Goa mutinied and the King's own brother came from Lisbon to deal with the trouble and having done so disbanded the native army, which has never been reconstituted. But another outbreak among the troops took place in 1895 and the Ranes joining them the trouble was again not quieted until the arrival of another special expedition from Lisbon. The Ranes again broke out in 1901 and again in 1912, troops being again imported to deal with the last outbreak, which was only reported concluded in the summer of 1913. There has been no outbreak after that date.

The people on the whole appear to be quite satisfied with the Portuguese connection. There is no agitation for further reforms as in British India and not a sign of disaffection against Portuguese rule. This is chiefly due to the fact that under the present regime the natives of Goa enjoy complete equality with the natives of Portugal, many of the sons of Goa occupying high and responsible positions in Portugal. Thus Elvino de Britto who was Minister of Public Works towards the end of the last century was a native of Goa as was the father of Dr. Bettencourt Rodrigues, Minister for Foreign Affairs in General Carmonas dictatorial Government. Natives of Goa are also Dr. Almeida Arez, the President of the Supreme Court in Lisbon, Dr. Cacteno Gonsalves, Judge of the same Court and Mr. Alberto Xavier, Secretary-General of the Ministry of Finance.

Administration.

The Lisbon Government by Decree No. 3266, dated 27th July 1917, enacted new rules regarding the administration of Portuguese India under an Organic Charter (Carta Organica) in force since 1st July 1919. This Charter, regarding civil and financial administration of the colony, was modified by rules Nos. 1005 and 1022, dated 7th and 20th August 1920, and decrees Nos. 7008 and 7030. dated 9th and 16th October. A new Organic Charter modifying in certain parts the earlier one was granted by Decree No. 12499 of 4th October 1926 and is now in force.

The territory of Portuguese India is ruled by one Governor-General, residing in the Capital of the State, at Panjim *alias* Nova-Goa, and is divided into three districts: Goa, Daman and Diu. The last two are each under a Lieutenant-Governor. The district of Goa is under the direct superintendency of the Governor-General.

Subordinate to the Governor-General the following Secretariats are working: Home and Political, Finance, Customs, Education, Military, Naval, Agriculture, Health and Public Works. There are also three special and autonomous Departments, which do not constitute exclusive Secretariats, one of them being the Department of Posts and Telegraphs, the second that of Survey and the third that of the Fiscal of the W. I. P. Railway.

As the principal organ of administration next to the Governor-General and in collaboration with him works a Governor's Council (*Conselho do Governo*) with Legislative and advisory powers. The Council is constituted, in addition to the Governor-General, *ex-officio* President, of four officials (Attorney-General, the Director of Finances, the Director of Civil Administration and the Director of Public Works), five elected members (three representing *Velhas Conquistas*, one the *Novas Conquistas* and one the Districts of Daman and Diu) and five members nominated by the Governor-General to represent the minorities, agricultural, commercial and other interests and the press.

In each province of Goa, Daman and Diu, there is a District Council to supervise the Municipalities and other local institutions. The District Council of Goa is composed of the Director of Civil Administration, President, the Government Prosecutor of the Nova-Goa Civil Court; the Deputy Chief Health Officer; the Engineer next to the Director of Public Works; the Deputy Director of Finances; the Chairman of the Municipal Corporation of the Islands; one member elected by the Commercial and Industrial Associations of the district; one member elected by the 60 highest tax payers of Goa; one member elected by the Associations of Land-

owners and Farmers of the District; and one member advocates elected by the Legislative Council among the legally qualified.

At Daman and Diu the corresponding body is composed of the local Governor, President, the Government Prosecutor, the Chief of the Public Works Department, the Health Officer, the Financial Director of the district, the Chairman of the Municipal Corporation, two members elected by 40 highest tax payers of the District and one member elected by the Merchants, Industrialists and Farmers of the district.

Under the provisions of the above quoted Decree is also officiating in the capital of Portuguese India a administrative court tribunal to take cognizance and decide all litigious administrative matters, fiscal questions and accounts. It is named *Tribunal Administrativo Fiscal e de Contas* and is composed of the Chief Justice as President, four High Court judges, one superior Government officer, who must be a Bachelor of Laws, nominated by the Government and a citizen, who is not an official elected by the Governor-General's Council. When matters regarding finances and accounts come up for decision and discussion the Director of Finances also sits on this Tribunal.

Under the presidency of the Governor-General the following bodies are also working:—

Technical Council of Public Works.—Its members are all engineers on permanent duty in the head office, a military officer of highest rank in the army or navy, the Director of Finances, the Attorney-General, the Chief Health Officer and a Secretary being a clerk of the Public Works Department appointed by the Director of Public Works.

Council of Public Instruction.—This Council presided over by the Governor-General is composed of five officials: the Director of Civil Administration, the Director of the Medical College, the Director of the Lyceum, the Director of the Normal School and the Inspector of Primary Schools, and four nominated members.

There is one High Court in the State of India with five Judges and one Attorney-General; and Courts of Justice at Panjim, Margao, Mapuçá, Bicholim, Quepém e Damão; and Municipal Courts of Justice at Mormugão (Vasco da Gama), Pondá, Diu and Nagar-Aveli.

PORT OF MORMUGAO.

Mormugão is situated towards the south of Aguada Bar, on the left Bar, on the left bank of Zuary River in Lat. 15° 25'N. and Long. 73° 47' E., about 225 miles south of Bombay and 6½ miles south of Panjim, the Capital of Portuguese India. The Port of Mormugão is the natural outlet to the sea for the whole area served by the M. & S. M. Ry. (metre-gauge), and offers the shortest route both passenger and goods traffic. The distance from Aden to Mormugão is about the same as from Aden to Bombay. The Port is provided with lighthouses, buoys and all necessary marks and it is easily accessible all the year round and at any hour of the day or night even without the assistance of a Pilot. Pilotage is not compulsory, but when usual pilot flag is hoisted, a qualified officer will board the vessel and render such assistance.

Mormugão Harbour is the terminal station of the West of India Portuguese Railway which is controlled by the Madras and Southern Maharatta Railway Company, with headquarters at Madras. Goods are shipped direct from Mormugão to any Continental Ports, every facility being afforded for such direct shipments. Cargo can be unloaded from or loaded direct into Railway wagons, which run alongside steamers, thus reducing handling. Warehouses are built on the quay and have railway sidings alongside. Steamers of over 5,000 tons net register, from any Continental Ports can be discharged or loaded rapidly and in complete safety, in a working day of 10 hours 650 tons iron work or 800 tons bale or bag cargo can easily be loaded or discharged. The port is provided with steam cranes and all other appliances for quick loading and discharging of vessels, one of the cranes being of 30 tons capacity for discharging heavy lifts. The tonnage, quay dues and all other charges are very low, special concessions being granted for steamers arriving from European or American Ports touching Lisbon. Fresh water can be obtained at a low cost.

The Bombay Steam Navigation Company's (Shepherd) steamers between Bombay and Mangalore call at Mormugão twice a week. The British India Steam Navigation Company's steamers between Bombay and Africa call at Mormugão at least once a month. The Ellerman Strick Line maintains a regular service from Liverpool to Mormugao calling occasionally at Lisbon. This service offers every facility for shipment from the United Kingdom to stations on the M. & S. M. Railway under the "Combined Sea and Rail Through Bills of Lading." There are several stevedoring firms, the maximum rate for discharging or loading coal and general cargo being fixed by Government at 6 annas per ton, deadweight. Goods for British India pass through Goa without any charge being collected by Portuguese Government. British Customs duty payable at Castle-Rock can be paid by the Railway Company and collected at destination. Goods from stations on the M. & S. M. Ry. System to Mormugão or *vice-versa* are railed without transhipment, thus avoiding a second handling. Steam tugs, barges, etc., for unloading in the stream can be had at a very low charge.

With a view to promoting the economical, commercial and industrial development of Mormugão, a special Department under the designation of the "Mormugão Improvement Trust" with its head office at Vasco da Gama, 2 miles from Mormugão Harbour, has been created and the Local Government have introduced various regulations granting every facility to those intending to raise buildings for residential and industrial purposes in the whole area, comprising about 300 acres, near the Harbour. There are over 2,000 plots, each measuring between 1,000 and 2,000 square metres (each square yard—0·8361 square metre), available for residential quarters, granted on permanent lease on each payment of 2 annas to Rs. 1-8 per square metre, according to their situation, in addition to an annual payment of 4 pies per square metre as lease-hold rent.

Within about 60 days from the date of application for a plot, the same is made over to the applicant or to the highest bidder, should there be more than one applicant for one and the same plot. The plan of buildings is in all cases subject to the approval of the Chairman of the Improvement Trust, such plan being required to be submitted within 60 days from the date the plot is made over to the lessee, and the period within which building is to be completed is 2 years. Importation of building materials is allowed free of Custom duties. In addition to the above, there is an extensive area available and reserved only for Industrial and Commercial Establishments, this area being known as "Free Zone". Within this "Free Zone," in addition to plots, which are leased at a very low rate for building factories, bonded warehouses or for establishment of any kind of industrial or commercial concerns, in accordance with rules and regulations lately issued by the local Government, special concessions and privileges are granted, such as:

(*I*) *For Establishment of Factories or Industrial Concerns.*—All machinery, building materials, tools, raw materials, etc., required for construction, maintenance and regular working of the Factories are permitted free of import duty, likewise export of the goods manufactured within the "Free Zone."

(*II*) *For Establishment of Depots of Manufactured or Unmanufactured Goods, Bonded Warehouses, etc., etc.*—All goods imported by the Concessionaire for the purpose of such depot are allowed to be exported to any Foreign territory, after being improved and repacked, if necessary, without payment of either import or export duty.

(*III*) *Exemption of Government Taxes.*—In addition to the above privileges, all Factories, Commercial Establishments, buildings, etc., within the "Free Zone" are exempt from all Government taxes for a period of 20 years from May 1923. Applications for any of the above concessions have to be addressed to H.E. the Governor-General of Portuguese India and presented at the office of the Mormugao Improvement Trust at Vasco da Gama, giving therein full particulars of the area and plot, etc., required. Such applications are disposed of within as little time as possible. Full information can be obtained from the Mormugao Improvement Trust, Vasco da Gama

DAMAN.

The settlement of Daman lies at the entrance to the Gulf of Cambay, about 100 miles north of Bombay. It is composed of two portions, namely, Daman proper, lying on the coast, and the detached pargana of Nagar Aveli, separated from it by a narrow strip of British territory and bisected by the B. B. & C. I. Railway. Daman proper contains an area of 22 square miles and 26 villages and has a population (1921) of 17,566 of whom 1,480 are Christians. The number of houses is according to the same census 4,095. Nagar Aveli has an area of 60 square miles and a population (1921) of 31,048, of whom only 271 are Christians. The number of houses is 6,069. The town of Daman was sacked by the Portuguese in 1531 rebuilt by the natives and retaken by the Portuguese in 1558, when they made it one of their permanent establishments in India. They converted the mosque into a church and have since built eight other places of worship. The native Christians adopt the European costume, some of the women dressing themselves after the present European fashion, and others following the old style of petticoat and mantle once prevalent in Spain and Portugal.

The soil of the settlement is moist and fertile, especially in Nagar Aveli, but despite the ease of cultivation only one-twentieth part of the territory is under tillage. The principal crops are rice, wheat, the inferior cereals of Gujarat and tobacco. The settlement contains no minerals. There are stately forests in Nagar Aveli, and about two-thirds of them consist of teak, but the forests are not conserved and the extent of land covered by each kind of timber has not been determined. Before the decline of Portuguese power in the East, Daman carried on an extensive commerce especially with the east coast of Africa. In those days it was noted for its dyeing and weaving.

The territory forms for administrative purposes a single district and has a Municipal Chamber and Corporation. It is ruled by a Governor invested with both civil and military functions, subordinate to the Governor-General of Goa. The judicial department is administered by a judge, with an establishment composed of a delegate of the Attorney-General and two clerks. In Nagar Aveli the greater part of the soil is the property of the Government, from whom the cultivators hold their tenures direct. A tax is levied on all lands, whether alienated or the property of the State. The chief sources of revenue are land-tax, forests, excise and customs duties.

DIU.

Diu is an island lying off the southern extremity of the Kathiawar Peninsula, from which it is separated by a narrow channel through a considerable swamp. It is composed of three portions, namely, Diu proper (island), the village of Gogla, on the Peninsula, separated by the channel, and the fortress of Simbor, about 5 miles west of the island. It has a small but excellent harbour, where vessels can safely ride at anchor in two fathoms of water and owing to the great advantages which its position offers for trade with Arabia and the Persian Gulf, the Portuguese were fired at an early period with a desire to obtain possession of it. This they gained, first by treaty with the Sultan of Gujarat and then by force of arms. Diu became opulent and famous for its commerce. It has now dwindled into insignificance. The extreme length of the island is about seven miles and its breadth from north to south, two miles. The area is 20 square miles. The population of the town of Diu, from which the island takes its name, is said to have been 50,000 in the days of its commercial prosperity. The total population of the island, according to the census of 1921, is 13,844, of whom 228 were Christians.

FRENCH POSSESSIONS.

The French possessions in India comprise five Settlements, with certain dependent lodges, or plots. They aggregate 203 square miles, and had a total population on the 26th Feb. 1931 of 286,410. The first French expedition into Indian waters, with a view to open up commercial relations, was attempted in 1603. It was undertaken by private merchants at Rouen, but it failed, as also did several similar attempts which followed. In 1642 Cardinal Richelieu founded the first Campagnie d'Orient, but its efforts met with no success. Colbert reconstituted the Company on a larger basis in 1664, granting exemption from taxes and a monopoly of the Indian trade for fifty years. After having twice attempted, without success, to establish itself in Madagascar, Colbert's Company again took up the idea of direct trade with India and its President, Caron, founded in 1668 the Comptoir, or agency, at Surat. But on finding that city unsuited for a head establishment he seized the harbour of Trincomalee in Ceylon from the Dutch. The Dutch, however, speedily retook Trincomalee; and Caron, passing over to the Coromandel coast, in 1672, seized St. Thome, a Portuguese town adjoining Madras, which had for twelve years been in the possession of Holland. He was, however, compelled to restore it to the Dutch in 1674.

The ruin of the Company seemed impending when one of its agents, the celebrated Francois Martin, suddenly restored it. Rallying under him a handful of sixty Frenchmen, saved out of the wreck of the settlements at Trincomalee and St. Thome, he took up his abode at Pondicherry, then a small village, which he purchased in 1683 from the Raja of Gingee. He built fortifications, and a trade began to spring up; but he was unable to hold the town against the Dutch, who wrested it from him in 1693, and held it until it was restored to the French by the Peace of Ryswick, in 1697. Pondicherry became in this year and has ever since remained, the most important of the French Settlements in India. Its foundation was contemporaneous with that of Calcutta. Like Calcutta, its site was purchased by a European Company from a native prince, and what Job Charnock was to Calcutta Francois Martin proved to Pondicherry. On its restitution to the French by the Peace of Ryswick in 1697, Martin was appointed Governor, and under his able management Pondicherry became an entrepot of trade.

Chandernagore, in Lower Bengal, had been acquired by the French Company in 1688, by grant from the Delhi Emperor; Mahé, on the Malabar Coast, was obtained in 1725-6, under the government of M. Lenoir; Karikal, on the Coromandel Coast, under that of M. Dumas, in 1739. Yanaon, on the coast of the Northern Circars, was taken possession of in 1750, and formally ceded to the French two years later.

Administration.

The military command and administration-in-chief of the French possessions in India are vested in a Governor, whose residence is at Pondicherry. The office is at present held by Monsieur George Bourret (Francois-Adrien). He is assisted by a Chief Justice and by several "Chefs de Service" in the different administrative departments. In 1879 local councils and a council-general were established, the members being chosen by a sort of universal suffrage within the French territories. Seventeen Municipalities, or Communal Boards, were erected in 1907, namely, Pondicherry, Ariancoupam, Modellarpeth, Oulgaret, Villenour, Tiroubouvane, Bahour and Nettapacam, for the establishment of Pondicherry; Karikal, Neravy, Nedouncadou, Tirunalar, Grande Aldée, Cotchéry, for the establishment of Karikal, and also Chandernagore, Mahé and Yanaon. On municipal boards natives are entitled to a proportion of the seats. Civil and criminal courts, courts of first instance and a court of appeal compose the judicial machinery. The army and establishments connected with the Governor and his staff at Pondicherry, and those of administrators at Chandernagore, Yanaon, Mahe and Karikal, together with other headquarters charges necessarily engross a large proportion of the revenue. All the state and dignity of an independent Government, with four dependent ones, have to be maintained. This is effected by rigid economy, and the prestige of the French Government is worthily maintained in the East. Pondicherry is also the scene of considerable religious pomp and missionary activity. It forms the seat of an Archbishop, with a body of priests for all French India; and of the Missions Etrangeres, the successors of the Mission du Carnatic founded by the Jesuits in 1776. But the chief field of this mission lies outside the French Settlements, a large proportion of its Christians are British subjects and many of the churches are in British territory. The British rupee is the ordinary tender within French territories. A line of railway running *via* Villenour, from Pondicherry to Villupuram on the South Indian Railway, maintains communication with Madras and the rest of British India, and Karikal is linked to the same railway by the branch from Peralam. A Chamber of Commerce consisting of fifteen members, nine of them Europeans or persons of European descent, was reorganised by a decree of 7th March, 1914. The capital, Pondicherry, is a very handsome town, and presents, especially from the sea, a striking appearance of French civilisation.

People and Trade.

The Settlements are represented in Parliament at Paris by one senator and one deputy. The Senator is Mons. Lemoignic. The Deputy is Mons. Pierre Dupuy. There were in 1932 59 primary schools and 3 colleges all maintained by the Government, with 308 teachers and 9,263 pupils. Local revenue and expenditure (Budget of 1932) Rs. 2,694,019. The principal crops are paddy, groundnut, and ragi. There are at Pondicherry 3 cotton mills, and at Chandernagore 1 jute mill. The cotton mills have, in all 1,691 looms and 71,744 spindles, employing 7,450 persons. There are also at work one oil factory and a few oil presses for groundnuts, and one ice factory.

The chief exports from Pondicherry are oil seeds. At the ports of Pondicherry, Karikal, and Mahé in 1931 the imports amounted to frs. 96,215,000 and the exports to frs. 173,695,000. At these three ports in 1931, 271 vessels entered and cleared; tonnage 84,333 T. Pondicherry is visited by French steamers, sailing monthly between Colombo and Calcutta in connection with the Messageries Maritimes. The figures contained in this paragraph are the latest available and are corrected up to December 1931.

PONDICHERRY.

Pondicherry is the chief of the French Settlements in India and its capital is the headquarters of their Governor. It is situated on the Coromandel Coast, 105 miles from Madras by road and 122 by the Villupuram-Pondicherry branch of the South Indian Railway. The area of the Settlement is 115 square miles and its population in the 26th Feb. 1931 was 183,555. It consists of the eight communes of Pondicherry. The Settlement was founded in 1674 under Francois Martin. In 1693, it was captured by the Dutch but was restored in 1699. It was besieged four times by the English. The first siege under Admiral Boscawen in 1748 was unsuccessful. The second, under Eyre Coote in 1761, resulted in the capture of the place, which was restored in 1765. It was again besieged and captured in 1778 by Sir Hector Munro, and the fortifications were demolished in 1779. The place was again restored in 1785 under the Treaty of Versailles of 1783. It was captured a fourth time by Colonel Braithwaite in 1793, and finally restored in 1816.

The Settlement comprises a number of isolated pieces of territory which are cut off from the main part and surrounded by the British District of South Arcot, except where they border on the sea. The Collector of South Arcot is empowered to deal with ordinary correspondence with the French authorities on these and kindred matters, and in this capacity is styled the Special Agent. At Pondicherry itself is a British Consular Agent accredited to the French Government, who is usually an officer of the Indian Army. The town is compact, neat and clean, and is divided by a canal into two parts, the Ville blanche and the Ville noire. The Ville blanche has a European appearance, the streets being laid at right angles to one another with trees along their margins reminding the visitor of continental boulevards, and the houses being constructed with courtyards and embellished with green venetians. All the cross streets lead down to the shore, where a wide promenade facing the sea is again different from anything of its kind in British India. In the middle is a screw-pile pier, which serves, when ships touch at the port, as a point for the landing of cargo, and on holidays as a general promenade for the population. There is no real harbour at Pondicherry; ships lie at a distance of about a mile from the shore, and communication with them is conducted by the usual *masula* boats of this coast. Facing the shore end of the pier is a statue of the great Dupleix, to whom the place and the French name owed so much.

CHANDERNAGORE.

Chandernagore is situated on the bank of the Hooghly, a short distance below Chinsura. Population (in the 26th Feb. 1931) 27,262. The town was permanently occupied by the French in 1688, though previously it had been temporarily occupied by them at a date given as 1672 or 1676. It did not, however, rise to any importance till the time of Dupleix. It changed hands between British and French various times during the Napoleonic wars and was finally restored to the French in 1816.

The former grandeur of Chandernagore has disappeared, and at present it is little more than a quiet suburban town with little external trade. The railway station on the East Indian Railway is just outside French territory 22 miles from Calcutta (Howrah). The chief administrative officer is the Administrator who is subordinate to the Governor of the French Possessions. The chief public institution is the College Dupleix, formerly called St. Mary's institution, founded in 1882 and under the direct control of the French Government.

KARIKAL.

Karikal lies on the Coromandel Coast between the Tanjore District of Madras and the Bay of Bengal. The settlement is divided into six communes, containing 110 villages in all, and covering an area of 53 square miles. It is governed by an Administrator subordinate to the Governor at Pondicherry. The population has in recent years rapidly decreased. In 1883 it was 93,055; in 1891, 75,526; in 1901, 54,603; in 1923, 57,023; in 1924, 56,922; and in 1931, 57,914; but the density is still very high, being 1,068 persons per square mile. Kumbakonam is the only taluk in Tanjore District which has a higher density. Each of the six communes—namely, Karikal, La Grande Aldee, Nedungadu, Cotchéry, Néravy and Tirnoular—possesses a mayor and council. The members are all elected by universal suffrage, but in the municipality Karikal half the number of seats are reserved for Europeans or their descendants. The country is very fertile, being irrigated by seven branches of the Cauvery, besides many smaller channels.

The capital of the settlement is situated on the north bank of the river Arasalar, about 1½ miles from its mouth. It has a brisk trade in rice with Ceylon, and to a less extent with the Straits Settlements. It has no commerce with France, and very little with other French colonies. The port is merely an open roadstead, provided with a light-house 142 feet high, the light in which has a range of from 8 to 10 miles. In 1899 Karikal was connected with Peralem on the Tanjore District Board Railway. Karikal finally came into French possession on the settlement after 1815.

The Frontiers.

By those who take a long view of politics in the wide sense of the term, it will be seen that the Indian Frontier problem, which has loomed so large in the discussion of Indian questions, has always borne a two-fold character—the local issue and the international issue. For almost a century the international issue was the greater of the two, and the most serious question which the Indian Government, both directly and as the executors of British Imperial policy, had to face. But the tendency of later times was for the international aspect to recede and for the local aspect to grow in importance, until it wright be said, with as much truth as characterises all generalisations, that the local issue dominated, if it did not absorb the situation.

The Local Problem.—The local problem, in its broadest outlines, may be briefly indicated before proceeding to discuss it in detail. From the Arabian Sea on the West to the confines of Nepal is a wild and troublous sea of some of the highest mountains in the world. The thin valleys in these immense ranges are poorly populated by hardy, brave, militant mountaineers, rendered the fiercer and the more difficult by professing the martial Moslem faith, accentuated by the most bitter fanaticism. But sparse as the population is, it is in excess of the supporting power of the country. Like mountaineers in all parts of the world, these brave and fearless men have sought to eke out their exiguous agriculture by raiding the rich plains of Hindustan. We may find a fairly close parallel to the situation in the position of the Highlands of Scotland until after the rebellion of 1745 the English Government of the day sought a permanent remedy by opening for the warlike Highlanders a military career in the famous Highland regiments, and in rendering military operations easier by the construction of Wade's road. The Highland problem has disappeared so long from English politics that its pregnant lessons are little realised, but if the curious student will read again that brilliant novel by Neil Munro, "The New Road," he will appreciate what Wade's work meant for the Highlands of Scotland, and what lessons it teaches those who are called upon to face, in its local aspect, the Indian frontier problem. So far as the area with which we are dealing was concerned, two policies were tried. In Baluchistan, the genius of Sir Robert Sandeman devised the method of entering into military occupation of the principal points, and thence controlling the country. At the same time close engagements were entered into with the principal chiefs, through whom the tribesmen were kept in order. That policy was so successful that whilst the administration was expensive the Baluchistan frontier did not seriously embarrass the Government of India from the time when Sandeman set his mark on the land. Not that the country was entirely peaceful. Occasional tribal raids or risings necessitated occasional military operations, and the Gomal Pass was involved in the general tribal disturbances which followed the wanton declaration of war by Afghanistan in 1919. But speaking broadly, Sandeman brought peace to Baluchistan, and to the large frontier area which is embraced in that generic term. So far as this section of the frontier is concerned it may be said that no frontier problem exists, save the need for an economical and constructive policy.

Towards Afghanistan.—Far otherwise has it until lately been with the section of the frontier which stretches from Baluchistan to the confines of Kashmir. That has, for three quarters of a century, been the scene of almost ceaseless military operations, which have constituted a devastating drain on the Indian exchequer. For years one sought for a definite policy guiding the actions of the Government of India. One explanation of their inconsistencies was found in the existence of two schools of thought. Once the frontier with Afghanistan had been delimited, the soldiers naturally pressed for the armed occupation of the whole country right up to the confines of Afghanistan, or at any rate, for military posts, linked with good communications, which would dominate the country. But those who looked at policy not only from the military standpoint, were fearful of two considerations. They felt that occupation up to the Afghan frontier would only shift the frontier problem farther North. Instead of the differing tribes, we should, they argued, have to meet the Afghan on our border line. If Afghanistan were a strong, homogeneous State, that would be a matter of little account. But even under the iron rule of Abdurrahaman Khan, the Amir's writ ran but lightly in the southern confines of his kingdom. Under his successor, Habibullah Khan, whose policy was generally wise and successful, it ran still less firmly. The Amir was unable to control the organisation of the tribal gatherings which involved us in the Zakka Khel and Mohmand expeditions during the Indian secretaryship of that arch pacifist, Lord Morley. Nor did it enable Habibullah to deal effectively with a rising against his own Governor in Khost. The Afghan forces melted away under transport difficulties when they were moved against the rebellious Khostwalis, and the Amir had to make peace with his troublous vassals. Therefore, it was said, occupation up to what is called the Durand Line because it is the line demarcated by the Frontier Commission in which Sir Mortimer Durand was the British Plenipotentiary, would simply mean that in time of trouble we should have to deal with Afghanistan instead of a tribe or two, and with the irreconcilable tribesmen along our difficult line of communications. There was the further consideration that financiers were of the fixed belief that even if the Forward Policy was wise from the military standpoint, it would involve charges over an indefinite period greater than the Indian finances would bear. Moreover on this section of the Frontier, the position was complicated by the expansion of Russia in Central Asia. The easiest passes, and the passes down which for centuries from the time of Alexander the Great invaders

have swept from Persia and Central Asia to loot the fat plains of Hindustan, traverse this region. Therefore it was deemed essential to control, if not to occupy them, in the interests of the Imperial situation. In this zone therefore policy ebbed and flowed between the Forward School, which would have occupied, or dominated, the whole Frontier up to the Durand Line, that is to say up to the Afghan frontier: and the Close Border School, which would have us remain out of the difficult mountainous zone and meet the tribesmen on the plains if they sallied forth. The extreme advocates of this school would even have had us return to the line of the Indus.

The Two Policies.—The result of this conflict of opinion was a series of wavering compromises, which like all compromises was profoundly unsatisfactory. We pushed forward posts here and there, which irritated the Tribesmen, and made them fearful of their prized independence, without controlling them. These advanced posts were in many cases inadequately held and rarely were they linked with their supporting posts by adequate means of communication. We preserved between our administrative frontier and the Durand Line which demarcated our frontier with Afghanistan an irregular belt of land called The Independent Territory, in which neither we nor the Afghan Government exercised jurisdiction. This was left entirely under the control of the tribes who peopled it. Now it was often asked why we did not follow the precedent of Baluchistan and "Sandemanise" the Independent Territory. That was one of the perennial topics of Frontier discussions. But stress was laid upon the essential differences between this zone and Baluchistan. Sir Robert Sandeman found a strong tribal system existing in Baluchistan, and he was able to enter into direct engagements with the tribal Chiefs. There is no such tribal organisation in the Independent Territory. The tribal Chiefs, or maliks, exercise a very precarious authority, and the instrument for the collective expression of the tribal will is not the chief, but the jirgah, or tribal council, of the most democratic character, where the voice of the young men of the tribe often has the same influence, in time of excitement perhaps more influence, than the voice of the wiser greybeard. The bitter fruit of this policy of compromise was reaped in 1897, when following a minor outbreak in the Tochi Valley the general uneasiness flamed into a rising which involved the whole of the North-West Frontier, from the Gomal to the borders of Nepal. A force over thirty thousand strong had to be mobilised to deal with it. Even this large force, owing to the immense difficulties of transportation, was unable effectively to deal with the situation, though peace was made. The emergency thus created synchronised with the advent of Lord Curzon as Viceroy. He dealt with it in masterful fashion. In the first place, he separated the frontier zone from the Government of the Punjab, which had hitherto been responsible for its administration, and had organised for the purpose a special force of Frontier soldiers, known as the Punjab Irregular Frontier Force. This was the revival of a scheme as old as the Viceroyalty of Lord Lytton, though no other Viceroy had been able to carry it through in the face of the strong opposition of successive Punjab Governments. The area so separated was constituted into a separate administrative zone under the direct authority of the Government of India, exercised through a Chief Commissioner. Then Lord Curzon withdrew the advanced military posts and concentrated the Regular troops in bases better linked with the main military centres of India by roads and railways. The advanced posts, and especially important Passes like the Tochi, the Kurram and the Khyber, were entrusted to the defence of local militia, recruited from the tribesmen themselves, and officered by British officers drawn from the ranks of the Indian Army. Later it was supplemented by a fine development policy. The construction of the Upper Swat Canal, afterwards developed into the Swat Canal (*q.v.* Irrigation) led to such an increase in cultivation that the tribesmen were given a means of livelihood and were invested with the magic charm of valuable property. The irrigated part of the Frontier has since been one of the most peaceful in the whole border line.

Lord Curzon's Success.—Judged by every reasonable standard the Curzon policy was successful. It did not give us complete peace. There were occasional punitive expeditions demanded, such as for instance the Zakka Khel and Mohmand expeditions, and the Waziris, and in particular the truculent Mahsud Waziris, never ceased raiding. But in comparison with what had gone before, it gave relative peace. It endured throughout the Great War, though the Waziris built up a heavy bill of offences, which awaited settlement when Government were free from the immense preoccupations of the war. It broke down under the strain of the wanton invasion of India by the Afghans in the hot weather of 1919. On February 20th the Amir Habibullah Khan was assassinated in his sleep near Jelalabad. Although he does not figure so prominently in frontier history as his iron father Abdurrahaman Khan, he nevertheless has high claims on the favourable verdict of history. None anticipated that any successor to Abdurrahaman Khan could hold in the leash of a single State the fractious, fanatical tribes who make up the population of the Afghan kingdom. Yet this Habibullah did. On occasions his attitude seemed to be equivocal, as when armed gatherings of the tribes called lashkars were permitted to assemble in Afghan territory and to invade the Independent Territory, causing the Zakka Khel and Mohmand expeditions. But we must not judge a State like Afghanistan by European standards; the Amir had often to bow before the fanatical elements amongst his own people until they had burnt their fingers by contact with the British troops. At the outset of the Great War he warned the Government that he might often have to do things which seemed unfriendly, but they must trust him. In truth, the position of the Amir when Turkey entered on the war, and called Moslems everywhere to arms on the side of Germany was extraordinarily difficult; he received Turkish, German and Austrian missions in Kabul, from which British representatives were still excluded. But he kept Afghanistan out of the war, and with the complete defeat of the Central Powers and their satellites, his policy was justified up to the hilt. Indeed, his success was the cause of his assassination. The irreconcilable elements in the Kingdom saw that the day of reckoning had come and strove

to avert the settlement of their account by the murder. When he was done to death, his brother, Nasrullah Khan, was proclaimed Amir by the assassins. But the conscience of Afghanistan revolted against the idea of Nasrullah, the arch-fanatic of the ruling House of Kabul, ascending the throne over the blood-stained corpse of his brother. A military movement in Kabul itself brushed him aside and installed the son of Habibullah, Amanullah Khan, on the throne. But Amanullah Khan soon found it was a thorny bed on which he lay, and encouraged by the disorders in India which followed the passing of stringent measures to deal with anarchical crime, set his troops in motion on April 25, 1919, and preaching a *jehad* promised his soldiery the traditional loot of Hindustan. The Indian Army was at once set in motion, and as has always been the case the regular Afghan Army was easily beaten. Dacca was seized, Jelalabad and Kabul were frequently bombed from the air, and there was nothing to prevent our occupation of Kabul, save the knowledge gleaned from the bitter heritage of the wars of 1838 and 1878, that it is one thing to overset a government in Afghanistan, but it is quite another to set up a stable government in its stead. The Government of India wisely held their hand, and the Afghans having sued for peace, a treaty was signed on the 8th August 1919.

But an untoward effect of this wanton war was to set the Frontier from the Gomal to the Khyber ablaze. With one or two exceptions, the Tribal Militia left without the support of the regular troops who in the emergency ought to have been hastened to their succour, could not stand the strain of an appeal from their fellow tribesmen, and either melted away or joined the rising. This has often been described as the failure of the Curzon policy, which was based on the tribal militia. But there is another aspect to this issue, which was set out in a series of brilliant articles which Mr. Arthur Moore, its special correspondent, contributed to *The Times*. He pointed out that the militia was meant to be a military police force. The lapse of time, and forgetfulness of its real purpose, had converted the militia into an imitation of the regular army. The Militia was meant to be a police. When the war broke out its units were treated as a covering force behind which the Regular Army mobilised. This is a role which it was never intended they should serve; exposed to a strain which they should never have been called upon to bear, they crumpled under it. If on the outbreak of trouble troops had promptly hurried to their support all might have been well. Left to look after themselves, with no sign of support, they found themselves too weak to hold their positions and militarily their only course was to retire from the midst of their own kinsmen as the seal of revolt surged towards them. They would not take it.

Russia and the Frontier.—The Curzon policy was up to the time of its collapse greatly assisted by extraneous events. The greatest external force in moulding Indian frontier policy was the long struggle with Russia. For nearly three quarters of a century a veiled warfare for predominance in Asia was waged between Great Britain and Russia. There are few pages in British foreign policy less attractive to the student of Imperial affairs. Russia was confronted in Central Asia with precisely the same conditions as those which faced England in India when the course of events converted the old East India Company from a trading corporation into a governing body. The decaying khanates of Central Asia were impossible neighbours. Confronted with an inferior civilisation, and with neighbours who would not let her alone, Russia had to advance. True, the adventurous spirits in her armies, and some of the great administrators in the Tsarist capital were not adverse to paying off on the Indian Borderland the score against Great Britain for the Crimean War, and for what the Russians thought was depriving them of the fruits of their costly victory over Turkey in 1877-78. The result was a long and unsatisfactory guerilla enterprise between the hardiest spirits on both sides, accompanied by periodic panics in the British Press each time the Russians moved forward, which induced the coining, after the Russian occupation of Merv, of the generic term "Mervousness." This external force involved the Government of India in the humiliations of the Afghan War of 1838, with the tragic destruction of the retiring Indian force between Kabul and Jelalabad, slightly relieved by the heroic defence of Jelalabad and the firmness of General Pollock in refusing to withdraw the punitive army until he had set his mark on Kabul by the razing of the famous Bala Hissar fortress. It involved us in the second Afghan War of 1878, which left the baffling problem of no stable government in Afghanistan. There was a gleam of light when Abdurrahaman Khan, whom we set up at Kabul to relieve us of our perplexities, proved himself a strong and capable ruler, if one ruthless in his methods. But in the early eighties the two States were on the verge of war over a squabble for the possession of Penjdeh, and then men began to think a little more clearly. There began a series of boundary delimitations and agreements which clarified the situation, without however finally settling it. The old controversy broke out in another form when intrigues with a Buriat monk, Dorjieff, during Lord Curzon's viceroyalty, gave rise to the grave suspicion that the scene had only shifted to Tibet. An expedition to Lhasa rent the veil which had so long concealed the mysterious city and dispersed the miasma of this intrigue. But it was not until the conclusion of the Anglo-Russian agreement of 1907 that the two countries arrived at a stage long sought by those who looked beyond their noses. The actual authors of the Agreement were Lord Grey, the Foreign Secretary, and Lord Hardinge, formerly British Ambassador in Petrograd, but it had been desired by their predecessors, whose efforts were rendered nugatory by the intransigent attitude of the dominant forces in Petrograd. It was not until Russia was chastened on the battlefields of Manchuria by Japan, and disappeared as a sea power in the decisive battle of Tsushima, that an atmosphere was created favourable to the conclusion of an Agreement. This embraced the whole frontier zone. There were many unsatisfactory features in the Agreement, especially in regard to Persia, for which we had to pay a considerable price in the attitude

of Persians in the War. But again taking long views, the Agreement fully justified itself in a broad definition of the interest of the two countries, which put an end to the period of excursions and alarms up to the outbreak of the War. Russia then ceased to be a material factor in the Indian Frontier Problem. With the establishment of the Soviet Oligarchy in Moscow uneasiness has returned, for the geographical and allied circumstances which influenced the policy of the Tsarist regime exert precisely the same pressure upon its successor, and the Soviet have a troublesome motive which the Tsars had not: their aim to produce world revolution is avowed and Britain and the Constitutionalism for which she stands are the greatest obstacles in their path.

German Influence.—As nature abhors a vacuum, so in the case of States bordered by higher civilisations, no sooner does one strong influence recede than some other takes its place. Long before the signing of the Anglo-Russian Agreement the shadow of the German menace had begun to appear on the horizon. Imitative, not creative, in this, as in most other activities, the Germans adapted their methods from the penetration by railway which was so marked a feature of Russian expansion in Manchuria, brought to an end by the disastrous issue of the war with Japan. The seeds of the German effort were sown when the Kaiser, extending the hand of Christian fellowship to the Sultan of Turkey, Abdul-Hamed, at a time when that sovereign was ostracised by Europe for his direct complicity in the massacre of Armenians, or rather one of the massacres of Armenians, made German influence supreme at Constantinople. His theatrical tour through Palestine, which was generally treated in Europe as an exhibition of opera bouffe, soon bore fruit in the acquisition by German interests of the principal railways in Anatolia. Later it fructified more effectively in the Baghdad Railway concession, under which German interests secured the right of extending the Anatolian lines from the port of Haidar Pasha, opposite Constantinople, to a port in the Persian Gulf. Now successive British Statesmen of both parties had declared that the acquisition of a territorial foot-hold in the Persian Gulf by any power—Russia and the port of Bunder Abbas being then in view—would be regarded as an unfriendly act. There followed a replica of the period of alarms and excursions which had disfigured our relations with Russia. Undaunted, even when their endeavour to secure British co-operation in the enterprise failed, and when the Revolution in Turkey which set the Committee of Union and Progress in power entailed a temporary interruption of their influence at Constantinople, the Germans pressed forward with their enterprise. They pushed the Anatolian railways as far east as Bourgulu, and constructed a line northwards from Baghdad to Samara. They sent a mission to explore the potentialities of the port of Koweit in the Persian Gulf, and set the Turks in motion to subordinate the Sheikh of Koweit to direct Turkish sovereignty, with a nominal view to extending the Baghdad railway from Basra to Koweit, or the vicinity of Koweit at the deep water inlet behind Bubian Island. They commenced the most difficult part of the work in piercing the Amanus and Taurus ranges by a series of tunnels, and laid the rails on the other side of the mountains across the Euphrates to Ras-al-Ain. Behind this railway activity stood a grandiose policy, which is indicated in what became known in Germany as "B.B.B."—Berlin, Byzantium, Baghdad. Throughout the progress of these schemes, which did not stop short of Baghdad, but were directed through a port in the Persian Gulf, at India, the Germans were anxious to secure the co-operation of Great Britain, if they could do so on their own terms, that is to say without affecting the enterprise as a dominant German adventure. Shortly before the commencement of the war the protracted negotiations with London which had this end in view ended in a definite agreement between the two Powers. Under this agreement the Gulf section of the line was to have been British, and the other portion German. But this agreement which had not been signed became waste paper with the outbreak of the war, and the German plans vanished in thin air with the complete defeat of Turkey and Germany. Nevertheless the railway did not stand still during the war. Germany made immense efforts to complete the difficult tunnel sections and the work was substantially finished when the Armistice was signed.

The Significance of the Baghdad Railway—The real significance of the Baghdad Railway was little appreciated in Great Britain. It was constantly pictured as a great trunk line, which would short-circuit the traditional British dominance by sea, and absorb the passenger and goods traffic from the East. This idea could only be nourished by those completely ignorant of the conditions of the Indian passenger service and the essentials of a competitive route for the carriage of merchandise. The rush of passenger traffic from India is from April to June, in order to escape the hot weather in India and, the return traffic is spread over the period of from October to January. From April to June the heat in Mesopotamia is appalling. To imagine that the passenger traffic from India would turn from the easy and comfortable, as well as fairly expeditious sea route from Bombay to Marseilles and thence by the easiest railway travelling outside the British Isles to Calais and London, for such a land route was an amazing chimera. The Baghdad route would have involved a sea voyage from Bombay or Karachi to Koweit or Basra, then a journey across the burning plains of Mesopotamia and Asia Minor to Haidar Pasha, then across the Straits to Constantinople, and finally right across Europe to a North Sea port. This would in any circumstances have been a costly freak journey in comparison with the sea route. Then as for the commercial aspect of the line, the natural port of the Middle East is Basra. The sea freight from England or Germany to Basra was often less than half the freight from Basra to Baghdad. To imagine again that merchandise would desert this route for a land and sea route, which would have involved a double break of bulk at Constantinople and Haidar Pasha, was again a chimera.

As a through route the primary purpose of the Baghdad Railway was strategic. It was designed to make the Power seated at Constantinople—and that Power the Teutons were resolved should be Germany—complete master of Asia

Minor and The Middle East, and the route-selected, often criticised, was the best for the rapid movement of troops to the strategic centres. As a commercial line, the Railway, if completed, would have served three zones. The western area of Turkey in Asia at Haidar Pasha. The rich lands of Anatolia at Alexandretta. The eastern zone at Basra. The Germans, it is understood, attached immense importance to the subsequent engagements with Turkey which placed them in maritime command at Alexandretta. They began to inaugurate a commercial position in the Persian Gulf through the establishment of a subsidized line of steamers run by the great Hamburg-America corporation. They strove to obtain an actual footing in the Gulf through the German house of Wonkhaus. The Germans were probably never serious in their alleged designs on Koweit, which could never have borne a more definite relation to the commerce of the Gulf than Flushing to Antwerp or Cuxhaven to Hamburg; that was one of the red herrings they drew across their trail to divert attention from their real objective, Basra, which is destined by virtue of an unchallengeable geographical and natural position to be the great port of The Middle East. These considerations have no more than an academic value now. Germany was defeated. The Turks, when they emerged from an isolated military despotism based on Angora, were confronted with the immense problem of re-building their bankrupt State, deprived of the most intelligent section of the old population—the Greeks and the Armenians, by massacre and expulsion—were a very different factor. The completion of the through line was indefinitely postponed. But as the advantages of the route, for the purposes we have indicated, are many and great, the ultimate construction of the through line is only a matter of time, so one has placed these authoritative characteristics on record for the guidance of opinion when the project of the through route is revived, as it must be.

Turkey and the Frontier.—The position of Turkey on the Indian frontier was never of any considerable importance in itself, and never assumed any significance, save as the *avant courier* of Germany, when she passed under the tutelage of that Power, and for a limited period during the war. Although so long established in Mesopotamia, Turkey was not very firmly seated in that country, the Arabs tolerated rather than accepted Turkish rule so long as they were substantially left alone, and the administration, it is understood, never paid its way. For a brief period Midhat Pasha raised the status of Mesopotamia, and after the Revolution that fine soldier Nazim Pasha became a power in the land. But speaking broadly Turkey remained in Mesopotamia because it was no-one's interest, even that of the Arab, to turn her out. When however Germany developed her "B.B.B." policy, Turkey was used as a stalking horse. She moved a small force to the Peninsula of Al-Katr in order to frighten the Sheikh of Bahrein, and tried to convert the nominal suzerainty exercised, or rather claimed, over the Sheikh of Koweit into a *de facto* suzerainty, exercised by military force. These efforts faded before the vigorous action of the British Government which concluded a binding arrangement with the Sheikh of Koweit, and the position of the Turks at Al-Katr was always very precarious. On the outbreak of the war however the situation profoundly changed. When the sound and carefully executed expedition to Basra and its strategic hinterland was developed into the insane enterprise to capture Baghdad by *coup de main*, with very inadequate forces, and still more inadequate transport, we found ourselves involved in military operations of the most extensive and unprofitable character. These were completely successful with General Maude's occupation of Baghdad. After the Russian *debâcle* we found ourselves involved in a new front, which stretched from the Euphrates to the wildest part of Central Asia, producing military exploits of an almost epic character, but exercising little influence on the war. They were brought to an end by pressure not on extensive wings, but at the heart of Turkish Power in Palestine, where Lord Allenby scattered the Turks like chaff. But the aftermath of the war left us in an indefinite position in Mesopotamia, with indefinite frontiers. This enabled the Turks, if they were so disposed, to be troublesome through guerilla warfare in the Mosul Zone, and by stirring up the Kurds, who are the Ishmaelites of Asia Minor. The conclusion of the Treaty of Lausanne in 1923 brought temporary relief, but it did not settle the main issue, the frontier between Turkey and Irak. Under the Treaty it was provided that if the two parties could not agree to a boundary line delimitation should be left to The League of Nations. Negotiations were promptly opened at Constantinople, but it was immediately found that there could be no mutual agreement; the Turks demanded the whole of the Mosul vilayet, and the British delegates declared that Mosul and its hinterland were necessary to the existence of Irak. The issue therefore went to the League of Nations. That body despatched a neutral commission to study the position on the spot; this commission reported that the best settlement would be for the Mosul vilayet to be incorporated in Irak, if the British Government were prepared to prolong its mandate over that State for a period of twenty-five years. When the report of this commission came before the League in 1925 Britain gave the necessary guarantee, and the Council of The League unanimously allotted the Mosul vilayat to Irak. The Turkish delegates, who at first recognised the decisive authority of the League, then declared that they would not be bound by its decisions. So the matter rested at the end of the year, with Irak in occupation of the disputed up to the temporary frontier, which was known as The Brussels Line. After at first breathing nothing but armed resistance to acceptance of the award, the Turks afterward assumed a more conciliatory note, and alarmed, it may be, by the threat of Italian aggression, accepted the frontier line demarcated by the League.

France and the Frontier.—If we touch for a few sentences on the position of France on the frontiers of India, it is not because they have any present day significance, but in order to complete this brief survey of the waxing and waning of external influences on Indian frontier policy. It is difficult to find any sound policy behind the efforts of France to obtain a coaling

station at Maskat in the Persian Gulf, and her long opposition to the steps necessary to extirpate the slave trade, and hold in check the immense traffic in arms which was equipping all the tribesmen on our North-West Frontier with rifles of precision and a large supply of ammunition. We can find no more definite purpose in it than a general pin-pricking policy, a desire to play the part of Russia, and perhaps a source of annoyance to Great Britain, which would form a useful lever for the exaction of considerable cessions in West Africa, particularly in the neighbourhood of Gambia, as the price of abstention. These embarrassments were slowly removed one by one after the conclusion of the Anglo-French Entente. Far otherwise was it in the East. The consolidation of French authority in French Indo-China was the prelude to designs for the expansion of this authority at the expense of Siam and to find compensation there for the veiled British protectorate of Egypt. There had earlier been mutterings in Burma. We were established in Lower Burma in the thirties and in the eighties the foolish and tyrannical King Theebaw, in Upper Burma, became an impossible neighbour, and ambitious Frenchmen were not averse to fanning his opposition to the British. However, if any hopes were entertained of extending the Asiatic possessions of France in this direction, they were dissipated by the Second Burmese War and the firm establishment of British rule. Far otherwise was it on the confines of Siam. It was the fixed purpose of British policy to preserve Siam as a buffer state between Burma, then a regular Province of the Indian Empire, and French Indo-China. This policy was definitely challenged by French encroachments on Siam. Matters approached a crisis in 1894, and we were within measurable distance of a situation which might have ended in open war between the two States. But as in the case of Penjdeh, and later when Major Marchand marched across Africa to Fashoda, the imminence of hostilities made statesmen on both sides ask themselves what they might be going to fight about. They found there was nothing essential and an agreement was negotiated between the two Powers, which secured the independence and integrity of Siam. That agreement has been consolidated by wise and progressive rule in Siam itself, under its own independent sovereign, who is imbued with a strong friendship for Great Britain, whilst at the same time maintaining good relations with French neighbours.

The New Frontier Problem.—The whole purpose of this brief sketch has been to show that for three generations—most assuredly since the events leading to the Afghan War of 1838—the Indian frontier problem has never been a local problem. It has been dominated by external influences—in the main the long struggle between Great Britain and Russia, for a brief period the German ambition to build up a dominant position in the East through the revival of the land route, and to a much lesser extent by the ambitions of France and Turkey. The circumstances affecting the Frontier from centres beyond it have greatly changed. Old dangers have disappeared. And, generally, conditions have become more like those normal to critical land frontiers anywhere in the world in this present time of swift communications, aerial operations and easy propaganda. Consequently, a great deal of new attention is necessarily being directed to local aspects of the general problem. The tribesman was always an opponent to be respected. Brave, hardy, fanatical, he has always been a first-class fighting man. Knowing every inch of the inhospitable country to which punitive operations must of necessity take place he has hung on our rearguards and given them an infinite of trouble. Even when armed with a jezail and when every cartridge had to be husbanded with jealous care, the tribesman was a respectable antagonist. Now the tribesmen are everywhere armed with magazine rifles, either imported through the Persian Gulf when gunrunning was a thriving occupation, stolen from British magazines, or secured from Russian and Afghan sources. They have an abundant supply of ammunition. Considerable numbers of the fighting men have been trained in the ranks of the Indian Army, either as Regulars in the Pathan regiments, or else in the tribal militias. We found this to our cost in the events following the Afghan War of 1919. The Afghan regular army was of little account. The tribesmen who rose at the call of the jihad, especially in Waziristan, were of great account. They gave our troops the hardest fighting they have ever had on the Frontier; their marksmanship and fire discipline were described by experienced soldiers as admirable. The tribal militia, the keystone of the Curzon system, had for all practical purposes disappeared. What was to take its place?

Immediately following the Afghan War, the frontier positions were garrisoned by regular troops, but this was only a temporary measure. It may be said that the crux of the situation was in **Waziristan.** This sector of the Frontier has always been the most difficult of the whole, because of the intractable character of the people, and of their inveterate raiding activities. Besides, possessing a bolt hole into Afghanistan they had in the past evaded effective punishment. In view of the complete disappearance of the external menace, and the consequent lapsing of any necessity to preserve open lines of communication which would enable us to go to the support of Afghanistan, now formally recognised in the Treaty of 1921 as a completely independent State, there were many who urged the desirability of complete withdrawal, even to the line of the Indus. This extreme school gained little support. Our position in Quetta on the one side and Peshawar on the other is fully consolidated, and no good case could be made out for withdrawing from it. On the other hand, there was a strong case made out for leaving the tribesmen severely alone from the Gomal to the Kurram, and dealing with them if they emerged from their fastnesses. The military standpoint was that the Waziris are absolutely intractable; that it was unfair to impose on troops the frequent necessity of punitive operations in most arduous conditions; and that the only solution of the question was the occupation of dominant points in Waziristan, as far north as Ladha, and linking these posts with our military bases, and particularly with the termini of the Indian frontier railways, by good motor roads.

This controversy lasted long. It resulted in a typically British compromise which specially arose from the changed conditions in which we found ourselves in 1922, when our troops were in occupation of Waziristan as a result of the operations forced upon us for the suppression of the tribal outbreak which the Afghans stirred up in support of their invasion of India in 1919. The ensuing policy has been aptly described as the "half-forward" policy. It is in truth a repetition of the Sandeman policy, adapted to local conditions. There has been no withdrawal in the ordinary sense of the term, but the limit of the North Waziristan occupation was temporarily fixed at Ramzak, not at Ladha. A network of consequential roads was pushed forward. Its elaboration continues. In South Waziristan, Wana has been re-occupied, partly in response to a pressing invitation from the Wana Wazirs, because they wanted to share the benefits which they saw British occupation to be bringing to their cousins northward of them. In February, 1933, control over tribal territory was pushed forward beyond Razmak towards the Afghan Border because of a rebellion on the Afghan side and of the need to assist the King of Kabul by preventing excursions by bodies of Wazirs into His Majesty's disturbed territory. The work of control and of civilization is rapidly progressing in the whole territory. But of this particulars are given on 272 and following pages.

The main Indian rail-head, which for many years terminated at Jamrud, at the easterly entrance to the Khyber Pass, was in the autumn of 1925 extended to Landi Khana, at the opposite end of the Pass and within a mile of the frontier between India and Afghanistan.

I.—THE PERSIAN GULF.

From what has gone before it will be seen that the keynote of this discussion of Indian frontier policy is that the external menace has largely disappeared. No part of the frontier is more powerfully influenced by this consideration than the Persian Gulf. Our first appearance in the Gulf was in connection with the long struggle for supremacy with the Portuguese, the French and the Dutch, who had established trading stations there. With the capture and destruction of the great entrepot which the Portuguese had established at Ormuz, the supersession of the land by the sea route, and the appearance of anarchy in the interior the importance of the Gulf declined. The Indian Government remained there primarily to preserve the peace. This work it quietly and efficiently performed. Piracy was stamped out, the Trucial Chiefs, who occupy the Pirate Coast, were gradually brought into close relations with the Government, the vessels of the Royal Navy kept watch and ward, and our consuls regulated the external affairs of the Arab rulers on the Arab coast. In return for these services Great Britain claimed no selfish advantages. The waters of the Gulf were kept free to the navigation of the ships of all nations, and though Great Britain could have made any territorial acquisitions she pleased she retained possession of only the tiny station of Bassidu. Left to herself Great Britain desired no other policy, but for a quarter of a century the Gulf was involved in European affairs. France sought to acquire a coaling station at Jissa, near Maskat, and obstructed the efforts of the British Government to stamp out the slave trade and to check the immense traffic in arms which was equipping the tribes on our land frontier with weapons of precision and quantities of ammunition. All causes of difference were gradually removed by agreements following the Anglo-French Entente. Russia sent one of her finest cruisers to "show the flag" in the Gulf, and established consular posts where there were no interests of preserve. She was credited with the intention of occupying a warm water port, and in particular with casting covetous eyes on the most dreadful spot in the Gulf, Bunder Abbas. This menace declined after the signing of the Anglo-Russian Agreement and disappeared with the collapse of Russian power following the Revolution. Then Turkey, either acting for herself, or as the *avant courier* of Germany, under whose domination she had passed, began to stir. She threatened the Sheikh of Bahrein by the armed occupation of the peninsula of Al-Katr, and moved troops to enforce her suzerainty over Koweit, the best port in the Persian Gulf and a possible terminus of the Baghdad Railway. Further to consolidate her interests, or to stake out a claim, Germany sent the heavily-subsidized ships of the Hamburg-America line to the Gulf, where they comported themselves as the instruments of Imperial policy rather than as inoffensive merchantmen. She also strove, through the agency of the firm of Wonkhaus, to acquire a territorial footing on the island of Shargah. These events stirred the British Government to an unusual activity in the waters of the Gulf.

Counter Measures.

The first effective steps to counter these influences were taken during the vigorous viceroyalty of Lord Curzon, who visited the Gulf during his early travels and incorporated a masterly survey of its features in his monumental work on Persia. He appointed the ablest men he could find to the head of affairs, established several new consulates, and was instrumental in improving the sea communications with the Gulf ports. The British Government also took alarm. They were fortified in their stand against foreign intrigue by the opinion of a writer of unchallenged authority. The American Naval writer, the late Admiral Mahan, placed on record his view that "Concession in the Persian Gulf, whether by formal arrangement (with other Powers) or by neglect of the local commercial interests which now underlie political and military control, will imperil Great Britain's naval position in the Farther East, her political position in India, her commercial interests in both, and the Imperial tie between herself and Australasia." The Imperial standpoint, endorsed by both Parties in the State, was set out by Lord Lansdowne in

Khanikin
Hamadan
Baghdad
Sultanabad
Kashan
Herat
PERSIA
Ispahan
Yezd
DASHT-I-LUT
AFGHANISTAN
Girishk
Kandahar
Helmand R.
Nasirabad
Bandar-i-Khamal
Khan Nushki
Kalat
Robat
Chagai
BALUCHISTAN
Jalk
Bampur
Kuhak
Panjgur
Turbat
Pasni
Karachi
Gwadar
Charbar
Jask
Dibba
Gwattar
Bam
Bushire
Kerman
Shiraz
Lingah
Bunder Abbas
Basra
Shat el Arab
R. Tigris
R. Euphrates
Koweit
PERSIAN GULF
Bahrein
El Bidaa
Rasal Kheima
Shargah
PIRATE COAST
Sohar
GULF OF OMAN
Muscat
ARABIAN SEA
OMAN
Scale.
100 200 300 Miles.

words of great import—"We (*i.e.*, His Majesty's Government) should regard the establishment of a naval base or of a fortified port in the Persian Gulf by any other Power as a very grave menace to British interests, which we should certainly resist with all the means at our disposal." The negative measures following these declarations were followed by a constructive policy when the oil fields in the Bakhtiari country, with a great refinery, were developed by the Anglo-Persian Oil Company, in which the British Government has a large financial stake. But with the disappearance of these external forces on Gulf policy, as set out in the introduction to this section, the politics of the Persian Gulf receded in importance, until they are now. more than they were before these external influences developed, a local question, mainly a question of policy. They are therefore set out more briefly and those who desire a complete narrative are referred to the Indian Year Book for 1923, pp. 178-183. An interesting new feature in 1931 was the decision of the Persian Government to instal a Navy of their own in the Gulf. The fleet consisting of two sloops and four launches, all suitably armed, was built in Italy and duly arrived at its destination in 1932. It is at the outset officered by Italians. The immediate reason for the new fleet is that an increase in the Persian Customs tariff for revenue purposes led to extensive smuggling. The fleet is required to check it.

Maskat.

Maskat, which is reached in about forty-eight hours from Karachi, is outside the Persian Gulf proper. It lies three hundred miles south of Cape Musandim, which is the real entrance to the Gulf, but its natural strength and historical prestige combine to make it inseparable from the politics of the Gulf, with which it has always been intimately associated.

Formerly Maskat was part of a domain which embraced Zanzibar, and the Islands of Kishm and Larak, with Bunder Abbas on the Persian shore. Zanzibar was separated from it by agreement, and the Persians succeeded in establishing their authority over the possessions on the eastern shore.

The relations between Britain and Maskat have been intimate for a century and more. It was under British auspices that the separation between Zanzibar and Maskat was effected, the Sheikh accepted a British subsidy in return for the suppression of the slave trade and in 1892 sealed his dependence upon us by concluding a treaty pledging himself not to cede any part of his territory without our consent.

The Pirate Coast.

Turning Cape Musandim and entering the Gulf Proper, we pass the Pirate Coast, controlled by the six Trucial Chiefs. The ill-name of this territory has now ceased to have any meaning, but in the early days it had a very real relation to the actual conditions. The pirates were the boldest of their kind, and they did not hesitate to attack on occasion, and not always without success, the Company's ships of war. Large expeditions were fitted out to break their power, with such success that since 1820 no considerable punitive measures have been necessary. The Trucial Chiefs are bound to Great Britain by a series of engagements, beginning with 1806 and ending with the perpetual treaty of 1853 by which they bound themselves to avoid all hostilities at sea, and the subsequent treaty of 1873 by which they undertook to prohibit altogether the traffic in slaves. The relations of the Trucial Chiefs are controlled by the British Resident at Bushire, who visits the Pirate Coast every year on a tour of inspection.

The commercial importance of the Pirate Coast is increasing through the rise of Debai. Formerly Lingah was the entrepot for this trade, but the exactions of the Belgian Customs officials in the employ of Persia drove this traffic from Lingah to Debai. The Trucial Chiefs are—Debai, Abu Thabee, Shargah, Ajman, Um-al-Gawain and Ras-el-Kheyma.

Bahrein.

North of the Pirate Coast lies the little Archipelago which forms the chiefship of the Sheikh of Bahrein. Of this group of islands only those of Bahrein and Maharak are of any size, but their importance is out of all proportion to their extent. This is the great centre of the Gulf pearl fishery, which, in a good year, may be worth half a million pounds sterling. The anchorage is wretched, and at certain states of the tide ships have to lie four miles from the shore, which is not even approachable by boats, and passengers, mails and cargo have to be handed on the donkeys for which Bahrein is famous. But this notwithstanding the trade of the port is valued at over a million and a quarter sterling, and the customs revenue, which amounts to some eighty thousand pounds makes the Sheikh the richest ruler in the Gulf.

In the neighbourhood of Bahrein is the vast burying ground which has hitherto baffled archæologists. The generally accepted theory is that it is a relic of the Phœnicians, who are known to have traded in these waters.

Koweit.

In the north-west comer of the Gulf lies the port which has made more stir than any place of similar size in the world. The importance of Koweit lies solely in the fact that it is a possible Gulf terminus of the Baghdad Railway. This is no new discovery, for when the Euphrates Valley Railway was under discussion, General Chesney selected it under the alternative name of the Grane—so called from the resemblance of the formation of the Bay to a pair of horns—as the sea terminus of the line. Nowhere else would Koweit be called a good or a promising port. The Bay is 20 miles deep and 5 miles broad, but so shallow that heavy expense would have to be incurred to render it suitable for modern ocean-going steamers. It is sheltered from all but the westerly winds; and the clean thriving town is peopled by some 20,000 inhabitants, chiefly dependent on the sea, for the mariners of Koweit are noted for their boldness and hardihood.

Muhammerah.

On the opposite side of the entrance to the Shatt-el-Arab lie the territories of Sheikh Khazzal of Muhammerah. The town, favourably situated near the mouth of the Karun River, has grown in importance since the opening of the Karun River route to trade through the enterprise of Messrs. Lynch Brothers. This route provides the shortest passage to Ispahan and the central tableland, and already competes with the older route by way of Bushire and Shiraz. This importance has grown since the Anglo-Persian Oil Company established refineries at Muhammerah for the oil which they win in the rich fields which they have tapped near Ahwaz. Its importance will be still further accentuated, by the opening of the railway to Khorremabad by way of Dizful which is now under construction.

Basra.

In a sense Basra and Turkish Arabistan can hardly be said to come within the scope of the frontiers of India, yet they are so indissolubly associated with the politics of the Gulf that they must be considered in relation thereto. Basra is the present sea terminus of the Baghdad Railway. It stands on the Shatt-el-Arab, sixty miles from its mouth, favourably situated to receive the whole water-borne trade of the Tigris and Euphrates Rivers. The local traffic is valuable, for the richness of the date groves on either side of the Shattel-Arab is indescribable, there is a considerable entrepot traffic, whilst Basra is the port of entry for Baghdad and for the trade with Persia, which follows the caravan route *via* Kermanshah and Hamadan.

The political destinies of Basra are at present wrapped up with the destinies of the new Arab State which we have set up in Mesopotamia under King Feisal. When the war was over we found ourselves committed to immense, undefined and burdensome responsibilities in that land. The sound concepts which dictated the original expedition were dislocated in the foolish advance to Baghdad; then the great military enterprises necessitated by the fall of Kut-al-Amara carried our frontier north to Mosul and the mountains of Kurdistan, east to the Persian boundary, and west to the confines of Trans-Jordania. Amongst ardent Imperialists, there was undoubtedly the hope that this immense area would be in one way or another an integral part of the British Empire. The cold fit followed when the cost was measured, and the Arabs rose in a revolt which showed that any such domination could only be maintained by force of arms and that the cost would be prodigious. In these circumstances King Feisal was imported from the Hedjaz and installed on the throne under the aegis of Great Britain. Still we were committed to the support of the new kingdom, and that most dangerous condition arose—responsibility without any real power unless King Feisal was to be a mere puppet, immense expenditure and indefinite military commitments. In these circumstances there was an insistent demand for withdrawal from the land. British policy moved slowly towards that end, but a definite step was taken in 1923. The Secretary of State for the Colonies announced this policy in a statement which is reproduced textually, for the purpose of reference. Addressing the House of Lords on May 3rd he said—

Your Lordships will remember that the Cabinet have been discussing this matter for some time and decisions have now been taken. Sir Percy Cox has accordingly been authorised by His Majesty's Government to make an announcement at Baghdad, the terms of which I propose to read out to Your Lordships. This announcement was drawn up in consultation with King Feisal and his Government, and has their cordial assent. It is being published at Baghdad to-day.

The announcement is as follows:—

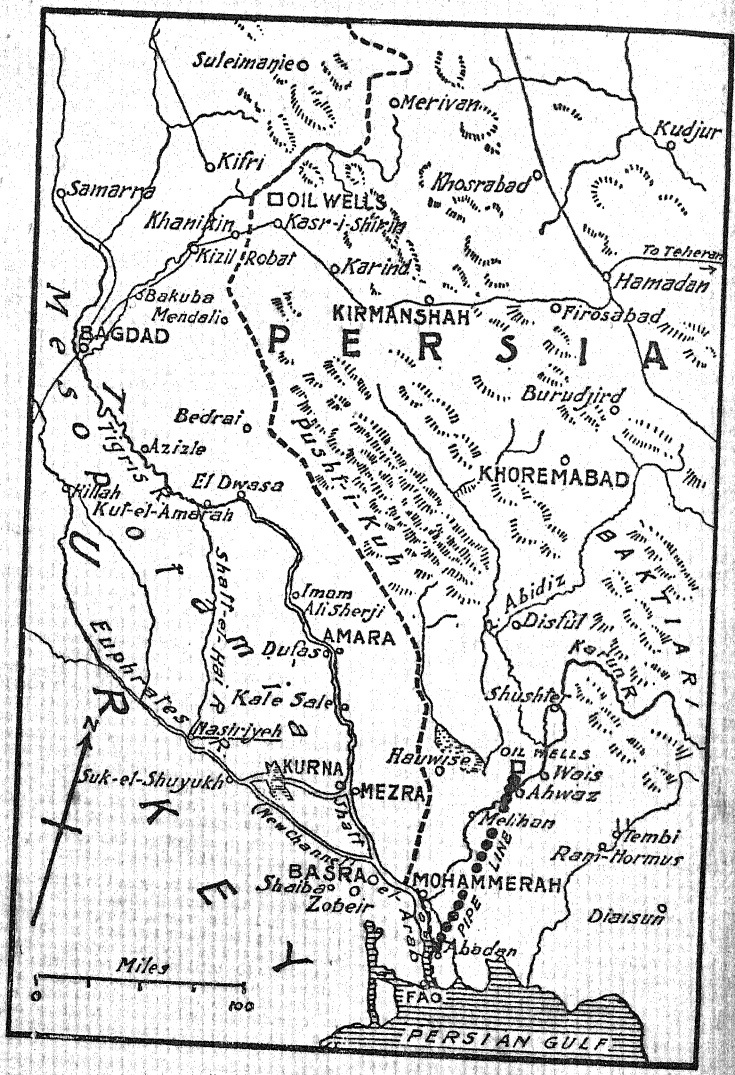
"It will be remembered that in the autumn of last year, after a lengthy exchange of views, it was decided between the Governments of His Britannic Majesty and His Majesty King Feisal that a Treaty of Alliance should be entered into between His Britannic Majesty and His Majesty the King of Iraq. This Treaty which was signed on the 10th October, 1922, and the term of which was to be twenty years (subject to periodical revision at the desire of either party) provided for the establishment of an independent Constitutional Government in Iraq, enjoying a certain measure of advice and assistance from Great Britain of the nature and extent indicated in the text of the Treaty itself and of subsidiary Agreements which were to be made thereunder.

"Since then the Iraq Government has made great strides along the path of independence, and stable existence and has been able successfully to assume administrative responsibility and both parties being equally anxious that the commitments and responsibilities of His Majesty's Government in respect of Iraq should be terminated as soon as possible, it is considered that the period of the Treaty in its present form can conveniently be shortened. In order to obviate the inconvenience of introducing amendments into the body of a Treaty already signed, it has been decided to bring about the necessary modifications by means of a protocol which, like the Treaty itself, will be subject to ratification by the Constituent Assembly.

"Accordingly a protocol has now been signed by the parties in the following terms:—

It is understood between the High Contracting Parties that, notwithstanding the provisions of Article 18, the present Treaty is all terminate upon Iraq becoming member of the League of Nations and in any case not later than four years from the ratification of peace with Turkey. Nothing in this protocol shall prevent a fresh agreement from being concluded with a view to regulate the subsequent relations between the High Contracting Parties; and negotiations for that object shall be entered into between them before the expiration of the above period."

It will be noticed that under this protocol the Treaty in its present form was to terminate on the entry of Iraq into the League of Nations or in four years, whichever might be earlier.


Suleimanie
Merivan
Kudjur
Kifri
Samarra
OIL WELLS
Khosrabad
Khanikin
Kasr-i-Shirin
To Teheran
Kizil Robat
Karind
Hamadan
Bakuba
Mendali
KIRMANSHAH
Firosabad
BAGDAD
PERSIA
Burudjird
Bedrai
Azizie
Tigris R.
Pusht-i-Kuh
KHOREMABAD
Hillah
El Dwasa
Kut-el-Amerah
Shatt-el-Hai R.
Imam Ali Sherji
Abidiz
Disful
BAKHIARI
Euphrates R.
AMARA
Dujas
Kale Sale
Karun R.
Shushter
Nasiriyeh
Hauwise
oil wells
Wais
Ahwaz
Suk-el-Shuyukh
KURNA
MEZRA
Shatt-el-Arab
Melihan
Tembi
Rami-Hormus
BASRA
MOHAMMERAH
Shaiba
Zobeir
Pipe Line
Diarsun
Abadan
Miles
0
100
FAO
PERSIAN GULF

The position of Iraq as regards the League was that when the Treaty was ratified His Britannic Majesty was bound under Article 6 to use his good offices to secure the admission of Iraq to membership of the League of Nations as soon as possible. His Majesty's Government would be in a position to take this step on the fulfilment of the two following essential conditions, namely, the delimitation of the frontiers of Iraq, and the establishment of a stable government in accordance with the Organic Law.

The Council of the League of Nations in January, 1932, adopted the report of the Iraq Commission recommending the termination of the mandate subject to the admission of Iraq to membership of the League and Iraq entering into a number of undertakings, with regard to treatment of minorities and the administration of justice. This means the termination of the mandate when the next Assembly of the League voted for the admission of Iraq to League membership.

Under the Treaty of Lausanne between Turkey and the Powers, which was signed in 1923, it was agreed that the frontier between King Feisal's State and Turkey, the important frontier because the future of Mosul was in dispute, should be settled by the League of Nations, should Great Britain and Turkey be unable to come to agreement by direct negotiation. These direct negotiations were opened at Constantinople, but no agreement was reached, so the question was opened before the Council of the League in September 1924. Whilst the matter was under discussion complaint was made by Great Britain that Turkey had violated the provisional frontier drawn in the Treaty of Lausanne, and certain irregular hostilities were carried on in the disputed zone. This matter too was remitted to the League, and a further provisional boundary was drawn, which was accepted by both parties.

Here the matter remained until the autumn of 1925. In order to secure the material for a decision the League of Nations despatched a neutral commission to Mosul to investigate the situation. This commission produced a long and involved report, but one which led by devious paths to a common sense recommendation. It was that the first essential in the Mosul vilayet is stable government. The desires of the people were for incorporation in the State of Iraq. If therefore the British Government was willing to extend its mandate over Iraq for a further period of twenty-five years—a guarantee of stable government—then Mosul should be incorporated in Iraq; if Britain was not willing, then Mosul should return to Turkey. When the matter came before the Council of the League Great Britain gave the necessary guarantee. The Turks thereupon challenged the whole competence of the Council to give an award under the terms of the Treaty of Lausanne. The issue was remitted to the Court of International Justice at The Hague which decided in favour of the competence of the Council. About this time there was published the report of a distinguished Esthonian General, General Laindoner, who had been despatched by the League to investigate allegations of brutality by the Turks in deporting Christians from their own zone, and this report was of the most damning character. Great Britain having given the necessary assurance, that she was prepared to extend her mandate over Iraq for a further twenty-five years, thereupon the Council of the League allocated the whole of the area in dispute, right up to the temporary frontier—commonly called The Brussels Line—to Iraq. The Turks refused to accept the award and withdrew from Geneva threatening force. Later, wiser counsels prevailed and in 1926. Turkey accepted a frontier substantially as drawn by the League.

A New Treaty.—A new Treaty regulating the relation of Iraq with Great Britain, the Mandatory Power, was negotiated in 1927, and signed towards the end of the year. The full text is not available, but a semi-official announcement on December 20th may be regarded as substantially authentic.

The Treaty declares that there shall be peace and friendship between His Britannic Majesty and His Majesty the King of Iraq. It states that "Provided the present rate of progress in Iraq is maintained and all goes well in the interval, His Britannic Majesty will support the candidature of Iraq for admission to the League of Nations in 1932." It stipulated that separate agreements superseding those of March 25, 1924, shall regulate the financial and military relations.

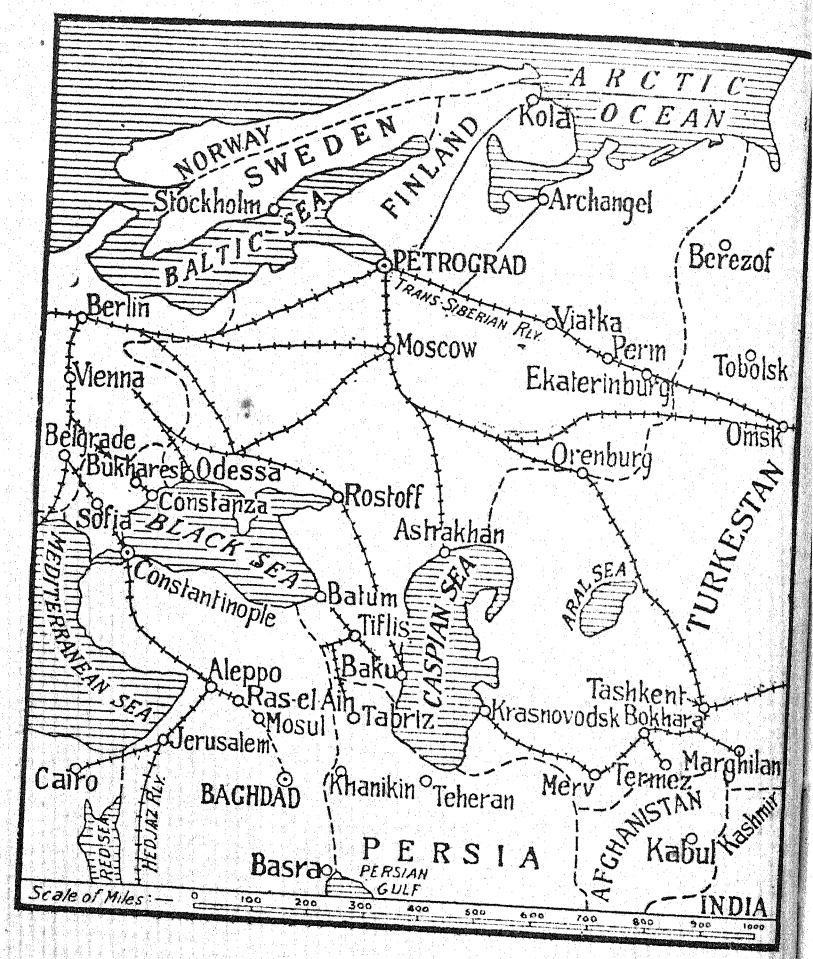
The King of Iraq undertook to secure the execution of all international obligations which His Britannic Majesty had undertaken to see carried out in respect of Iraq. He also undertook not to modify the existing provisions of Iraq's organic law so as adversely to affect the rights and interests of foreigners, and to constitute any difference in the rights before the law among Iraquis on the grounds of differences of race, religion, or language.

There was provision for full consultation between the high contracting parties in all matters of foreign policy which may affect their common interests. The King of Iraq undertook so soon as local conditions permit to accede to all general international agreements already existing, or which might be concluded thereafter, with the approval of the League of Nations, in respect of the slave trade, the traffic in drugs, arms and munitions, the traffic in women and children, transit navigation, aviation, and communications, and also to execute the provisions of the Covenant of the League of Nations, the Treaty of Lausanne, the Anglo-French Boundary Convention, and the San Remo Oil Agreement in so far as they apply to Iraq.

There was provision against discrimination in matters concerning taxation, commerce, or navigation against nationals or companies of any State which is a member of the League of Nations, or of any State to which the King of Iraq had agreed by Treaty that the same rights should be ensured as if it were a member of the League.

Any difference that might arise between the high contracting parties was to be referred to the Permanent Court of International Justice provided for by Article Fourteen of the Covenant of the League. The Treaty was made subjected to revision with the object of making all the modifications required by the circumstances when Iraq enters the League of Nations.

Railway Position in the Middle East.



It is important to remember that there is a considerable difference between the vilayet of Basra and the other portions of King Feisal's State. Basra has for long been in the closest commercial contact with India, and is in many respects a commercial appanage of Bombay. Its people have not much in common with those of the North. They took no part in the Arab rising which followed the war, and they ask nothing better than to remain in close touch with India and through India with the British Government. If we are correct in the supposition that Basra is destined to be the great port of the Middle East, then its future under an Arab State, with no experience of administration in such conditions, is one of the greatest interest, which can hardly be regarded as settled by the policy underlying the declaration which is set out above.

The Persian Shore.

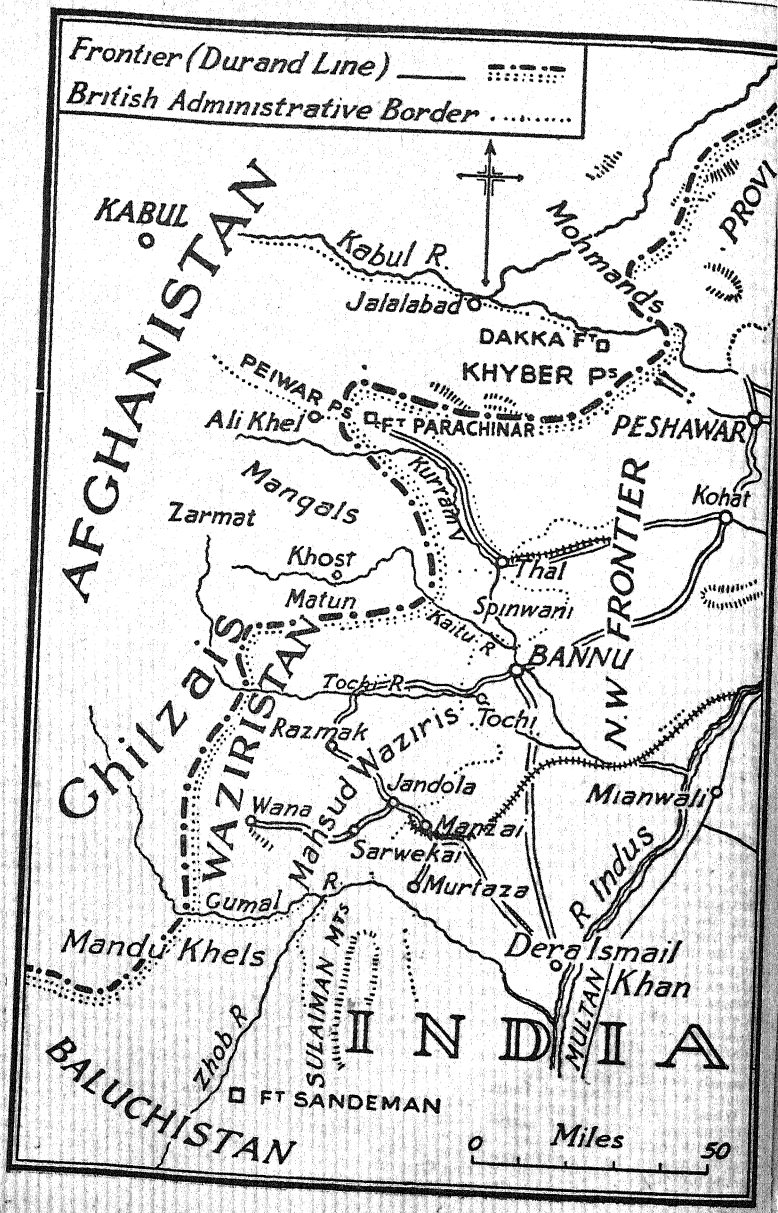
The Persian shore presents fewer points of permanent interest. The importance of Bushire is administrative rather than commercial. It is the headquarters of Persian authority, the residence of the British Resident, and the centre of many foreign consuls. It is also the main entrepot for the trade of Shiraz, and competes for that of Ispahan. But the anchorage is wretched and dangerous, the road to Shiraz passes over the notorious kotals which preclude the idea of rail connection, and if ever a railway to the central tableland is opened, the commercial value of Bushire will dwindle to insignificance. Further south lies Lingah, reputed to be the prettiest port on the Persian coast, but its trade is being diverted to Debai on the Pirate Coast. In the narrow channel which forms the entrance to the Gulf from the Arabian Sea is Bunder Abbas. Here we are at the key of the Gulf. Bunder Abbas is of some importance as the outlet for the trade of Kerman and Yezd. It is of still more importance as a possible naval base. To the west of the town between the Island of Kishm and the mainland, lie the Clarence Straits which narrow until they are less than three miles in width, and yet contain abundance of water. Here, according to sound naval opinion, there is the possibility of creating a naval base which would command the Gulf. The great obstacle is the climate, which is one of the worst in the world. On the opposite shore, under the shadow of Cape Musandim, lies another sheltered deep-water anchorage, Elphinstone's Inlet, where the climate conditions are equally vile. But between these two points there is the possibility of controlling the Gulf just as Gibraltar controls the Mediterranean. For many years Bunder Abbas loomed large in public discussions as the possible warm water port for which Russia was seeking. There is a British Naval station at Henjam, a small island close to Kism, where the station was established under agreement with the Persian authorities. On the Mekran coast, there is the cable station of Jask, and the possible port of Chamber. An interesting development in the Gulf in the past two or three years has been the institution of a Persian Navy.

II.—SEISTAN.

The concentration of public attention on the Persian Gulf was allowed to obscure the frontier importance of Seistan. Yet it was for many years a serious preoccupation with the Government of India. Seistan lies midway north and south between the point where the frontiers of Russia, Persia and Afghanistan meet at Zulfikar and that where the frontiers of Persia and of our Indian Empire meet on the open sea at Gwattur. It marches on its eastern border with Afghanistan and with Baluchistan, it commands the valley of the Helmand, and with it the road from Herat to Kandahar, and its immense resources as a wheat-producing region have been only partly developed under Persian misrule. It offers to an aggressive rival, an admirable strategic base for future military operations; it is also midway athwart the track of the shortest line which could be built to connect the Trans-Caspian Railway with the Indian Ocean, and if and when the line from Askabad to Meshed were built, the temptation to extend it through Seistan would be strong. Whilst the gaze of the British was concentrated on the North-West Frontier, and to possible lines of advance through Kandahar to Quetta, and through Kabul to Peshawar, there can be little doubt that Russian attention was directed to a more leisurely movement through Seistan, if the day came when she moved her armies against India.

Whether with this purpose or not, Russian intrigue was particularly active in Seistan in the early years of the century. Having Russia fied Khorassan, her agents moved into Seistan and through the agency of the Belgian Customs officials, "scientific missions" and an irritating plague cordon, sought to establish in fluence, and to stifle the British trade which was gradually being built up by way of Nushki. These efforts died down before the presence of the McMahon mission, which, in pursuance of Treaty rights, was demarcating the boundary between Persia and Afghanistan, with special reference to the distribution of the waters of the Helmand. They finally ceased with the conclusion of the Anglo-Russian Agreement. Since then the international importance of Seistan has waned.

The natural conditions which give to Seistan this strategic importance persist. Meantime, British influence is being consolidated through the Seistan trade route. The distance from Quetta to the Seistan border at Killa Robat is 465 miles, most of it dead level, and it has now been provided with fortified posts, dak bungalows, wells, and all facilities for caravan traffic. The railway was pushed out from Spezand, on the Bolan Railway, to Nushki, so as to provide a better starting point for the caravans than Quetta. This line was extended to Duzdap, 54 miles on the Persian side of the Indo-Persian Frontier during the war as a military measure, but the traffic after the re-establishment of peace supported only two trains a week. There then arose trouble owing to Persian insistence on the collection of Customs duties on rations taken across their frontier for the railway staff. This led to the stoppage of train running on the Persian side of the Frontier. Negotiations have now for years dragged on to bring about a reasonable settlement in regard to the situation.


Frontier (Durand Line)
British Administrative Border
KABUL
AFGHANISTAN
Kabul R.
Jalalabad
DAKKA Ft
KHYBER Ps
PEIWAR Ps
Ft PARACHINAR
Ali Khel
PESHAWAR
Mohmands
PROVI
Kurram V
Mangals
Zarmat
Khost
Matun
Thal
Spinwani
Kohat
N.W. FRONTIER
Kaitu R
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Tochi R
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III.—PERSIA.

From causes which only need to be very briefly set out, the Persian question as affecting Indian frontier policy has receded until it is of no account. Reference is made in the introduction to this section to the fact that the conclusion of the Anglo-Russian Agreement left us a bitter legacy in Persia. That Agreement divided Persia into two zones of influence, and the Persians bitterly resented this apparent division of their kingdom between the two Powers, though no such end was in view. German agents, working cleverly on this feeling, established an influence which was not suspected, and when the war broke out they were able to raise the tribes in opposition to Great Britain, in the South, and after the fall of Kut-al-Amara when a Turkish Division penetrated Western Persia, they exercised a strong influence in Teheran. With the defeat of Turkey and the Central Powers this influence disappeared, but at that time there was no authority in Persia besides that of the British Government, which had strong forces in the North-West and controlled the southern provinces through a force organised under British officers and called The South Persian Rifles. It was one of the first tasks of the British Government to regularise this position, and for this purpose an agreement was reached with the then Persian Government, the main features of which were:—

To respect Persian integrity;
To supply experts for Persian administration;
To supply officers and equipment for a Persian force for the maintenance of order;
To provide a loan for these purposes;
To co-operate with the Persian Government in railway construction and other forms of transport.

Both Governments agreed to the appointment of a joint committee to examine and revise the Customs tariff.

The second agreement defined the terms and conditions on which the loan was to be made to Persia. The loan was for £2,000,000 at 7 per cent. redeemable in 20 years. It was secured on the revenues and Customs' receipts assigned for the repayment of the 1911 loan and should these be insufficient the Persian Government was to make good the necessary sums from other sources.

The Present Position.—We have given the main points in the Anglo-Persian agreement, because few documents have been more misunderstood. Those who desire to study it in greater detail will find it set out in the Indian Year Book for 1921, page 138 *et seq.* It has been explained that most Persians construed it into a guarantee of protection against all external enemies. When the British troops in the north-west retired before the Bolsheviks, the Persians had no use for the Agreement and it soon became a dead instrument. It was finally rejected and the advisers who were to have assisted Persia under it withdrew.

A remark frequently heard amongst soldiers and politicians in India after the War was that Great Britain must take an active hand in Persia because she could not be a passive witness to chaos in that country. The view always taken in the Indian Year Book was that the internal affairs of Persia were her own concern; if she preferred chaos to order that was her own look-out, but left alone she would hammer out some form of Government. That position has been justified. The Sirdar Sipah, or commander-in-chief, a rough but energetic soldier, gradually took charge of Persian affairs and established a thinly-veiled military dictatorship which made the Government feared and respected throughout the country for the first time since the assassination of Shah Nasr-ed-din. A body of capable Americans under Dr. Millspaugh restored order to the chaotic finances. These two forces operating in unison gave Persia the best government she had known for a generation. But the Sirdar Sipah chafed under the irregularities of his position, with a Shah spending his time in Europe and wasting the resources of the country. He moved to have his position regularised by the deposition of the absentee Shah and his own ascent of the throne. At first he was defeated by the opposition of the Mollahs, but in 1925 prevailed, and the Shah was formally deposed and the Sirdar Sipah chosen monarch in his place. The change was made without disturbance, and Persia entered on a period of peace and consolidation which has removed it from the disturbing forces in the post-war world. Since then considerable progress has been made with the reform of the administration, and many projects are afoot for the improvement of communications, which is the greatest need of the land, such as an air service to Teheran and railway construction. The least reassuring episode was the departure of the American financial mission, which had done admirable work in the restoration of the finances. When their contract expired Dr. Millspaugh and his colleagues were offered a renewal of it on terms which they did not regard as satisfactory, especially in regard to the powers they were to exercise. They therefore withdrew from the country, and have been replaced by other foreign advisers. The general situation was gravely disturbed in 1932 by the sudden termination by the Persian Government of the Anglo-Persian Oil Co's concession, a matter affecting one of the biggest industrial undertakings in the world and millions sterling of capital. The intervention of the British Government led to the reference of the trouble to the League of Nations and this paved the way for negotiations between the Company and the Persian Government. While these were being settled some progress was also made with general negotiations between the British and Persian Governments for an agreement covering all outstanding points of difficulty between them.

Sir R. H. Clive, K.C.M.G., is British Minister at Teheran.

H. B. M.'s Consul-General and Agent of the Government of India in Khorasan—Lt.-Col. C. C. J. Barrett, C.S.I., C.I.E.

H. B. M.'s Consul in Seistan and Kain—Major C. K. Daly, C.I.E.

IV.—THE PRESENT FRONTIER PROBLEM.

There yet remains a small part of British India where the King's writ does not run. Under what is called the Durand Agreement with the Amir of Afghanistan, the boundary between India and Afghanistan was settled, and it was delimited in 1903 except for a small section which was delimited after the Afghan War in 1919. But the Government of India have never occupied up to the border. Between the administered territory and the Durand line there lies a belt of territory of varying width extending from the Gomal Pass in the south, to Kashmir in the north; this is generically known as the Tribal Territory. Its future is the keynote of the interminable discussions of frontier policy for nearly half a century.

This is a country of deep valleys and secluded glens, which nature has fenced in with almost inaccessible mountains. It is peopled with wild tribes of mysterious origin, in whom Afghan, Tartar, Turkoman, Persian, Indian, Arab and Jewish intermingle. They had lived their own lives for centuries, with little intercourse even amongst themselves, and as Sir Valentine Chirol truly said "the only bond that ever could unite them in common action was the bond of Islam." It is impossible to understand the Frontier problem unless two facts are steadily borne in mind. The strongest sentiment amongst these strange people is the desire to be left alone. They value their independence much more than their lives. The other factor is that the country does not suffice even in good years to maintain the population. They must find the means of subsistence outside, either in trade, by service in the Indian Army or in the Khassadars, or else in the outlet which hill-men all the world over have utilised from time immemorial, the raiding of the wealthier and more peaceful population of the Plains.

Frontier Policy.

The policy of the Government of India toward the Independent Territory has ebbed and flowed in a remarkable degree. It has fluctuated between the Forward School, which would occupy the frontier up to the confines of Afghanistan, and the school of Masterly Inactivity, which would leave the tribesmen entirely to their own resources, punishing them only when they raided British territory. Behind both the policies lay the menace of a Russian invasion, and that coloured our frontier policy until the Anglo-Russian Agreement. This induced what was called Hit and Retire tactics. In the half century which ended in 1897 there were nearly a score of punitive expeditions, each one of which left behind a legacy of distrust, and which brought no permanent improvement in its train. The fruit of the suspicion thus engendered was seen in 1897. Then the whole Frontier, from the Malakand to the Gomal, was ablaze. The extent of this rising and the magnitude of the military measures which were taken to meet it compelled a consideration of the whole position. The broad outlines of the new policy were laid down in a despatch from the Secretary of State for India; which prescribed for the Government the "limitation of your interference with the tribes, so as to avoid the extension of administrative control over tribal territory." It fell to Lord Curzon to give effect to this policy. The main foundations of his action were to exercise over the tribes the political influence requisite to secure our imperial interests, to pay them subsidies for the performance of specific duties, but to respect their tribal independence and leave them, as far as possible, free to govern themselves according to their own traditions and to follow their own inherited habits of life without let or hindrance.

New Province.

As a first step Lord Curzon took the control of the tribes under the direct supervision of the Government of India. Up to this point they had been in charge of the Government of the Punjab, a province whose head is busied with many other concerns. Lord Curzon created in 1901 the North-West Frontier Province, and placed it in charge of a Chief Commissioner, with an intimate frontier experience, directly subordinate to the Government of India. This was a revival of a scheme prepared by Lord Lytton in 1877, and often considered afterwards, but which had slipped for lack of driving power. Next, Lord Curzon withdrew the regular troops so far as possible from the advanced posts, and placed these fortalices in charge of tribal levies, officered by a handful of British officers. The most successful of these was the Khyber Rifles, which steadfastly kept the peace of that historic Pass until 1919. At the same time the regular troops were cantoned in places whence they could quickly move to any danger point, and these bases were connected with the Indian railway system. In pursuance of this policy frontier railways were run out to Dargai, and a narrow-gauge line, since converted to the broad-gauge, was constructed from Kushalgarh to Kohat, at the entrance of the Kohat Pass, and to Thal in the midst of the Kurram Valley. These railways were completed by lines to Tonk and Bannu. By this means the striking power of the regular forces was greatly increased. Nor was the policy of economic development neglected. The railways gave a powerful stimulus to trade and the Lower Swat Canal converted fractious tribesmen into successful agriculturists. This policy of economic development is receiving a great development through the completion of the Upper Swat Canal (*q. v.* Irrigation). Now it is completed there are other works awaiting attention. For many years this policy was completely justified by results.

A New Policy.

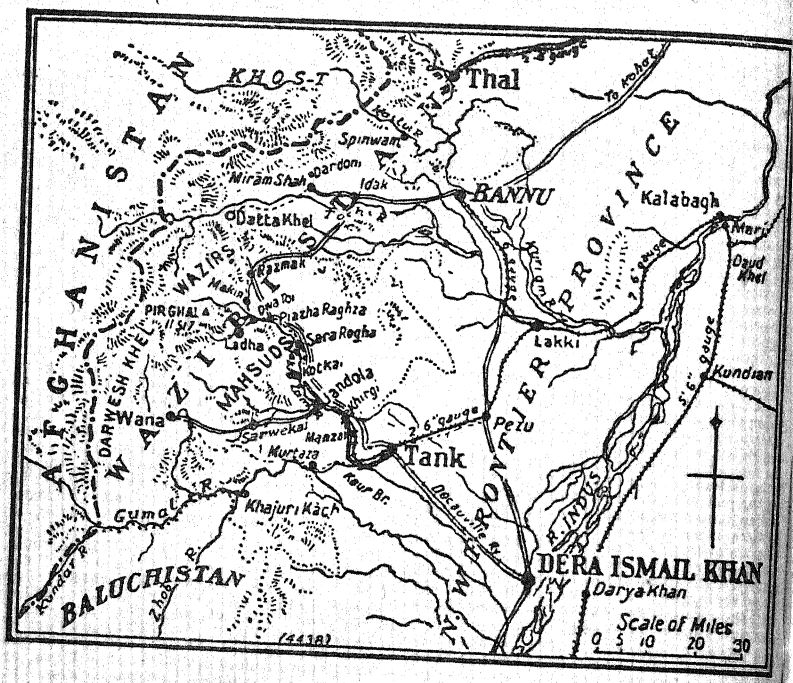
It saved us from serious complications for nearly twenty years, although the position could never be said to be entirely satisfactory, particularly in Waziristan, peopled by the most reckless raiders on the whole border-line, with a bolt hole into Afghanistan when pressed from the British side. It endured through the Great War and did not break

down until the Amir of Afghanistan sought refuge from his internal troubles in a jehad against India. In this insane enterprise the Afghans placed less reliance in their regular troops, which have never offered more than a contemptible resistance to the British forces than in the armed tribesmen. In this they were justified, for the Indian Military authorities failed to give timely support to the advanced militia posts, some of these posts were ordered to withdraw, the Militia collapsed and the most serious fighting was with the tribesmen. The tribal levies collapsed with almost universal swiftness. The Southern Waziristan Militia broke and there was serious trouble throughout the Zhob district. The Afridis, our most serious enemies in 1897, and the most powerful of the tribes on the North-West Frontier, remained fairly quiet throughout the actual hostilities with Afghanistan, but later it was necessary to take measures against a leading malcontent and destroy his fort at Chora. But the Mahsuds and the Waziris broke into open hostilities. Their country lies within the belt bounded by the Durand Line and the Afghan frontier on the west, and by the districts of Bannu and Dehra Ismail Khan on the east. Amongst them the Afghan emissaries were particularly active and as they could put in the field some 30,000 warriors, 75 per cent. armed with modern weapons of precision, they constituted formidable adversaries. They refused to make peace even when the Afghans craved in. They rejected our terms and active measures were taken against them. The fighting was the most severe in the history of the Frontier. The Mahsuds fought with great tenacity. Their shooting was amazingly good; their tactics were admirable, for amongst their ranks were many men trained either in the Militia or in the Indian Army; and more than once they came within measurable distance of considerable success. They were assisted by the fact that the best trained troops in the Indian Army were still overseas and younger soldiers were opposed to them. But their very tenacity and bravery were their own undoing; their losses were the heaviest in the long history of the Borderland and when the Mahsuds made their complete submission in September 1921 they were more severely chastened than at any time during their career.

A New Chapter.—As the result of the Afghan War of 1919, Indian frontier policy was again thrown into the melting pot. There was much vague discussion of the position in the course of the months which followed the Afghan War and the troubles in Waziristan which succeeded it, but this discussion did not really come to a head until February-March 1922. The Budget then presented to the country revealed a serious financial position. It showed that despite serious increases in taxation, the country had suffered a series of deficits, which had been financed out of borrowings. Further heavy taxation was proposed in this Budget, but even then the equilibrium which the financial authorities regarded as of paramount importance was not attained. When the accounts were examined, it was seen that the heaviest charges on the exchequer were those under Military Expenses, and that there was an indefinitely large, and seemingly unending expenditure on Waziristan. This forced the Military, and allied with it the Frontier, expenditure to the front. In actual practice the discussion was really focussed on Waziristan. In essentials it was the aged controversy—shall we deal with this part of the Frontier on what is known as the Sandeman system, namely, by occupying commanding posts within the country itself, dominating the tribesmen but interfering little in their own affairs; or shall we revert to what was known as the close border system, as modified by Lord Curzon, of withdrawing our regular troops to strategic positions outside the tribal area, leaving the tribesmen, organised into militia, to keep the passes open, and punishing the tribesmen by expeditions when their raiding propensities become unbearable.

The Curzon Policy.—The Curzon policy, adopted in 1899, to clear up the aftermath of the serious and unsatisfactory Frontier rising in 1897, was a compromise between the "occupation" and the "close border" policies. It was based on the withdrawal of the regular troops so far as possible to cantonments in rear whilst the frontier posts, such as those in the Tochi at Wana and in the Khyber and Kurram were held by militia, recruited from amongst the tribesmen themselves. The cantonments for regular troops were linked so far as possible with the Indian railway system, so as to permit of rapid reinforcement. But it must be remembered that like all Frontier students, Lord Curzon did not regard this as the final policy. He wrote in the Memorandum formulating his ideas: "It is of course inevitable that in the passage of time the whole Waziri country up to the Durand line will come more and more under our control. No policy in the world can resist or greatly retard that consummation. My desire is to bring it about by gradual degrees and above all without the constant aid and presence of British troops." The Curzon policy, though it was not pursued with the steadfastness he would have followed if he had remained in control, gave us moderate—or rather it should be said bearable—frontier conditions until the Afghan War. It then broke down, because the tribal militia, on which it was based, could not, when left without the support of regular troops in the day of need, withstand the wave of fanaticism and other conditions set up by the Afghan invasion of 1919. The Khyber militia faded away; the Waziri militia either mutinied, as at Wana, or deserted. The pillar of the Curzon system fell.

The Policy.—The policy first adumbrated to meet these changed conditions was outlined by Lord Chelmsford, the then Viceroy, in a speech which he addressed to the Indian Legislature. He said it had been decided to retain commanding posts in Waziristan; to open up the country by roads; to extend the main Indian railway system from its then terminus, Jamrud, through the Khyber to the frontier of Afghanistan, and to take over the duties of the Militia by regular troops. That immediate policy was soon modified so far as the policing of these frontier lines by regular troops was concerned. Such duties are immensely unpopular in the regular army, which is not organised and equipped for work of this character. Irregulars have always existed on


AFGHANISTAN
KHOST
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MAHSUDS
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PIRGHAL
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Ladha
Sara Rogha
Jandola
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Kalabagh
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Daud Khel
Kundian
FRONTIER PROVINCE
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WAZIRISTAN.

the frontier, and as they had disappeared with the Militia, it was necessary to recreate them. The new form of irregular was what have been called Khassadars and Scouts. The Khassadar is an extremely irregular. He has no British officers and no uniform, except a distinguishing kind of *pagri*. In contradistinction to the old Militia, he finds his own rifle. As one informed observer remarked, the beauty of the system is that so long as the Khassadars, under their own headmen, secure the immunity of the caravans and perform their other police duties, they draw their pay and no questions are asked. If they desert in the day of trouble, they lose their pay but the Government loses no rifles, nor does it risk mutiny or the loss of British and Indian officers. But the application of this policy produced an acute controversy. It was one thing to say that commanding posts in Waziristan should be retained; it was another to decide what these posts should be. We must therefore consider the special problem of Waziristan. The Scouts are a mobile, mounted, irregular force not territorially recruited, officered by British officers.

V.—WAZIRISTAN.

We can now approach the real frontier question of the day, the future of Waziristan. What follows is drawn from an admirable article contributed some years ago to "The Journal of the United Service Institution of India," written by Lt.-Col. G. M. Routh, D.S.O.

Geographically Waziristan is a rough parallelogram averaging 60 miles from East to West and 160 from North to South. The western half consists of the Suleiman Range gradually rising up to the ridge from five to ten thousand feet high, which forms the water-shed between the Indus and the Helmund Rivers and corresponds with the Durand Line separating India from Afghanistan. This is the western boundary. On the east is the Indus. North is the water-shed of the Kurram River running East and West about 30 miles north of Bannu separating Waziristan from the Kohat District. South is a zigzag political boundary from the Durand Line running between Wana and Fort Sandeman in Baluchistan with a turn southwards to the Indus.

The western half is a rugged and inhospitable medley of ridges and ravines straggled and confused in hopeless disarray. The more inhabited portions lie well up the slope at heights of four to six thousand feet. Here are our outposts of Wana and Ladha some 15 and 20 miles respectively from the Durand Line, in the centre of the grazing district, the latter within five miles of important villages of Kaniguram and Makin.

The submontane tracts from the hills to the Indus vary from the highly cultivated and irrigated land round Bannu to the sand desert in the Marwat above Pezu.

Where irrigation or river water is obtainable cultivation is attempted under conditions which can hardly be encouraging. Other tracts like that between Pezu and Tank, usually pastoral, can only hope for an occasional crop after a lucky rainfall.

Inhabitants.—The inhabitants, unable to support existence on their meagre soil, make up the margin by armed robbery of their richer and more peaceful neighbours. The name originates according to tradition from one Wazir, two of whose grandsons were the actual founders of the race. Of the four main tribes Darweshkhel, Mahsuds, Dawars and Batanni, only the first two are true Wazirs. Their villages are separate though dotted about more or less indiscriminately, and inter-marriage is the exception—in fact all traditionally are in open strife, a circumstance which, until some bright political comet like the Afghan War of 1919 joined them together, as materially aided our dealings with them.

Unlike other parts of India, however, these wild people acknowledge little allegiance to maliks or headmen. No one except perhaps the Mulla Powindah till his death in 1913 could speak of any portion of them as his following.

Policy.—The policy of the British was at first one of non-interference with the tribes. Even now only part of the country is administered. Gradually it was found that more and more supervision became necessary to control raiding and this was attempted by expeditions to portions of the country with Regulars, followed by building posts and brick towers to be held by Militia. These posts were at first placed at the points where raiders usually debouched. The Political Officers, at first supported by Regulars, built up from 1904 onwards a force of some 3,000 Militia with British Officers at their disposal, who were backed up by the garrisons at Bannu and Dera Ismail Khan. In addition certain allowances were made to the tribes for good behaviour, prevention of raids and surrender of offenders when required; also for tribal escorts as necessary. Gradually, as occasion required, posts were occupied. Wana was occupied in 1895 at the request of the Wana Wazirs. Similarly the Tochi in 1896. In the comprehensive expedition of 1895-96 when this policy was put into effect, the British arms were shown in every remote valley in the vain hope of taming the Mahsuds. It was hoped the various posts would prove a pacifying influence and a rallying ground for Government supporters. From 1904 to 1919 they were held by Militia. Roads and communications were improved and tribal allowances augmented by sales of produce to the troops on a liberal scale.

A Programme.—Lt.-Col. Routh then outlined a possible policy for Waziristan. We give it textually, because we believe that when it was written it reflected how military opinion in India was developing:—

"To the unprejudiced mind it appears more practical to grasp the nettle firmly and dominate the inhabited tracts. Why should not the road now being made to Ladha be continued 30 miles north to the Tochi road at Datta Khel and 20 miles south to Wana? Why should we not occupy the healthier portions of Waziristan rather than the foothills or Cis-Indus zones? The Razmak district round Makin 6,000 feet up is both healthy and fertile. The same applies to the Shawal valley laying behind Pir Gul, the national peak near Ladha rising to a height of 11,556 feet above the sea. The Wana plain, 5,000 feet up, 30 miles by 15, could with railways support an army corps; there is no doubt that

a forward railway policy will help to solve the problem. A line has been surveyed from Tank to Draband and thence up the valley to Fort Sandeman, so connecting with the Zhob and perhaps later to Wana. The Gumal Tangi from Murtaza to Khajuri Kach is the apparently obvious route, but would be prohibitively expensive in construction and require much tunnelling. Beyond Khajuri Kach *via* Tanai and Rogha Kot to Wana, some 23 miles, offers no difficulty. The old policy of the raiders working westwards and our retributive expeditions stretching their very temporary tentacles eastwards seems to suggest better lateral communications. The broad gauge at Kohat might without undue cost be extended to Thal and thence to Idak *via* Spinwam. From here till further extension proved desirable, a motor road through Razmak, Makin and Dwatoi to link up with that now surveyed to Ladha sounds possible to the looker on. Eventually such communications, road, rail, or both, could continue to Wana, Fort Sandeman and Quetta *via* Hindu Bagh, a strategic line offering great defensive possibilities substituting Razmak, which resembles Ootacamund, and healthy uplands for the deadly fever spots now occupied. The very fact of employing the tribesmen on these works with good pay and good engineers tends to pacify the country as well as providing healthy accessible hill stations in place of the proverbially comfortless cantonments which now exist in this part of the Frontier."

A Compromise.—A full statement of the policy finally adopted by Government in view of the situation left upon their hands after the Mahsud rebellion was made by the Foreign Secretary, Sir (then Mr.) Denys Bray, in the course of a Budget discussion in the Legislative Assembly on 5th March 1923. He outlined neither a Forward policy nor a Close Border policy. Both these terms had, in fact, ceased to be appropriate. Circumstances had so changed that neither the one plan nor the other remained within the bounds of reasonable argument.

The Foreign Secretary explained that the ingredients of the Frontier problem at the present day are essentially three, namely, the Frontier districts, the neighbouring friendly State of Afghanistan, and the so-called Independent Territory, this last being the belt of unsettled mountain country which lies between the borders of British India and India. He proceeded specially to show that this belt is, in fact, within India "....It is boundary pillars that mark off Waziristan from Afghanistan; it is boundary pillars that include Waziristan in India. We are apt to call Waziristan independent territory; and it is only from the point of view of our British districts that these tribes are trans-frontier tribes. From the point of view of India, from the international point of view that is, they are cis-frontier tribesmen of India. If Waziristan and her tribes are India's scourge, they are also India's responsibility—and India's alone. That is an international fact that we must never forget."

Sir Denys next referred to the triumph of the Sandeman policy in Baluchistan. He pointed out that some people long ago believed that the same policy would prove effective in Waziristan. "But what was a practical proposition 20 or 30 years ago is not necessarily so now. The task is infinitely more difficult to-day, chiefly because the tribesmen are infinitely better armed; their arms having increased at least tenfold during the last 20 years." Dealing with the Close Border prescription he showed that if one erected a Chinese wall of barbed-wire fence along the plain some distance below the hills, "all the time the problem in front of us would be going from bad to worse, with the inevitable increase of arms in the trans-border and with that inevitable increase in the economic stringency in this mountainous tract, which would make the tribesmen more and more desperate, more and more thrown back on barbarism.....A rigid Close Border policy is really a policy of negation, and nothing more.....We might gain for our districts a momentary respite from raids but we would be leaving behind a legacy of infinitely worse trouble for their descendants."

The settled policy of Government in Waziristan, Sir Denys showed, was the control of that country through a road system, of which about 140 miles would lie in Waziristan itself and one hundred miles along the border of Derajat, and the maintenance of some 4,600 Khassadars and of some 5,000 irregulars, while at Razmak, 7,000 feet high and overlooking northern Waziristan, there would be an advanced base occupied by a strong garrison of regular troops. Razmak he showed to be further from the Durand Line than the old-established posts in the Tochi. In the geographical sense, therefore, the policy was, in one signal respect, a backward policy. None the less, it was a forward policy in a very real sense, for it was a policy of constructive progress and was a big step forward on the long and laborious road towards the pacification, through civilization, of the most backward and inaccessible, and therefore the most truculent and aggressive tribes on the border. "Come what may, civilization must be made to penetrate these inaccessible mountains or we must admit that there is no solution to the Waziristan problem, and we must fold our hands while it grows inevitably worse."

The policy thus initiated has proceeded with results according with the highest reasonable expectations and exceeding the most sanguine hopes of most people concerned in its formulation.

The roads are policed by the Khassadars, who have, in the main, proved faithful to their trust. The open hostility of the Waziri tribesmen to the presence of troops and other agents of Government in their midst, which at the outset they showed by shooting up individuals and small bodies of troops on every opportunity, has faded away, and the people have shown an understanding of the rule of law, and, under the control exercised, a readiness to conform to it. In various small but significant ways, methods of civilization have caught the imagination of the people and won their approval. Thus, the safety of the roads has encouraged, and is buttressed by a considerable development of motor-bus traffic. The roads, as the King's Highway, are officially held to be sacrosanct, that is no shooting up or other pursuit of personal or tribal feuds is permitted upon them. This permits villagers to proceed to and from the plains towns in safety. Under the influence of their women, the tribesmen applied

that the ban against shooting upon the highway would be extended to all the country for three miles on either side of the highway. Tentative efforts to introduce primary education proved possible and achieved as much success as could be expected. The hospitals and dispensaries maintained for irregular troops, called Scouts, employed about the country, attend to the wants of the tribes-people who come to them. So much has this arrangement been appreciated that the Mahsuds formally applied for the establishment of a hospital of their own. With grim humour, they offered to provide such an institution with the necessary surgical instruments, saying that they had saved this from the time when the British formerly left the country. In other words, they offered what they had captured or looted during the 1919 emeute.

A remarkable illustration of the acceptance by the people of the new conditions was provided a year or two ago by the Wana Wazirs when they partitioned the Political Authorities for the occupation of south Waziristan corresponding with that already established in northern Waziristan. A motor road had already been run out from Jhandola through Chagmali and the Shahur Tangi to Sarwekai. A brigade of troops, hitherto stationed at Manzai, whereabouts the Tak-i-Zam, after flowing down its deep valley from northern Waziristan, debouches on to the Derajat, was accordingly ordered up to Wana in the autumn of 1929. It proceeded throughout the journey thither without opposition and was warmly welcomed by the tribes people at Wana, where it established itself in a favourably sited camp not far from the fort which was the earlier centre of British occupation. There it happily remains.

The reoccupation of Wana and the circumstances in which it took place illustrate that a policy is a live thing. In other words, it is not a programme which can reach fulfilment or completion. It lives and always waits upon some new action to give it further expression. In this respect the new policy, though it has only demonstrably been applied in Waziristan, must be regarded as that which governs the actions of the authorities in regard, at least to the whole Frontier region lying between Baluchistan and the Khyber Pass, except, possibly, the Kurram Valley.

The area cultivated by the villagers of Wana plain doubled by the end of 1931 and the people declared their readiness to surrender their firearms if their neighbours also gave up theirs or were deprived of them. A road has been built commencing Fort Sandeman *via* Gulkach, on the Gomal river, with Tanai, on the Sarwekai-Wana road. A road, as yet roughly made, but suitable for motor transport has been constructed from Razmak through Kaniguram, in the heart of the Mahsud country to Wana. It was completed in 1933 and the only disputes connected with its construction arose from the rivalry of the tribesmen whose villages lie along the route and who sometimes fought one another to secure road-making contracts.

A startling new development upon the North West Frontier during 1930 was the spread thereto of agitation carried on by the **Indian National Congress** in the interior of India in pursuit of its efforts to bring political pressure to bear upon the Government of India, and above them, His Majesty's Government. The Congress at its annual session at Lahore in the week following Christmas, 1929, adopted a programme aiming at the separation of India from the British Empire and at the promotion of revolution in India to secure this end. In particular, it avowedly set out "to make Government impossible." Revolutionary agitation, and especially a campaign to promote disobedience of the civil law in order to bring the administration to a stand-still, commenced all over India immediately after the Congress meetings. The settled districts of the N.W. F. P. were the scene of this, in common with the rest of the land. The agitation was there carried on by Congress agents organised in what are known as Khilafat Committees. For their purpose they made special use of misrepresentations of the Sarda Act, recently passed by the Indian Legislature by the official and Hindu votes against the opposition of the Muslim non-official members. This measure makes illegal and provides penalties for the marriage of boys and girls below stated minimum ages. The age at which marriage may take place is also in general terms laid down for Mohammedans by their religious law. Hence, the Muslims in British India, while acknowledging that the Sarda Act would not in practice affect them, because its provisions in no way over-rule their religious law, nevertheless saw in the measure an act affecting the domain of their religious law, and passed, in spite of their dissent, in a Legislature in which Muslims are, by themselves, a hopeless minority. They regarded its enactment as a grave illustration of their fears that under any scheme of democratic self-government in India, Muslim interests would not be safe against disregard by the Hindu majority.

Outbreak at Peshawar in 1930.—This Muslim apprehension, after the passing of the Act, strongly influenced the attitude of the community towards all questions of political reform, and the lever which misrepresentation of the Act provided for stirring up anti-Government agitation in the almost wholly and fanatical Muslim province in the north can easily be understood. Grossly untrue propaganda was carried on; it was, for instance, alleged that under the Act all girls must be medically examined before marriage. An elaboration of this untruth was that the Government were recruiting a large body of Hindu inspectors to make the examinations. And the agitation was deliberately pushed outwards from the settled districts of the N. W. F. P. into the tribal areas. Waziristan was amongst the first of them to be inundated with the propaganda. This was in March-April 1929. The poison spread outwards from Peshawar into Tirah about the same time. The agitation was sedulously carried on in the district northward of Peshawar city and from thence was pushed into Mohmand country. The first point of violent combustion was Peshawar city, where the mob murderously broke out on 23rd April 1930. Within a short time, Afridi bands descended the ravines and nullahs from Tirah to join in the fray. The Mohmands became

greatly excited and sent down bands to sit near the border and watch for an opportunity to join in. The Upper Tochi's Wazirs simultaneously took to arms and shortly afterwards the Mahsud Wazirs, about Ladha, did the same. At this stage, the development of the Air arm in India proved of incalculable value. Aeroplanes patrolled the whole country and were frequently employed by the political authorities to take preventive and punitive action by bombing. The road system, meanwhile, enabled troops to be moved at will to positions of advantage for dealing with whatever serious tribal aggression appeared likely.

In the result, the Mohmands, after being bombed several times, found discretion the better part of valour and made no descent in force. The Afridis twice endeavoured to raid Peshawar in force but by combined air and land action were both times driven back to their hills with no achievement to report. The Orakzais of southern Tirah threatened to descend by the Ublan Pass upon Kohat and their western clans attacked a post in the Upper Kurram and endeavoured to attack Parachinar. Helped by the machinations of Congress agents, they succeeded in drawing two or three clans of Afghan tribesmen across the border into the fray. Combined air and ground action crushed these efforts. The Tochi Wazirs heavily attacked Datta Khel, but were speedily brought to order by force. The Mahsuds were similarly repulsed and punished when they assaulted Scrarogha, in the valley of the Tak-i-Zam.

All outbreaks of revolt were suppressed in the same manner and the establishment of new fortified posts on the Peshawar plain, immediately opposite the main valleys leading out of Tirah, and the construction of roads for their service, now indicate the application of the new frontier policy in that region. The Afridis long refused to assent to these, but being thereby deprived of access to their normal winter grazing grounds on the Khajuri and Aka Khul plain, and prevented from visiting Peshawar, their marketing centre, they came in an accepted peace under the new conditions before the opening of the winter of 1931-32.

It will be seen that the events of the summer of 1930 put the policy to a severe test, and that its successful operation in the emergency was specially assisted by the Royal Air Force. The resultant position appears, then, to be that the control of the tribes, where the policy has already been expressed in road building and in the establishment of suitable garrisons, is effective, that the political and military ground organization with which the policy is supported brings about the introduction of the ameliorative influence of civilization, and that the rapidity and success with which the Royal Air Force can operate over the hills, tends to diminish the amount of ground force necessary. On the other hand, the two descents of the Afridis upon the plain and their return to their homes without great loss, despite all that the Royal Air Force and large bodies of troops could do, indicate the capacity for mischief which lies in the hands of the Tirah tribes, and must remain there so long as the policy is not extended over their highlands.

Mohmand Outbreak in 1933.—Disturbances in the Mohmand country during the summer of 1933 both illustrated the operation of the modern Frontier policy and the need to keep it a live policy if it is to be of any use at all. The Mohmands may for the purposes of present description be divided into two categories namely, the Upper Mohmands, who live in the highlands of the Mohmand country, and the Lower Mohmands, whose country stretches from the lower altitudes of the same hills down to the Peshawar Plain. Through the country of the Upper Mohmands passes the Durand line but the Afghan Government have never agreed to its delimitation in part of this region and consequently its place has long been taken over a considerable portion of the length of the Frontier by what is described as the Presumptive Frontier. The exact position of this latter has never been settled between the two governments and it is consequently sometimes difficult to say whether people from particular villages belong to one side or to the other of it.

In 1932, during the revolutionary Red Shirt campaign, in connection with the Indian National Congress, in the Peshawar Plain, the Upper Mohmands decided to join in the disturbances and raids in the administered territory immediately northward of Peshawar. The Lower Mohmands are described as the Assured Tribes. The meaning of the description is that the British Indian authorities assure them protection against the attacks of the Upper Mohmands and they, on the other hand, are bound by promises of good behaviour. The Assured Tribes in 1932 interfered with the programme of the Upper Mohmands for raiding the plain and the Upper Mohmands in 1933, when spring and early summer once more facilitated their methods of campaigning, commenced retributory raids upon the Halimzai and other Assured clans. The attacked clans appealed to the political authorities for help and that help they were obliged to give.

About the same time as this trouble was germinating, there appeared in Bajaur, a country immediately to the north of that in which the events just described developed, a Pretender to the Aghan throne. He was accompanied by two companions and started a campaign in Bajaur for a revolution or such other trouble as might be possible in Afghanistan. This compelled the British Indian authorities to take measures in fulfilment of their obligations of good neighbourliness to Afghanistan.

Road construction from the Peshwar-Shabkadr road northwards through Ghalanai into the Halimzai country and towards the passes which lead from that country into the upper extremities of the Bajaur Valley was undertaken and two brigades of troops, with other details, were sent forward up it to assist in dealing with the Upper Mohmands. At the same time, aeroplanes bombarded the village of Kotkai in Upper Bajaur, which had given shelter to the Pretender, further aerial demonstrations were made and the Bajauris were given an ultimatum demanding the surrender of the Pretender by a given date.

The Upper Mohmands continuing aggressive and the Bajauris obdurate, there was good prospect of a campaign over the same country as that covered by the campaign of 1897. It seemed likely that the Ghalanai Road would be continued into the upper extremity of Bajaur and that another road for troops would also have to be constructed up the Bajaur valley itself so that by the meeting of the two roads in Upper Bajaur, there would become established a circular road through this part of the tribal territory, resembling that running through North Waziristan.

In the end, the Upper Mohmands, partly doubtless because of punishment which they received in certain encounters with our troops and partly probably because of influence brough to bear upon them from Kabul, retired to their hills and after negotiations entered into bonds to keep the peace; and the Bajauris, while maintaining on grounds of tribal custom their refusal to surrender the Pretender, nevertheless expelled that person from their territory, probably into Afghanistan. Here, then, the trouble ceased. The nett result of it is the construction of the road through Ghalanai and the rapid development of bus services and other activities of civilization which speedily took place along it.

VI.—AFGHANISTAN.

The relations of Afghanistan with the Indian Empire were for long dominated by one main consideration—the relation of Afghanistan to a Russian invasion of India. All other considerations were of secondary importance. For nearly three-quarters of a century the attitude of Great Britain toward successive Amirs has been dictated by this one factor. It was in order to prevent Afghanistan from coming under the influence of Russia that the first Afghan War of 1838 was fought—the most melancholy episode in Indian frontier history. It was because a Russian envoy was received at Kabul whilst the British representative was turned back at Ali Masjid that the Afghan War of 1878 was waged. After that the whole end of British policy toward Afghanistan was to build up a strong independent State, friendly to Britain, which would act as a buffer against Russia, and so to order our frontier policy that we should be in a position to move large forces up, if necessary, to support the Afghans in resisting aggression.

Gates to India.

A knowledge of the trans-frontier geography of India brought home to her administrators the conviction that there were only two main gates to India—through Afghanistan, the historic route to India, along which successive invasions have poured, and by way of Seistan. It was the purpose of British policy to close them, and of Russia to endeavour to keep them at any rate half open. To this end, having pushed her trans-Persian railway to Samarkand, Russia thrust a military line from Merv to the Kushklinsky Post, where railway material is collected for its immediate prolongation to Herat. Later, she connected the trans-Siberian railway with the tran-Caucasian system, by the Orenburg-Tashkent line, thus bringing Central Asia into direct touch with her European magazines. Nor has Great Britain been idle. A great military station has been created at Quetta. This is connected with the Indian railway system by lines of railway which climb to the Quetta Plateau by the Bolan Pass and through the Chapper Rift, lines which rank amongst the most picturesque and daring in the world. From Quetta the line has been carried by the Khojak tunnel through the Khwaja Amran Range, until it leads out to the Afghan Border at New Chaman, where it opens on the route to Kandahar. The material is stocked at New Chaman which would enable the line to be carried to Kandahar in sixty days. In view of the same menace the whole of Baluchistan has been brought under British control. Quetta is now one of the great strategical positions of the world, and nothing has been left undone which modern military science can achieve to add to its natural strength. In the opinion of many military authorities it firmly closes the western gate to India, either by way of Kandahar, or by the direct route through Seistan.

Further east, the Indian railway system was carried to Jamrud and by the autumn of 1925 up the Khyber Pass to Landi Kotal and down the other side of the Pass to Landi Khana. A first class military road sometimes double, sometimes treble, also threads the Pass to our advanced post at Landi Kotal; and then descends until it meets the Afghan frontier at Landi Khana. Later, a commencement was made with the Loi Shilman Railway, which, starting from Peshawar, was designed to penetrate the Mullagori country and provide an alternative advance to the Khyber for the movement of British troops for the defence of Kabul. For unexplained reasons, this line was suddenly stopped and is now thrust in the air. In this wise the two Powers prepared for the great conflict which was to be fought on the Kandahar-Ghazni-Kabul line.

Relations with India.

Between the advanced posts on either side stands the Kingdom of Afghanistan. The end of British policy has been to make it strong and friendly. In the first particular it has early and largely succeeded. The second aim may now also be said to have been attained. When the late Abdurrahaman was invited to ascend the throne, as the only means of escape from the tangle of 1879, none realised his great qualities. Previously the Amir of Afghanistan had been the chief of a confederacy of clans. Abdurrahaman made himself master in his own kingdom. By

means into which it is not well closely to enter; he beat down opposition until none dared lift a hand against him. Aided by a British subsidy of twelve lakhs of rupees a year, increased to eighteen by the Durand Agreement of 1893, and subsequently to over 20 lakhs, he established a strong standing army and set up arsenals under foreign supervision to furnish it with arms and ammunition. Step by step his position was regularised. The Anglo-Russian Boundary Commission,—which nearly precipitated war over the Penjdeh episode in 1885,—determined the northern boundaries. The Pamirs Agreement delimited the borders amid those snowy heights. The Durand Agreement settled the border on the British side, except for a small section to the west of the Khyber, which remained a fruitful source of trouble between Afghanistan and ourselves until 1919, when the Afghan claims and action upon the undemarcated section led to war. That section was finally surveyed and the frontier determined shortly after the conclusion of peace with Afghanistan. Finally the McMahon award closed the old feud with Persia over the distribution of the waters of the Helmand in Seistan. It was estimated by competent authorities that about the time of Abdurrahaman's death, Afghanistan was in a position to place in the field, in the event of war, one hundred thousand well-armed regular and irregular troops, together with two hundred thousand tribal levies, and to leave fifty thousand regulars and irregulars and a hundred thousand levies to maintain order in Kabul and the provinces. But if Afghanistan were made strong, it was not made friendly. Abdurrahaman Khan distrusted British policy up to the day of his death. All that can be said is that he distrusted it less than he distrusted Russia, and if the occasion had arisen for him to make a choice, he would have opposed a Russian advance with all the force at his disposal. He closed his country absolutely against all foreigners, except those who were necessary for the supervision of his arsenals and factories. He refused to accept a British Resident, on the ground that he could not protect him, and British affairs were entrusted to an Indian agent, who was in a most equivocal position. At the same time he repeatedly pressed for the right to pass by the Government of India and to establish his own representative at the Court of St. James.

Afghanistan and the War.—These relations were markedly improved during the reign of His Majesty the Amir Habibullah Khan. It used to be one of the trite sayings of the Frontier that the system which Abdurrahman Khan had built up would perish with him, for none was capable of maintaining it. Habibullah Khan more than maintained it. He visited India soon after his accession and acquired a vivid knowledge of the power and resources of the Empire. He strengthened and consolidated his authority in Afghanistan itself. At the outset of the war he made a declaration of his complete neutrality. It is believed—a considerable reticence is preserved over our relations with Afghanistan—that he warned the Government of India that he might be forced into many equivocal acts, but that they must trust him; certainly his reception of Turkish, Austrian and German "missions" at Kabul, at a time when British representatives were severely excluded, was open to grave misconstruction. But a fuller knowledge induced the belief that the Amir was in a position of no little difficulty. He had to compromise with the fanatical and anti-British elements amongst his own people, inflamed by the Turkish preaching of a jehad, or holy Islamic war. But he committed no act of hostility; as soon as it was safe to do so he turned the members of these missions out of the kingdom. At the end of the war his policy was completely justified; he had kept Afghanistan out of the war, he had adhered to the winning side; his authority in the kingdom and in Central Asia was at its zenith.

Murder of the Amir.—It is believed that if he had lived Habibullah Khan would have used this authority for a progressive policy in Afghanistan, by opening up communications and extending his engagements with India. He was courted by the representatives of Persia and the Central Asian States as the possible rallying centre of a Central Asian Islamic confederation. At this moment he was assassinated on the 20th February 1919. The circumstances surrounding his murder have never been fully explained; but there is strong ground for the belief that it was promoted by the reactionaries who had harassed him all his reign. These realised that with his vindication by the war their time of reckoning had come; they anticipated it by suborning one of his aides to murder him in his sleep. His brother, Nasrullah Khan, the nominee of the fanatical element, was proclaimed Amir at Jelalabad in his stead, but public opinion in Afghanistan revolted at the idea of the brother seizing power over the corpse of the murdered man. His sons, Hayat and Amanullah, were not disposed to waive their heritage. Amanullah was at Kabul, controlling the treasury and the arsenal and supported by the Army. Nasrullah found it impossible to make head against him and withdrew. The new Amir, Amanullah, at once communicated his accession to the Government of India and proclaimed his desire to adhere to the traditional policy of friendship. But his difficulties at once commenced; he had to deal with the war party in Afghanistan; he was confronted with the dissatisfaction arising from the manner in which the murderers of Habibullah had been dealt with; the fanatical element was exasperated by the imprisonment of Nasrullah; and the Army was so incensed that it had to be removed from Kabul and given occupation to divert its thoughts. A further element of complexity was introduced by the political situation in India. The agitation against the Rowlatt Act was at its height. The disturbances in the Punjab and Gujarat had taken place. Afghan agents in India, of whom the most prominent was Ghulam Hyder Khan, the Afghan postmaster at Peshawar, flooded Afghanistan with exaggerated accounts of the Indian unrest. The result of all this was to convince the Amir that the real solution of his difficulties was to unite all the disturbing elements in a war with India. On the 25th April his troops were set in motion and simultaneously a stream of anti-British propaganda.

commenced to flow from Kabul and open intrigue was started with the Frontier tribes, on whom the Afghans placed their chief reliance.

Speedy Defeat.—The war caught the Army in India in the throes of demobilisation and with a large proportion of the seasoned troops on service abroad. Nevertheless the regular Afghan Army was rapidly dealt with. Strong British forces moved up the Khyber and seized Dacca. Jelalabad was repeatedly bombed from the air and also Kabul. Nothing but a shortage of mechanical transport prevented the British forces from seizing Jelalabad. In ten days the Afghans were severely defeated. On the 14th May they asked for an Armistice. With the usual Afghan spirit of haggling, they tried to water down the conditions of the armistice, but as they were met with an uncompromising emphasis of the situation they despatched representatives to a conference at Rawalpindi on the 26th July. On the 8th August a Treaty of Peace was signed which is set out in the Indian Year Book, 1923, pp. 196-197.

Post-War Relations.—It will be seen that under this Treaty the way was paved for a fresh engagement six months afterwards. During the hot weather of 1920 there were prolonged discussions at Mussoorie between Afghan Representatives and British officials under Sir Henry Dobbs. These were private, but it is believed that a complete agreement was reached. Certainly after an interchange of Notes which revealed no major point of difference it was agreed that a British Mission should proceed to Kabul to arrange a definite treaty of peace. This Mission crossed the Border in January 1921 and entered Kabul where a peace treaty was signed.

The main points of the Treaty are set out in the Indian Year Book, 1923, pp. 197, 198-199.

Afghanistan after the War.—Since the War the relations between Afghanistan and Great Britain have been good and improving. There were painful episodes in 1923 when a murder gang from the tribal territory on the British side of the Frontier committed raids in British India, murdering English people and kidnapping English women and then took refuge in Afghanistan. In course of time this gang was broken up. His Majesty the King of Afghanistan had troubles within his own borders which have made him glad of British help. The main object of his government was to strengthen the resources of the country and to bring it into closer relation with modern methods of administration. But Afghanistan is an intensely conservative country and no changes are popular; especially violent was the opposition to a secular form of administration and education. The direct result was a formidable rebellion of Mangals and Zadrans in the Southern Provinces, and serious reverses to the regular troops sent against the rebels. At one time the position was serious, but the rebels were not sufficiently united to develop their successes, and with the aid of aeroplanes and other assistance afforded by the Government of India the insurrection was broken. Whilst this assistance was appreciated, the whole business gave a serious set-back to the reforms initiated by His Majesty; he had to withdraw almost the whole of his administrative code and to revert to the Mahomedan Law which was previously in force.

Bolshevik Penetration.—Taking a long view, a much more serious development of the policies of Afghanistan, at the period to which the foregoing notes apply was the penetration of the Bolsheviks. These astute propagandists have converted the former Trans-Caspian States of Tsarist Russia into Soviet Republics, where the rule of the Bolsheviks is much more drastic and disruptive than was that of what was called the despotism of the Romanoffs. The object of this policy is gradually to sweep into the Soviet system the outlying provinces of Persia, of China and of Afghanistan. In Persia this policy was foiled by the vigour of the Sipar Salah, Reza Khan, since declared Shah. In Chinese Turkestan it is pursued with qualified success. In Afghanistan it also made certain progress. The first step of the Bolsheviks was to extend the Soviet Republics of Tajikistan, Uzbekia and Turkmanistan so as to absorb all Northern Afghanistan. This was later, apparently, abandoned for the moment for a more gentle penetration. Large subsidies, mostly delivered in kind, were given to Afghanistan. Telegraph lines were erected all over the country; roads were constructed, large quantities of arms and ammunition were supplied, whilst an air force with Russian pilots and mechanics was created and was largely developed. In return the Bolsheviks received important trading facilities. The whole purpose of this policy was ultimately to make it possible to attack Great Britain in India through an absorbed Afghanistan.

It is very doubtful if the Amir and his advisers were deceived by these practices, and whether they did not pursue the simple plan of taking all they could get without the slightest intention of handing themselves over to the Bolsheviks. But it is easier to let the Bolshevik in than to get him out; friends of the Afghans were asking themselves whether the Amir was not nourishing vipers in his bosom. Towards the end of 1925 and in the early part of 1926 there was a rude awakening. The Northern Frontier of the country has always been unsettled because of the shifting courses of the Oxus. In December Bolshevik forces captured with violence the Afghan post of Darkabad, killing one soldier. These events aroused great indignation at Kabul and were denounced by the Amir *coram publico*. There is no little evidence to show that though the form of government has changed in Russia the aims of Russian policy are the same. It used to be said that the test of Russian good faith under the Anglo-Russian Agreement would be the attitude of Petrograd towards the extension of the Orenberg-Tashkent railway to Termes. That line has been constructed by the Bolsheviks. The Afghans have had their eyes opened.

Russo-Afghan Treaty.—Outwardly the relations between the two States are friendly. In December 1926 the Afghan papers published the text of a new treaty concluded with Soviet Russia, which was signed on August 31st, but

it provided that it should in no way interfere with the secret treaty signed in Moscow on February 28th, 1921. The principal clauses of this treaty, as disclosed in the Afghan papers, are as follows :—

Clause 1.—In the event of war or hostile action between one of the contracting parties and a third power or powers, the other contracting party will observe neutrality in respect of the first contracting party.

Clause 2.—Both the contracting parties agree to abstain from mutual aggression, the one against the other. Within their own dominions also they will do nothing which may cause political or military harm to the other party. The contracting parties particularly agree not to make alliances or political and military agreements with any one or more other powers against each other. Each will also abstain from joining any boycott or financial or economic blockade organized against the other pary. Besides this in case the attitude of a third power or powers is hostile towards one of the contracting parties, the other contracting party will not help such hostile policy, and, further, will prohibit the execution of such policy and hostile actions and measures within its dominions.

Clause 3.—The high contracting parties acknowledge one another's Government as rightful and independent. They agree to abstain from all sorts of armed or unarmed interference in one another's internal affairs. They will decidedly neither join nor help any one or more other powers which interfere in or against one of the contracting Government. None of the contracting parties will permit in its dominions the formation or existence of societies and the activities of individuals whose object is to gather armed force with a view to injuring the other's independence, or otherwise such activities will be checked. Similarly, neither of the contracting parties will allow armed forces, arms, ammunition, or other war material, meant to be used against the other contracting party to pass through its dominions.

Clause 6.—This treaty will take effect from the date of its ratification, which should take place within three months of its signature. It will be valid for three years. After this period it will remain in force for another year provided neither of the parties has given notice six months before the date of its expiry that it would cease after that time.

On March 23rd there was also signed in Berlin a treaty between Germany and Afghanistan which amounted to no more than the establishment of diplomatic relations.

A British Minister is established in Kabul as well as the representatives of other European States. The representatives of Afghanistan are established in India and in London, and at some of the European capitals. The various subsidiary agreements under the Treaty have been carried into effect.

The King's Tour.—In the closing months of 1927 His Majesty King Amanulla, accompanied by the Queen and a staff of officials, commenced a long tour to India and Europe. It is understood that this was one of the cherished ambitions of his father, King Habibullah, who was assassinated in 1919. King Amanulla, when he set out, was warmly welcomed in India and received a great popular greeting in Bombay both from his co-religionists and from members of other communities, who forgot the invasion of India in 1919. He then took ship to Europe. He was the guest of His Majesty King George V in London, and visited the principal European capitals. He made a State visit to Turkey, and returned to Afghanistan by way of Soviet Russia and Persia. A series of treaties with the governments of the countries visited was announced and the King returned to Kabul in the late summer of 1928, the tour having been unclouded by untoward incident. Afghanistan was peaceful during his long absence.

Reforming Zeal.—King Amanulla returned to his realm as full of reforming zeal. He was much impressed by the political and social institutions of the western lands he visited, and in particular by the dramatic forcefulness with which Mustapha Kemal Pasha had driven Turkey along the path of "reform," or perhaps it would be more correct to say westernisation. In this he was encouraged by the Queen, who was desirous of seeing the women of Afghanistan enjoy some of the freedom and opportunity won by and for the women of the West. Edict after edict was issued, changing the whole structure of Afghan society. New codes and taxes were imposed: it was proposed that women should emerge from their seclusion and doff the veil; the co-education of boys and girls was prescribed; in September Government officials were forbidden to practise polygamy; in October European dress was ordered for the people of Kabul. At the same time, the pay of the regular troops fell into arrear.

With every appreciation of the spirit and direction of these changes, friends of His Majesty advised the King to moderate the pace. They reminded him that in 1924 far less drastic changes had brought serious trouble in their train. In May of that year the "Lame Mullah" raised the standard of rebellion amongst the Gilzai and Mangal clansmen of Khost. The Mullahs were openly active against the King and His Majesty was equally frank in his hostility to them. Possibly also well-wishers suggested that what was possible in Turkey, after centuries of close contact with the West, and where the ground had been prepared by missionary effort and a long struggle for the emancipation of women, might be less easy in Afghanistan, where there had been no contact with the western world.

A change of Kings.—Events moved rapidly in 1929. A notorious north Afghan *budmash*, Bacha-i-Saqqao, raised the standard of revolt and inflicted severe losses on the Afghan Regular troops, discontented as they were by arrears of pay. Day by day the Afghan representatives in various parts of the world issued messages asserting that the rebels had been destroyed, and a rapid series of pronouncements declared the withdrawal of all the reforms and the establishment of a Council of Provincial Representatives. Communications with the

outer world were broken. King Amanulla and his family fled from Kabul to Kandahar, and then from Kandahar *via* Quetta to Bombay where they took ship to Europe. King Amanulla on his arrival at Rome entered into possession of the Afghan Legation, where he remained. Bacha-i-Saqqao declared himself King of Afghanistan, and for a few months held his position in Kabul. Without money, administrative experience or a disciplined following, his throne was a thorny one and he was harassed by constant attacks. The Royal Air Force in India meanwhile went to the rescue of the British Nationals beleaguered in and around Kabul and in a series of brilliant flights evacuated all without the slightest hitch. The most formidable of the new king's adversaries were led by General Nadir Khan, a scion of the old ruling house, with a wide knowledge of the world. Heavy fighting took place. Fortunes varied. Nadir Khan almost gave up his chances as finally lost. But a band of Wazirs from the British side of the border attracted by prospects of loot, joined Nadir and finally seized Kabul in his name and interest. Nadir Khan thus became victor and shortly afterwards, at the wish of the Afghans, Bacha-i-Saqqao was executed with other rebels, and when the year closed Nadir Khan was to all seeming in firm possession of the Kingdom. He despatched members of his family to the principal Afghan Legations in Europe. A Shinwari rising near the exit from the Khyber Pass took place in February 1930, and was repressed with unexpected success and vigour. There followed a serious rebellion in Kohidaman, Bacha-i-Saqqao's country. This also was promptly quelled. And thereafter Nadir Shah ruled without challenge. He devoted himself to the reorganisation of his Army. England was strictly neutral during the successive stages of the revolution, but promised support to Afghanistan to help her maintain internal peace when she had restored it and this promise was fulfilled by the provision of an interest free loan of £200,000 to King Nadir and by the supply of rifles and ammunition to him. He gave evidence of his friendliness towards Britain and India. He co-operated effectively to prevent tribes on his side of the Frontier joining those on the British side against the Government of India in response to the Congress agitation in the summer of 1930. The trade routes were re-opened and the new King again took up Amanullah's mantle of reform but in a statesmanlike manner which carried the Mullah's along with him.

Murder of Nadir Shah.—This ordered march of progress was tragically interrupted by the murder of His Majesty Nadir Shah on the afternoon of 8 November 1933. His Majesty was attending a football tournament prize-giving, when a young man among the gathering stepped forward and fired several revolver shots into him at close range, killing him instantly. It later appeared that the assassin committed the crime in revenge for the execution of a prominent Afghan who had been caught deeply involved in treasonable activities after he had been mercifully treated for earlier behaviour of the same kind. The assassin's father was stated to have been this man's servant. The murder was not followed by general or widespread disorder. The members of Nadir Shah's family and his prominent officers of State stood loyally by his heir, his son, Muhammed Zahir. The latter was duly placed on his father's throne and his accession was in due course acknowledged and confirmed throughout the kingdom in the traditional manner. The new king started his reign with a high reputation for courage and steadiness. He early issued assurances to his people that he would continue the policy of his father in affairs of State. No untoward events have occurred in the months that have since past.

British Representative—Sir R. R. Maconochie, K.B.E., C.I.E.

VII.—TIBET.

Recent British policy in Tibet is really another phase in the long-drawn-out duel between Great Britain and Russia in Central Asia. The earliest efforts to establish communication with that country were not, of course, inspired by this apprehension. When in 1774 Warren Hastings despatched Bogle on a mission to the Tashi-Lama of Shigatse,—the spiritual equal if not superior, of the Dalai Lama of Lhasa—his desire was to establish facilities for trade, to open up friendly relations with a Power which was giving us trouble on the frontier, and gradually to pave the way to a good understanding between the two countries. After Warren Hastings' departure from India the subject slept, and the last Englishman to visit Lhasa, until the Younghusband Expedition of 1904, was the unofficial Manning. In 1885, under the inspiration of Colman Macaulay, of the Bengal Civil Service, a further attempt was made to get into touch with the Tibetans, but it was abandoned in deference to the opposition of the Chinese, whose suzerainty over Tibet was recognised, and to whose view until the war with Japan, British statesmen were inclined to pay excessive deference. But the position on the Tibetan frontier continued to be most unsatisfactory. The Tibetans were aggressive and obstructive, and with a view to putting an end to an intolerable situation, a Convention was negotiated between Great Britain and China in 1890. This laid down the boundary between Sikkim and Tibet, it admitted a British protectorate over Sikkim, and paved the way for arrangements for the conduct of trade across the Sikkim-Tibet frontiers. These supplementary arrangements provided for the opening of a trade mart at Yatung, on the Tibetan side of the frontier, to which British subjects should have the right of free access, and where there should be no restrictions on trade. The agreement proved useless in practice, because the Tibetans refused to recognise it, and despite their established suzerainty, the Chinese Government were unable to secure respect for it.

Russian Intervention.

This was the position when in 1899 Lord Curzon, Viceroy of India, endeavoured to get into direct touch with the Tibetan authorities. Three letters which he addressed to the Dalai Lama were returned unopened, at a time when the Dalai Lama was in direct intercourse with the Tsar of Russia. His emissary was a Siberian Dorjieff, who had established a remarkable ascendancy in the counsels of the Dalai Lama. After a few years' residence at Lhasa Dorjieff went to Russia on a confidential mission in 1899. At the end of 1900 he returned to Russia at the head of a Tibetan mission of which the head was officially described in Russia as "the senior Tsanite Khomba attached to the Dalai Lama of Tibet." This mission arrived at Odessa in October 1900, and was received in audience by the Tsar at Livadia. Dorjieff returned to Lhasa to report progress, and in 1901 was at St. Petersburg with a Tibetan mission, where as bearers of an autograph letter from the Dalai Lama they were received by the Tsar at Peterhoff. They were escorted home through Central Asia by a Russian force to which several Intelligence Officers were attached. At the time it was rumoured that Dorjieff had, on behalf of the Dalai Lama, concluded a treaty with Russia, which virtually placed Tibet under the protectorate of Russia. This rumour was afterwards officially contradicted by the Russian Government.

The Expedition of 1904.

In view of these conditions the Government of India, treating the idea of Chinese suzerainty over Tibet as a constitutional fiction, proposed in 1903, to despatch a mission, with an armed escort, to Lhasa to discuss the outstanding questions with the Tibetan authorities on the spot. To this the Home Government could not assent, but agreed, in conjunction with the Chinese Government, to a joint meeting at Khamba Jong, on the Tibetan side of the frontier. Sir Francis Younghusband was the British representative, but after months of delay it was ascertained that the Tibetans had no intention of committing themselves. It was therefore agreed that the mission, with a strong escort, should move to Gyantse. On the way the Tibetans developed marked hostility, and there was fighting at Tuna, and several sharp encounters in and around Gyantse. It was therefore decided that the mission should advance to Lhasa, and on August 3rd, 1904, Lhasa was reached. There Sir Francis Younghusband negotiated a convention by which the Tibetans agreed to respect the Chinese Convention of 1890; to open trade marts at Gyantse, Gartok and Yatung; to pay an indemnity of £500,000 (seventy-five lakhs of rupees); the British to remain in occupation of the Chumbi Valley until this indemnity was paid off at the rate of a lakh of rupees a year. In a separate instrument the Tibetans agreed that the British Trade Agent at Gyantse should have the right to proceed to Lhasa to discuss commercial questions, if necessary.

Home Government intervenes.

For reasons which were not apparent at the time, but which have since been made clearer, the Home Government were unable to accept the full terms of this agreement. The indemnity was reduced from seventy-five lakhs of rupees to twenty-five lakhs, to be paid off in three years, and the occupation of the Chumbi Valley was reduced to that period. The right to despatch the British Trade Agent to Lhasa was withdrawn. Two years later (June 1906) a Convention was concluded between Great Britain and China regulating the position in Tibet. Under this Convention Great Britain agreed neither to annex Tibetan territory, nor to interfere in the internal administration of Tibet. China undertook not to permit any other foreign State to interfere with the territory or internal administration of Tibet. Great Britain was empowered to lay down telegraph lines to connect the trade stations with India, and it was provided that the provisions of the Convention of 1890, and the Trade Regulations of 1893, remained in force. The Chinese Government paid the indemnity in three years and the Chumbi Valley was evacuated. The only direct result of the Mission was the opening of the three trade marts and the establishment of a British Trade Agent at Gyantse.

Chinese Action.

The sequel to the Anglo-Russian Agreement was dramatic, although it ought not to have been unexpected. On the approach of the Younghusband Mission the Dalai Lama fled to Urga, the sacred city of the Buddhists in Mongolia. He left the internal government of Tibet in confusion, and one of Sir Francis Younghusband's great difficulties was to find Tibetan officials who would undertake the responsibility of signing the Treaty. Now the suzerainty of China over Tibet had been explicitly reaffirmed. It was asserted that she would be held responsible for the foreign relations of Tibet. In the past this suzerainty having been a "constitutional action," it was inevitable that China should take steps to see that she had the power to make her well respected at Lhasa. To this end she proceeded to convert Tibet from a vassal state into a province of China. In 1908 Chao Erh feng, Acting Viceroy in the neighbouring province of Szechuen, was appointed Resident in Tibet. He proceeded gradually to establish his authority, marching through eastern Tibet and treating the people with great severity. Meantime the Dalai Lama, finding his presence at Urga, the seat of another Buddhist Pontiff, irksome, had taken refuge in Si-ning. Thence he proceeded to Peking, where he arrived in 1908, was received by the Court, and despatched to resume his duties at Lhasa. Moving by leisured stages, he arrived there at Christmas, 1909. But it was soon apparent that the ideas of the Dalai Lama and of the Chinese Government had little in common. The Dalai Lama expected to resume the temporal and spiritual despotism which he had exercised prior to 1904. The Chinese intended to deprive him of all temporal power and preserve him as a spiritual pope. The Tibetans had already been exasperated by the pressure of the Chinese soldiery. The report that a strong Chinese force was moving on Lhasa so alarmed the Dalai Lama that he fled from Lhasa, and by the irony of fate sought a refuge in India. He

was chased to the frontier by Chinese troops, and took up his abode in Darjeeling, whilst Chinese troops overran Tibet.

Later Stages.

The British Government, acting on the representations of the Government of India, made strong protests to China against this action. They pointed out that Great Britain, while disclaiming any desire to interfere with the internal administration of Tibet, could not be indifferent to disturbances in the peace of a country which was a neighbour on intimate terms with other neighbouring States on our frontier, especially with Nepal, and pressed that an effective Tibetan Government be maintained. The attitude of the Chinese Government was that no more troops had been sent to Tibet than were necessary for the preservation of order, that China had no intention of converting Tibet into a province, but that being responsible for the good conduct of Tibet, she must be in a position to see that her wishes were respected by the Tibetans. Finally, the Chinese remarked that the Dalai Lama was such an impossible person that they had been compelled again to depose him. Here the matter might have rested, but for the revolution in China. That revolution broke out in Szechuen, and one of the first victims was Chao Erh-feng. Cut off from all support from China, surrounded by a hostile and infuriated populace, the Chinese troops in Tibet were in a hopeless case; they surrendered, and sought escape not through China, but through India, by way of Darjeeling and Calcutta. The Dalai Lama returned to Lhasa, and in 1913, in the House of Lords on July 28, Lord Morley stated the policy of the British Government in relation to these changes. He said the declaration of the President of the Chinese Republic saying that Tibet came within the sphere of Chinese internal administration; and that Tibet was to be regarded as on an equal footing with other provinces of China, was met by a very vigorous protest from the British Government. The Chinese Government subsequently accepted the principle that China is to have no right of active intervention in the internal administration of Tibet, and agreed to the constitution of a conference to discuss the relation of the three countries. This Convention met at Simla when Sir Henry McMahon, Foreign Secretary to the Government of India; Mr. Ivan Chen, representing China; and Mr. Long Chen Shatra, Prime Minister to the Dalai Lama, threshed out these issues. Whilst no official pronouncement has been made on the subject, it is understood that a Convention was initialled in June which recognised the complete autonomy of Tibet proper, with the right of China to maintain a Resident at Lhasa with a suitable guard. A semi-autonomous zone was to be constituted in Eastern Tibet, in which the Chinese position was to be relatively much stronger. But this Convention, it is understood, has not been ratified by the Chinese Government, owing to the difficulty of defining Outer and Inner Tibet, and in 1918 Tibet took the offensive and threw off the last vestiges of Chinese suzerainty. When the Chinese province of Szechuan went over to the South, the Central Government at Pekin was unable to finance the frontier forces or to withstand the Tibetan advance, which was directed from Lhasa and appeared to be ably managed. After the Tibetan army had occupied some towns on the confines of the Szechuan marshes, hostilities were suspended and an armistice was concluded.

From what has gone before, it will be seen that the importance which formerly attached to the political condition of Tibet was much less a local than an external question, and was influenced by our relations with Russia and China rather than with our relations with Tibet. Russia having relapsed into a state of considerable confusion, and China having relapsed into a state of absolute confusion, these external forces temporarily at any rate disappeared, and Tibet no longer loomed on the Indian political horizon. The veil was drawn afresh over Lhasa, and affairs in that country pursued an isolated course, with this considerable difference. The Dalai Lama was now on terms of the greatest cordiality with the Government of India. In 1920 he requested that a British officer should be sent to discuss with him the position in Central Asia brought about by the Revolution in Russia and the collapse of Government in China, and Mr. Bell, C.M.G., I.C.S., Political Officer in Sikkim, was deputed for this purpose. In 1922 telephonic communication between Lhasa and India was established.

British Trade Agent, Gyantse and Yatung.—Captain A. A. Russell, M.C.

VIII.—THE NORTH-EASTERN FRONTIER.

The position on the northern frontier has been considered as if the British line were contiguous with that of Tibet. This is not so. The real frontier States are Kashmir, Nepal, Sikkim and Bhutan. From Chitral to Gilgit, now the northernmost posts of the Indian Government, to Assam, with the exception of the small wedge between Kashmir and Nepal, where the British district of Kumaon is thrust right up to the confines of Tibet, for a distance of nearly fifteen hundred miles there is a narrow strip of native territory between British India and the true frontier. The first of these frontier States is **Kashmir.** The characteristics of this State are considered under Indian States (*q.v.*); it is almost the only important Native State in India with frontier responsibilities, and it worthily discharges them through the agency of its efficient Indian State troops—four regiments of infantry and two Mountain Batteries, composed mainly of the Rajput Dogras, who make excellent fighting material. One of the most important trade routes with Tibet passes through Kashmir—that through Ladak. Then we come to the long narrow strip of **Nepal.** This Gurkha State stands in special relation with the British Government. It is for all practical purposes independent, and the British resident at Khatmandu exercises no influence on the internal administration The governing

machine in Nepal is also peculiar. The Maharaj Dhiraj, who comes from the Sesodia Rajput clan, the bluest blood in India, takes no part in the administration. All power vests in the Prime Minister, who occupies a place equivalent to that of the Mayors of the Palace, or the Shoguns of Japan. The present Prime Minister, Sir Chandra Shamsher, has visited England, and has given conspicuous evidence of his attachment to the British Government. Nepal is the main Indian outpost against Tibet or against Chinese aggression through Tibet. The friction between the Chinese and the Nepalese used to be frequent, and in the eighteenth century the Chinese marched an army to the confines of Khatmandu—one of the most remarkable military achievements in the history of Asia. Under the firm rule of the present Prime Minister Nepal has been largely free from internal disturbance, and has been raised to a strong bulwark of India. Nepal is the recruiting ground for the Gurkha Infantry, who form such a splendid part of the fighting arm of the Indian Empire. Beyond Nepal are the smaller States of **Bhutan** and **Sikkim**, whose rulers are Mongolian by extraction and Buddhists by religion. In view of Chinese aggressions in Tibet, the Government of India in 1910 strengthened their relations with Bhutan by increasing their subsidy from fifty thousand to a lakh of rupees a year, and taking a guarantee that Bhutan would be guided by them in its foreign relations. Afterwards China was officially notified that Great Britain would protect the rights and interests of these States. At the request of the Nepalese Government a British railway expert was deputed to visit the country and advise on the best means of improving communications with India. As the result of his report the Nepalese Government have decided to construct a light railway from Bhichhakhori to Raxaul. Great success has attended the orders passed by the Nepalese Government abolishing slavery.

Assam and Burma.

We then come to the Assam border tribes—the Daflas, the Miris, the Abors and the Mishmis. Excepting the Abors none of these tribes has recently given trouble. The murder of Mr. Williamson and Dr. Gregorson by the Minyong Abors in 1911 made necessary an expedition to the Dihang valley of the Abor country on the N. E. frontier. A force of 2,500 and about 400 military police was employed from October 1911 to April 1912 in subduing the tribe. After two or three small actions the murderers were delivered up. The cost of the expedition was Rs. 21,60,000. At the same time friendly missions were sent to the Mishmi and Miri countries. Close contact with these forest-clad and leech-infested hills has not encouraged any desire to establish more intimate relations with them. The area occupied by the Nagasares runs northwards from Manipur. The Nagasares, a Tibeto-Burman people, devoted to the practice of head hunting, which is still vigorously prosecuted by the independent tribes. The Chin Hills is a tract of mountainous country to the south of Manipur. The corner of India from the Assam boundary to the northern boundary of the Shan States is for the most part included in the Myitkyina and Bhamo districts of Burma. Over the greater part of this area, a labyrinth of hills in the north, no direct administrative control is at present exercised. It is peopled by the Shans and the Kachins. Civilisation is said to be progressing and steps have been taken to prevent encroachments from the Chinese side. There is a considerable trade with China through Bhamo. On the Eastern frontier of Burma are the Shan States, with an area of fifty thousand square miles and a population of 1,300,000. These States are still administered by the Sawbwas or hereditary chiefs, subject to the guidance of Superintendents and Assistant Superintendents. The Northern Shan Railway to Lashio, opened in 1903, was meant to be a stage in the construction of a direct railway link with China, but this idea has been put aside, for it is seen that there can never be a trade which would justify the heavy expenditure. The Southern Shan States are being developed by railway connection. The five Karenni States lie on the frontier south of the Shan States. South of Karenni the frontier runs between Siam and the Tenasserim Division of Burma. The relations between the Indian Government and the progressive kingdom of Siam are excellent. A notable humanitarian development of recent years is the success of the measures to abolish slavery in the Hukawng Valley. In this remote place in the north-east of Burma a mild system of slavery existed, but in response to the initiative and pressure of British officers they were all freed by April 1926.

NEPAL.

The small hilly independent Kingdom of Nepal is a narrow tract of country extending for about 520 miles along the southern slope of the central axis of the Himalayas. It has an area of about 56,000 square miles, with a population of about 5,580,000, chiefly Hindus. The greater part of the country is mountainous, the lower slopes being cultivated. Above these is a rugged broken wall of rock leading up to the chain of snow-clad peaks which culminate in Mount Everest (29.002 feet) and others of slightly less altitude. The country before the Gurkha occupation was split up into several small kingdoms under Newar kings. The Gurkhas under Prithvi Narayan Shah overran and conquered the different kingdoms of Patan, Kathmandu, and Bhatgaon, and other places during the latter half of the 18th century and since then have been rulers of the whole of Nepal. In 1846 the head of the Rana family Maharaja Jung Bahadur Rana, obtained from the sovereign the perpetual right to the office of Prime Minister of Nepal, and the right is still enjoyed by the descendants of the Rana family. In 1850 Jung Bahadur paid a visit to England and was thus the first Hindu Chief to leave India and to become acquainted with the power and resources of the British nation. The relations of Nepal with the Government of India are regulated by the treaty of 1816 and subsequent agreements by which a representative of the British Government is received at Kathmandu. By virtue of the same Treaty either Government maintained a representative at the Court of the other and her treaty relations with Tibet allow her to keep a Resident at Lhasa of her own. Her relation with China is of a friendly nature. Ever since the conclusion of the treaty of 1816 the friendly relations with the British Government have steadily been maintained. During the rule of the late Prime Minister it has been at its height as is evidenced by the valuable friendly help in men and money which has been given and which was appreciatively mentioned in both the Houses of Parliament and by Mr. Asquith in his Guildhall speech in 1915. The message from His Majesty the King-Emperor to the Nepalese Prime Minister sent on the termination of hostilities and published at the time as also Viceroy's valedictory address to the Nepalese contingent on the eve of their return home after having laudably fulfilled their mission in India eloquently and gratefully acknowledged the valuable help rendered by Nepal during the four and a half years of war. In recognition of this help Nepal receives an unconditional annual present of Rupees ten lakhs from the British Government to be paid in perpetuity. To further strengthen and cement the bonds of friendship that have subsisted so long between the two countries, a new Treaty of friendship was concluded between the Government of Nepal and Great Britain on the 21st December 1923.

From the foregoing account of the history of Nepal it will be seen that the Government of the country has generally been in the hands of the Minister of the day. Since the time of Jung Bahadur this system of government has been clearly laid down and defined. The sovereign, or Maharajadhiraja, as he is called, is but a dignified figure-head, whose position can best be likened to that of the Emperor of Japan during the Shogunate. The present King, His Majesty Maharajadhiraja Tribhubana Bir Bikram Jung Bahadur Shah Bahadur Shum Shere Jung Deva, ascended the throne on the death of his father in 1911. The real ruler of the country is the Minister who, while enjoying complete monopoly of power, couples with his official rank the exalted title of Maharaja. Next to him comes the Commander-in-Chief, who ordinarily succeeds to the office of Minister.

The present Minister at the head of affairs of Nepal is Maharaja Bhim, Shum Shere Jung Bahadur Rana, G.C.S.I., G.C.M.G., K.C.V.O., Yit Tang-Paoting-Shun Chian, Luh Chuan-Shang-Chiang (Chinese), Honorary Lieutenant-General British Army and Hon. Colonel, 4th Gurkhas, who succeeded the late Maharaja Chandra Shum Shere Jung Bahadur Rana as Prime Minister and Supreme Commander-in-Chief in November 1929. Soon after this accession to power, with the consummate skill and political acumen of a born diplomat he averted a threatened breach of relations with Tibet. A man of proved ability as the Commander-in-Chief of Nepal he has inaugurated several urgent and important works of public utility. Already he has abolished certain uneconomical imposts such as those on salt, cotton, etc., has tentatively suspended capital punishment in the kingdom with a view to its final abolition, constructed a second water-works, improved mintage and expanded general education. The reclamation on a large scale of forest areas both in the hills and the Tarai is now going on, to provide a hearth and home for Gurkhas retiring from British Service and part of the overflow population now migrating outside the country. In all his public utterances he has expressed an earnest desire to uphold and augment the traditional friendship with the British Government.

Rice, wheat and maize form the chief crops in the lowlands. Mineral wealth is supposed to be great, but, like other sources of revenue, has not been developed. Communications in the State are primitive, but since 1920 the Government has already undertaken the construction of a good and permanent road for vehicular traffic from Amlekhgunj to Bhimphedi—the base of a steep ridge in the main route to the capital of the country from British India—and also has installed a ropeway to connect this base with the capital proper covering a distance of 14 miles. A light railway from Amlekhgunj covering a distance of 25 miles in the route and connecting with the B. & N. W. Ry. at Raxaul also has been constructed and opened for traffic since March 1927. It has also put up a telephone over this route connecting the capital with the frontier township of Birgunge near Raxaul. The revenue is about two crores of rupees per annum. The standing army is estimated at 45,000 the highest posts in it being filled by relations of the minister. The State is of considerable archæological interest and many of the sites connected with scenes of Buddha's life have been identified in it by the remains of inscribed pillars.

British Envoy—Lieut.-Col. C. T. Dankes, O.I.E.

Railways to India.

The prospect of linking Europe and Asia by a railway running eastwards through Asia Minor has fascinated men's minds for generations. The plans suggested have, owing to the British connection with India, always lain in the direction of lines approaching India. More than 50 years ago a Select Committee of the House of Commons sat for two years to consider the question of a Euphrates Valley railway. The Shah of Persia applied to the British Foreign Office for the investment of British capital in Persian railway construction many years before the end of the nineteenth century. A proposal was put forward in 1895 for a line of 1,000 miles from Cairo and Port Said to Koweit, at the head of the Persian Gulf. While these projects were in the air, German enterprise stepped in and made a small beginning by constructing the Anatolian railway system. Its lines start from Scutari, on the southern shore of the Bosphorus, opposite Constantinople, and serve the extreme western end of Asia Minor. And upon this foundation was based the Turkish concession to Germans to build the Baghdad Railway.

Meanwhile, Russia was pushing her railways from various directions into the Central Asian territory running along the northern frontiers of Persia and Afghanistan to the borders of Chinese Turkestan. The construction of a Trans-Persian railway, connecting India, across Persia, with the Russian lines between the Black Sea and the Caspian Sea came to the forefront after the conclusion of the historic Anglo-Russian agreement regarding Persia.

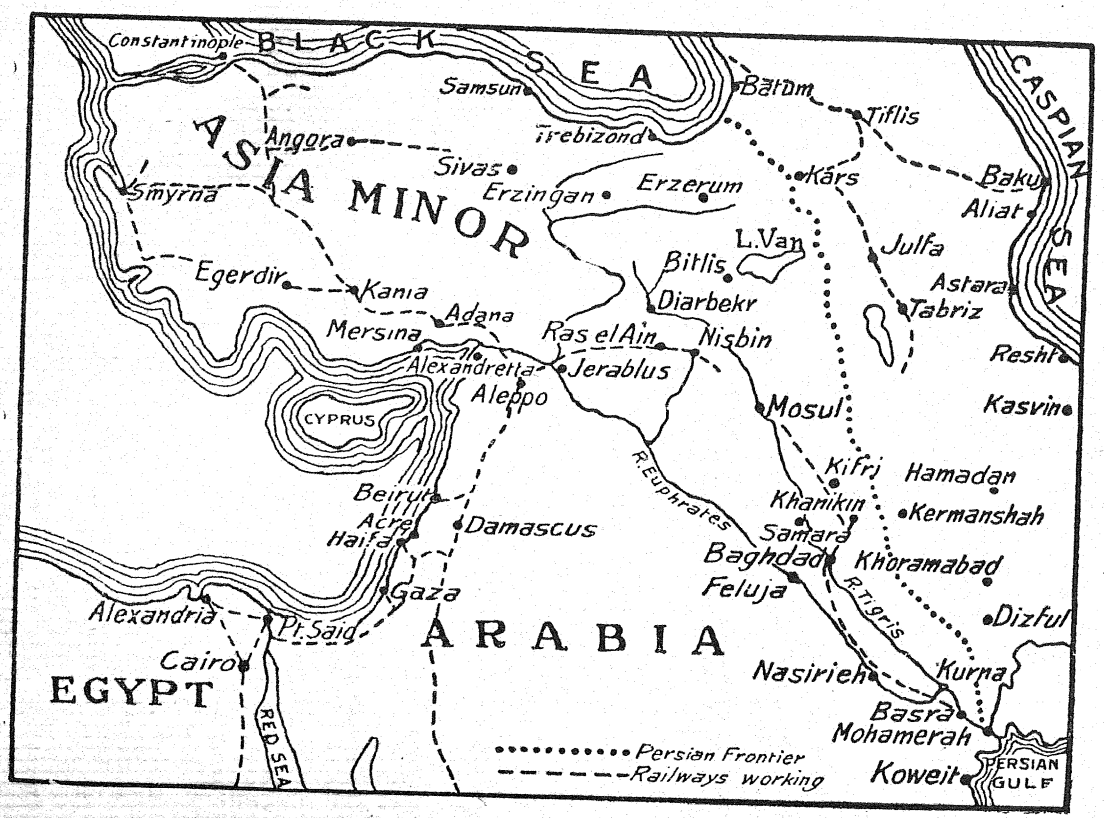
The Germans pushed forward their Baghdad railway project with a calculating shrewdness arising from their estimate of the value it would possess in their grand aim to overthrow the British Empire. The outbreak of the great war and the success of the Germans in inveigling Turkey into it saw the final stages of the construction of the railway pressed forward with passionate energy. Thus, before the overthrow of the Turks and Germans in Asia Minor and of the Germans in France the railway was completed and in use from Scutari across Anatolia, over the Taurus Mountains to Aleppo and thence eastward across the Euphrates to a point between Nisibin and Mosul. The Germans had also by that time constructed a line to Baghdad at the eastern end of the route, northwards from Baghdad to a point a considerable distance beyond Samara.

The war compelled the British to undertake considerable railway development northward from Basra, the port at the mouth of the Shat-el-Arab, the broad stream in which the Tigris and Euphrates, after their junction, flow into the head of the Persian Gulf. The system consists of a metre-gauge line from Basra *viâ* Nasarieh, on the Euphrates, thence northwards to Baghdad, the line passing a considerable distance westward to Kut-l-Amara, of historic fame. From Baghdad the line runs eastward approximately to the foot of the pass through which the Persian road crosses the frontier of that country. A line branches off in the neighbourhood of Kifri in the direction of Mosul. A line also runs westward from Baghdad to Feluja, on the Euphrates. When the Turkish Nationalists gained control of Anatolia any question of the completion of the through Baghdad line became indefinitely delayed.

The Trans-Persian line to join the Russian Caucasian system and the Indian railways first assumed proportions of practical importance in the winter of 1911. Both the Russian and the Indian railway systems were by then well developed up to the point likely to be the termini of a Trans-Persian line. The Russian system reached Julfa, on the Russo-Persian frontier in the Caucasus. During the war this line was carried thence southward into the region east and south-east of Lake Urumia. The Indian railway system, on the borderland of India and Persia, was similarly much extended and improved during the war. A new agreement which was negotiated between England and Persia specially provided for British assistance in the development of Persian natural resources and particularly for the extension and improvement of Persian roads suitable for motor traffic, but the agreement came to naught.

There remains the possibility of linking the Russian and Indian railway system by way of Afghanistan. The suggestion has often been made in recent years that the Russian line from Merv to Herat, on the northern frontier of Afghanistan, should be linked to the Indian line which proceeds from Quetta to the Afghan border on Chaman. The distance between the railway heads is about 250 miles. But there have always for strategic reasons been strong military objections to the railway across Afghanistan and after the death of the late Amir Habibullah the Afghan Government flatly opposed any suggestion for carrying the Indian or Russian railway system within their borders. What the present Afghan Government think about the matter was not shown up to the time this article was written, but the strange situation in Central Asia and beyond the Indian North-West Frontier does not suggest the early removal of the strategic difficulties. The completion of a broad-gauge line extending the Indian railway system through the Khyber Pass to Landi Khana, at its western extremity, opens a prospect of further possible rail connections with Afghanistan.

Britain's special interests in regard to Persian communications have hitherto primarily been associated with lines running inland from the Persian Gulf, to supersede the old mule routes. Special importance has for many years been attached to schemes for a railway from Mohammerah, at the opening of the Karun Valley, where the Karun River runs into the Shat-el-Arab, just below Basra, northwards into the rich highland country of Western Persia, where the valuable West Persian oil wells also lie. Britain has long established special relations with the Karun Valley and has a large trade there.



Map of the Baghdad Railway.

Foreign Consular Officers in India.

Corrected up to 31st March 1934.

Name.	Appointment.	Station.
Afghanistan.		
Mr. Salah-ud-Din Khan	Consul-General	Delhi.
Syed Abdul Hamid Khan	Consul	Bombay.
Mr. Yar Muhammad Khan	Do.	Karachi.
Argentine Republic.		
Vacant	Consul	Calcutta.
Mr. C. C. Miller	Vice-Consul	Do.
Austria.		
*Sir Hormusjee Cowasjee Dinshaw, Kt., M.V.O., O.B.E. (on leave).	Consul	Aden.
*Mr. D. H. C. Dinshaw (acting)	Do.	Do.
*Mr. R. W. Plummer	Do.	Calcutta.
Belgium.		
Monsieur R. Guillaume (acting)	Consul-General	Calcutta.
Monsieur T. J. Clement	Do.	Bombay.
*Mr. A. E. Adams	Consul	Aden.
*Mr. A. D. Finney	Do.	Karachi.
*Mr. W. O. Wright	Do.	Madras.
*Mr. C. G. Wodehouse	Do.	Rangoon.
Bolivia.		
*Mr. B. Matthews	Consul-General	Calcutta.
*Mr. J. A. Johnston	Consul	Rangoon
Brazil.		
Dr. Mansel Agostinho de Heredia	Consul	Bombay.
Senhor M. M. de Souza	Do.	Calcutta.
*Senhor Jaime N. Heredia	Vice-Consul	Bombay.
Vacant	Do.	Calcutta.
*Mr. C. F. Pyett	Do.	Rangoon.
*Mr. W. Smith Hopburn	Consular Agent	Do.
Chile.		
Vacant	Consul-General	Calcutta.
Vacant	Consul	Bombay.
Vacant	Do.	Rangoon.
Vacant	Vice-Consul	Chittagong.
China.		
Vacant	Consul-General	Calcutta.
Mr. Jui-Chun Hsu	Consul	Rangoon
Mr. Chang-pei Liang (In charge of the Consulate General)	Consul	Calcutta.
Mr. Tsung Woo Ding	Vice-Consul	Bombay.
Costa Rica.		
Vacant	Consul	Calcutta.
Cuba.		
Senor W. F. Pais	Consul	Bombay.
Senhor Orlando de Lara (In charge of the Consulate)	Do.	Calcutta.

* Honorary.

Name.	Appointment.	Station.
Czechoslovak Republic.		
*Mr. Alexander Klauder	Consul	Aden.
Dr. Peter Klemens	Do.	Bombay.
Mr. Josef Lusk	Do.	Calcutta.
*Mr. G. Gardiner	Do.	Karachi.
Mr. G. S. Mahomed	Consular Agent	Do.
Denmark.		
Vacant	Consul-General	Calcutta.
*Mr. Stanley Nicholas Day	Consul	Aden.
*Mr. B. A. Thorstenson	Do.	Bombay.
*Mr. A. L. B. Tucker	Do.	Calcutta.
*Mr. A. Hansen	Do.	Calicut.
*Mr. W. M. Browning	Do.	Madras.
*Mr. C. A. K. de Castonier	Do.	Rangoon.
*Mr. A. N. Wardley	Vice-Consul	Calcutta.
Vacant	Do.	Karachi.
Dominica.		
*Dr. P. C. Sen	Consul	Calcutta.
Ecuador.		
*Mr. T. E. Cunningham (acting)	Consu	Calcutta.
Finland.		
*Mr. C. H. A. R. Hardcastle	Consul	Bombay.
*Mr. Carr Joakim	Do.	Rangoon.
*Mr. R. W. Plummer	Vice-Consul	Calcutta.
*Mr. C. G. Alexander	Do.	Madras.
France.		
Monsieur F. A. G. A. Danjou	Consul-General	Calcutta.
Monsieur E. P. F. Chalant	Consul	Bombay.
Monsieur A. Vissiere	Vice-Consul	Calcutta.
*Monsieur E. Chaize	Consular Agent	Aden.
Vacant	Do	Akyab.
*Mr. A. R. Lieshman, C.I.E., V.D.	Do.	Chittagong.
*Mr. E. L. Price, C.I.E., O.B.E.	Do.	Karachi
*Monsieur Dumonteil Lagrezo	Do.	Madras.
*Mr. R. B. Howison	Do.	Rangoon.
Vacant	Do.	Tellicherry.
Germany.		
Herr R. Von Bulow (on leave)	Consul-General	Calcutta.
Herr Karl Kapp	Consul	Bombay.
*Herr Edwin Oscar Bloech	Do.	Rangoon.
Dr. H. Richter (Transferred to Calcutta for the time being.)	Vice-Consul	Bombay.
Dr. E. Von Selzam (acting as Consul-General.)	Do.	Calcutta.
Herr W. Von Pochhammer	Consul	Ports S. Indian.
Greece.		
*Mr. M. Presvelos	Consul-General	Calcutta.
*Mr. Philon N. Philon	Consul	Bombay.
Vacant	Do.	Karachi.
*Mr. F. A. Archdale	Deputy Consul	Do.
Mr. H. Pantazopolo	Do.	Bombay.

* Honorary.

Name.	Appointment.	Station.
Hungary.		
*Mr. P. H. Burrows Watsons (acting) ..	Consul	Calcutta.
*Mr. F. E. Hooper	Do.	Madras.
Italy.		
Cav. Nobile Renato Galleani d'Agliano, Count diCaravonica	Consul-General	Bombay.
Signor Ugo Sabetta	Do.	Calcutta.
Cavalier Dr. Gino Pasqualucci	Consul	Aden.
Vacant	Do.	Calcutta.
*Dr. G. B. Secco	Vice-Consul	Aden.
Signor Cav. A. Manzato..	Do.	Bombay.
Dr. Guido Navarrini	Do.	Calcutta.
Vacant	Consular Agent	Akyab.
*Signor R. Stuparich	Do.	Karachi.
Vacant	Do.	Madras.
*Mr. Carlo Minto	Do.	Rangoon.
Japan.		
Mr. T. Miyake	Consul-General	Calcutta.
Mr. M. Hara	Consul	Do.
Mr. S. Kurihara	Do.	Bombay.
Mr. K. Yutani	Do.	Rangoon.
Mr. S. Mochidzuki	Vice-Consul..	Calcutta.
Latvia.		
Vacant	Consul	Bombay.
Vacant	Do.	Madras.
Liberia.		
Vacant	Do.	Calcutta.
Luxemburg.		
*Monsieur Alphonse Als (on leave)	Vice-Consul..	Bombay.
Mr. T. J. Clement, (In charge)	Do.	Do.
Mexico.		
Vacant	Consul	Calcutta.
Netherlands.		
Mr. Ph. C. Visser..	Consul-General	Calcutta.
*Mr. W. Meek	Consul	Aden.
*Mr. A. J. Staehelin	Do.	Bombay.
Vacant	Do.	Do.
*Mr. A. C. Greenfield (acting on leave) ..	Do.	Karachi.
*Mr. Kingsley Archer (acting)	Do.	Do.
*Mr. A. D. Charles	Do.	Madras.
*Mr. A. Verhage	Do.	Rangoon.
*Mr. J. A. Mayer	Vice-Consul	Calcutta.
Nicaragua.		
*Mr. C. H. A. R. Hardcastle (on leave) ..	Consul	Bombay.
Vacant	Do.	Calcutta.

* Honorary.

Name.	Appointment.	Station.
Norway.		
Monsieur G. Löchen	Consul-General	Calcutta.
*Mr. W. Meek	Consul	Aden.
*Mr. Torleif Ahsland	Do.	Bombay.
*Mr. A. S. Todd	Do.	Madras.
*Mr. J. B. Glass (on leave)	Do.	Rangoon.
*Mr. W. Gardiner (acting)	Do.	Do.
*Mr. R. W. Johnston	Vice-Consul	Akyab.
*Mr. Jan MacCormick	Do.	Bassein.
Vacant	Do.	Bombay.
*Mr. A. D. Finney	Do.	Karachi.
*Mr. P. G. G. Salkeld	Do.	Moulmein.
Panama.		
U. S. A.	Consul-General in charge..	Calcutta.
Persia.		
*Mr. Gholam Reza Khan Nourzad	Consul-General	Delhi.
Mirza Hassan Khan Pirnazar	Consul	Bombay.
Vacant	Do.	Calcutta.
Mr. Hossein Khan Keyostevan	Do.	Karachi.
Vacant	Do.	Madras.
*Haji Gholam Hussain Shirazee	Do.	Rangoon.
Vacant	Do.	Moulmein.
Peru.		
Vacant	Consul-General	Calcutta.
Mr. J. C. Mognaschi	Consul	Do.
Vacant	Do.	Rangoon.
Poland.		
*Dr. Eugene Banasinski	Consul	Bombay.
Portugal.		
Senhor A. J. Alves, Jr.	Consul-General	Bombay.
*Sir Hormusjee Cowasjee Dinshaw, Kt., M.V.O., O.B.E. (on leave).	Consul	Aden.
*Mr. F. H. C. Dinshaw (acting)	Do.	Do.
*Mr. G. C. Moses..	Do.	Calcutta.
*Rev. Avelino deSouza Vila-Verde	Do.	Madras.
*Senor P. L. Ferrow	Do.	Rangoon.
*Senor A. P. J. Fernandes	Vice-Consul	Bombay.
*Dr. J. T. Alfonso	Do.	Karachi.
Roumania.		
*Capt. S. A. Paymaster, I.M.S. (retd.) ..	Consul	Bombay.
Salvador.		
Vacant	Consul	Calcutta.
Siam.		
*Mr. S. D. Gladstone	Consul-General	Calcutta.
*Mr. G. L. Winterbotham	Consul	Bombay.
*Mr. R. B. Prior	Do.	Rangoon.

* Honorary.

Name.	Appointment.	Station.
Spain.		
Senori Don Felix de Iturriaga	Consul	Bombay.
*Monsieur E. Chaize	Vice-Consul	Aden.
Dr. D. S. Fraser	Do.	Bombay.
*Dr. D. D. Ghose	Do.	Calcutta.
*Mr. W. Young	Do.	Karachi.
*Mr. L. Dumonteil Lagreze	Do.	Madras.
*Mr. F. W. D. Allan (Acting)	Do.	Rangoon.
Sweden.		
Mr. J. M. Kastengren	Consul-General	Calcutta.
*Mr. A. E. Adams (on leave)	Consul	Aden.
*Mr. E. S. Murray, O.B.E. (Acting)	Do.	Do.
*Mr. S. O. Sundgren	Do.	Bombay.
*Mr. G. H. Raschen	Do.	Karachi.
*Mr C. W. Wood	Do.	Madras.
*Mr. S. O. R. Haggloff	Do.	Rangoon.
Vacant	Do.	Moulmein.
Switzerland.		
*Dr. H. A. Sonderegger (Acting)	Consul-General	Bombay.
*Monsieur M. M. Staub (on leave)	Consul	Calcutta.
*Mr. W. H. Rummel (Acting)	Do.	Do.
Turkey.		
*Mr. L. C Mousell (At present on leave expected is return by end of may 1934.	Consul	Calcutta
United States of America.		
Mr. Arthur C. Frost (on leave)	Consul-Genera	Calcutta.
Mr. D. C. McDonough (on leave)	Consul	Bombay.
Mr. J. G. Groeninger	Do.	Karachi.
Mr. C. W. Lewis, Jr.	Do.	Madras.
Mr. W. H. Scott	Do.	Rangoon
Mr. Norris Rediker	Vice-Consul	Bombay.
Paul C. Hutton. (In charge of Consulate) ..	Do.	Do.
Mr. N. Lancaster	Do.	Do.
Mr. G. Keith (In charge of the Consulate-General)	Do.	Calcutta.
Mr. F. R. Engdahe	Do.	Do.
Mr. D. H. Robinson	Do.	Do.
Mr. J. W. Jones	Do.	Do.
Mr. F. W. Jandrey	Do.	Do.
Mr. Lloyd E. Riggs	Do.	Karachi.
Mr. Leland C. Altaffer	Do.	Madras.
Mr. R. S. Kazanjan	Do.	Rangoon
Mr. F. K. Salter	Do.	Aden
Uruguay.		
*Captain S. A. Paymaster	Consul	Bombay.
Mr. J. B. Turnbull	Vice-Consul	Calcutta.
Venezuela.		
Mr. F. Aldridge	Consul	Calcutta.

* Honorary.

The Army.

The great sepoy army of India originated in the small establishments of guards, known as peons, enrolled for the protection of the factories of the East India Company; but sepoys were first enlisted and disciplined by the French, who appeared in India in 1665. Before this detachments of soldiers were sent from England to Bombay, and as early as 1665 the first fortified position was occupied by the East India Company at Armagon, near Masulipatam. Madras was acquired in 1640, but in 1654 the garrison of Fort St. George consisted of only ten men. In 1661 Bombay was occupied by 400 soldiers, and in 1668 the number was only 285 of whom 93 were English and the rest French, Portuguese and Indians.

After the declaration of war with France in 1744 the forces were considerably increased, but this did not prevent the French capturing Madras in 1746. Following the French example, the English raised considerable sepoy forces and largely increased the military establishments. In 1748 Major Stringer Lawrence landed at Fort St. David to command the forces of the Company. The English foothold in India was then precarious and the French under Dupleix were contemplating fresh attacks. It became necessary for the English Company to form a larger military establishment. The new commandant at once set about the organisation and discipline of his small force, and the garrison was given a company formation. This was the beginning of the regular Indian Army of which Lawrence subsequently became Commander-in-Chief. In Madras the European companies were developed into the Madras Fusiliers; similar companies in Bengal and Bombay became the 1st Bengal and 1st Bombay Fusiliers. The native infantry were similarly organised by Lawrence and Clive. By degrees Royal Regiments were sent to India, the first being the 39th Foot, which arrived in 1754.

Struggle with the French.—From this time for a century or more the army in India was engaged in constant war. After a prolonged war with the French, whom Dupleix had by 1750 raised to the position of the leading power in India, the efforts of Stringer Lawrence, Clive, and Eyre Coote completed the downfall of their rivals, and the power of England was established by the battle of Plassey in Bengal; and at Wandewash in Southern India, where the French were finally defeated in 1761. A number of independent States, owning nominal allegiance to the Emperor at Delhi, had risen on the decline of the Mughal Empire, some ruled by Mahratta Princes and others by Musalman adventurers such as Hyder Ali of Mysore. A prolonged struggle ensued with the latter and his son and successor Tipu Sultan, which ended only with the defeat and death of Tipu and the capture of Seringapatam in 1799.

Reorganisation of 1796.—In 1796 the Indian armies, which had been organised on the Presidency system, were reorganised. The European troops were 13,000 strong and the Indians numbered some 67,000, the infantry being generally formed into 75 regiments of two battalions each. In Bengal, regiments were formed by linking existing battalions of ten companies each with large establishments of English officers. The Madras and Bombay armies were at the same time reorganised on similar lines, and cavalry and artillery companies were raised.

In 1798, the Marquis Wellesley arrived as Governor-General, firmly imbued with the necessity of destroying the last vestiges of French influence. In pursuance of this policy he reduced Mysore, where Tipu was intriguing with the French, and then turned his attention to the Mahratta States, in which Sindhia had established power over the Mughal Emperor at Delhi by means of a large regular army officered by Europeans under the French adventurer Perron. In campaigns against Sindhia in Hindustan by a British Army under General Lake, and in the Deccan against that prince and the Raja of Berar by an army under General Wellesley, afterwards Duke of Wellington, the power of these Chiefs was broken in the battles of Laswari and Assaye. French influence was finally destroyed, and the Mughal Emperor was released from the domination of the Mahrattas. Subsequently Holkar also was reduced, and British power established on a firm footing.

Mutiny at Vellore.—The Indian Army had been from time to time subject to incidents of mutiny which were the precursors of the great cataclysm of 1857. The most serious of these outbreaks occurred at the fort of Vellore in 1806 when the native troops suddenly broke out and killed the majority of the European officers and soldiers quartered in the fort, while the striped flag of the Sultan of Mysore, whose sons were confined there, was raised upon the ramparts. The mutiny was suppressed by Colonel Gillespie, who galloped over from Arcot at the head of the 19th Light Dragoons, blew in the gate of the fort, and destroyed the mutineers. This retribution put a stop to any further outbreaks in the army.

Overseas Expeditions.—Several important overseas expeditions were undertaken in the early part of the nineteenth century. Bourbon was taken from the French; Ceylon and the Spice Islands were wrested from the Dutch, and Java was conquered in 1811 by a force largely composed of Bengal troops which had volunteered for this service.

In 1814, the Nepal War took place in which the brave Gillespie, who had distinguished himself in Java, was killed when leading the assault on the fort of Kalunga. The Gurkhas were overcome in this war after offering a stout resistance.

In 1817, hostilities again broke out with the Mahrattas, who rose against the British during the progress of operations against the Pindaris. Practically the whole army took the field and all India was turned into a vast camp. The

Mahratta Chiefs of Poona, Nagpur, and Indore rose in succession, and were beaten respectively, at Kirkee, Sitabaldi, and Mehidpur. This was the last war in Southern India. The tide of war rolled to the north never to return. In the Punjab, to which our frontier now extended, our army came into touch with the great military community of the Sikhs.

In 1824, the armies were reorganised, the double-battalion regiments being separated, and the battalions numbered according to the dates they were raised. The Bengal Army was organised in three brigades of horse artillery, five battalions of foot artillery, two regiments of European and 68 of Indian infantry, 5 regiments of regular and 8 of irregular cavalry. The Madras and Bombay armies were constituted on similar lines, though of lesser strength.

First Afghan War and Sikh Wars.—In 1839, a British Army advanced into Afghanistan and occupied Cabul. There followed the murder of the British Envoys and the disastrous retreat in which the army perished. This disaster was in some measure retrieved by subsequent operations, but it had far-reaching effects on British prestige. The people of the Punjab had witnessed these unfortunate operations, they had seen the lost legions which never returned, and although they saw also the avenging armies they no longer regarded them with their former awe. Sikh aggression led to hostilities in 1845-46, when a large portion of the Bengal Army took the field under Sir Hugh Gough. The Sikhs were defeated after stubborn fights at Mudki and Ferozeshahr, the opening battles, but did not surrender until they had been overthrown at the battles of Aliwal and Sobraon. Two years later an outbreak at Multan caused the Second Sikh War when, after an indecisive action at Chilianwala, our brave enemies were finally overcome at Gujerat, and the Punjab was annexed. Other campaigns of this period were the conquest of Sind by Sir Charles Napier, and the Second Burmese War, the first having taken place in 1824.

The conquest of the Punjab extended over the frontier to the country inhabited by those turbulent tribes which have given so much trouble during the past sixty years while they have furnished many soldiers to our army. To keep order on this border the Punjab Frontier Force was established, and was constantly engaged in small expeditions which, while they involved little bloodshed, kept the force employed and involved much arduous work.

The Indian Mutiny.—On the eve of the mutiny in 1857 there were in the Bengal Army 21,000 British and 137,000 Indian troops; in the Madras Army 8,000 British and 49,000 Indian troops; and in Bombay 9,000 British and 45,000 Indian troops. The proportion of Indian to British was therefore too large for safety. The causes of the mutiny were many and various. Among these were the annexation policy of Lord Dalhousie, especially that of Oudh from which the greater part of the Bengal Army was drawn; interference with the privileges of the sepoy with respect to certain allowances; and lack of power on the part of commanding officers either to punish or reward. The final spark which fired the revolt was the introduction of a new cartridge. The muskets of those days were supplied with a cartridge in which the powder was enclosed in a paper cover, which had to be bitten off to expose the powder to ignition. In 1857 a new cartridge was introduced with paper of a glazed texture which it was currently reported was greased with the fat of swine and oxen, and therefore unclean alike for Muhammadans and Hindus. This was interpreted as an attempt to destroy the caste and the religion of the sepoys. Skilful agitators exploited this grievance, which was not without foundation, and added reports that flour was mixed with bone-dust and sugar refined with the blood of oxen.

Disaffection culminated in mutiny at Berhampur and in an outbreak at Barrackpore where sepoy Mangal Pande attacked a European officer. The next most serious manifestation was the refusal of men of the 3rd Bengal Cavalry at Meerut to take the obnoxious cartridge. These men were tried and sentenced to long terms of imprisonment, their fetters being riveted on parade on the 9th May. Next day the troops in Meerut rose, and, aided by the mob, burned the houses of the Europeans and murdered many. The troops then went off to Delhi. Unfortunately there was in Meerut no senior officer capable of dealing with the situation. The European troops in the place remained inactive, and the mutineers were allowed to depart unmolested to spread the flames of rebellion.

Delhi is the historic capital of India. On its time worn walls brood the prestige of a thousand years of Empire. It contained a great magazine of ammunition. Yet Delhi was held only by a few Indian battalions, who joined the mutineers. The Europeans who did not succeed in escaping were massacred and the Delhi Emperor was proclaimed supreme in India. The capital constituted a nucleus to which the troops who mutinied in many places flocked to the standard of the Mughal. An army was assembled for the recovery of Delhi but the city was not captured until the middle of September. In the meantime mutiny had spread. The massacres of Cawnpore and Jhansi took place, and Lucknow was besieged until its relief on the 27th September. The rebellion spread throughout Central India and the territory that now forms the Central Provinces, which were not recovered until Sir Hugh Rose's operations in 1858 ended in the defeat of the Rani of Jhansi.

Minor Campaigns.—During the period until 1879, when the Second Afghan War began, there were many minor campaigns including the China War of 1860, the Ambeyla Campaign, and the Abyssinian War. Then followed the Afghan War in which the leading figure was Lord Roberts. There were expeditions to Egypt and China, and Frontier Campaigns of which the most important was the Tirah Campaign of 1897. There were also the prolonged operations which led up to or ensued upon the annexation of Burma, several campaigns in Africa, and the expeditions to Lhasa. But until 1914, since the Afghan War, the army of India, except that portion of the British garrison which was sent to South Africa in 1899, had little severe fighting, although engaged in many arduous enterprises.

Reorganisation after the Mutiny.—In 1857 the East India Company ceased to exist

and their army was taken over by the Crown. At this time the army was organized into three armies, *viz*: Bengal, Bombay and Madras, the total strength being 65,000 British and 140,000 Indian troops.

Several minor re-organizations took place during the following years, such as the linking of three Regiments together and the raising of Class Regiments and Companies. In 1895 the next large reorganization took place. This was the abolition of the three Armies and the introduction of the command system. Four Commands were formed, *viz*: Punjab, Bengal, Madras and Bombay.

Lord Kitchener's Scheme.—This system lasted until 1904 when under Lord Kitchener's re-organization the Madras Command was abolished and the Army divided into three Commands—the Northern, Eastern and Western, corresponding to the Punjab, Bombay and Bengal Commands.

In 1907, Lord Kitchener considered that consequent on the delegation of administrative powers to Divisional Commanders, retention of such powers by Lieutenant-Generals of Commands led to delay in the despatch of business. The Command system was therefore abolished and India was divided into two Armies—the Northern and Southern—each under a General Officer who was responsible for the command, inspection and training of the troops but was given no administrative responsibilities.

Early in the War both Army Commanders took the field and were not replaced until 1916 and 1917 when both had practically the same functions as their predecessors. It was now realised that administration was being unduly centralised at Army Headquarters and the machinery was becoming clogged with unnecessary details. To secure efficiency at A. H. Q., therefore, a certain measure of decentralisation was carried out in 1918. With the alteration of the designation "Army" to "Command" at this time, a considerable increase was made in the administrative staffs of the two Commands and the General Officers Commanding were given powers to deal with all administrative questions other than those dealing with matters of policy, new principles or war.

The commands were increased to four in 1920, each under a General Officer Commanding-in-Chief.

Present System of Administration

The essential features of the Army, as constructed on its present basis, will be found in "The Army in India and its Evolution," a publication issued in 1924 with the authority of the Government of India.

The Secretary of State, as one of His Majesty's ministers, has a special responsibility and authority in regard to the military administration in India.

The Secretary of State's principal adviser on Indian military affairs is the Secretary in the Military Department of the India Office. The post is filled by a senior officer of the Indian Army with recent Indian experience. The appointment is at present held by Lieutenant General Sir John F. S. D. Coleridge, K.C.B., C.M.G., D.S.O., who was formerly Commander of the Peshawar District from October 1930 to May 1933. The Military Secretary is assisted by one first grade staff officer, selected from the Indian Army. In order that he may keep in touch with the current Indian affairs, the Military Secretary is expected to visit India during the tenure of his office. In addition, by a practice which has obtained for many years, a retired Indian Army officer of high rank has a seat upon the Secretary of State's Council.

The superintendence, direction and control of the civil and military government of India are vested in the Governor-General in Council, who is required to pay due obedience to all such orders as he may receive from the Secretary of State. The Viceroy's Executive Council exercise in respect of Army administration the same authority and functions as they exercise in respect of other departments of the Government; in the first phase of the representative institutions conferred upon India by the Montagu-Chelmsford Reforms Scheme, Army expenditure and the direction of military policy have been excluded from the control of the Indian Legislature.

The Commander-in-Chief.—The next authority in the chain of administrative arrangements is His Excellency the Commander-in-Chief, who by custom is also the Army Member of the Viceroy's Executive Council. The appointment is held by His Excellency Field Marshal Sir Philip W. Chetwode, Bart., G.C.B., K.C.M.G., D.S.O., British Service, who succeeded Field Marshal Sir William Birdwood. He is also a member of the Council of State. All the work connected with the administration of the Army, the formulation and execution of the military policy of the Government of India, the responsibility for maintaining every branch of the Army, combatant and non-combatant, in a state of efficiency, and the supreme direction of any military operations based upon India are centred in one authority,—the Commander-in-Chief and Army Member. In addition, he administers the Royal Indian Marine and the Royal Air Force in India. The Commander-in-Chief is assisted in the executive side of his administration by 4 Principal Staff Officers, *viz.*, the Chief of the General Staff, the Adjutant-General, the Quartermaster-General and the Master-General of Ordnance.

The Army Department.—The Department is administered by a Secretary who, like other Secretaries in the civil departments, is a Secretary to the Government of India as a whole, possessing the constitutional right of access to the Viceroy, he is also for the purposes of Sub-section 4, Section 26 of the Regimental Debts Act, 1893 (56 Vict-C. 5) and the Regulations made thereunder Secretary to the Government of India in the Military Department, and for purposes of the Royal Indian Marine, Secretary to the Government of India in the Marine Department. He also exercises the powers vested in the Army Council by the Geneva Convention Act, 1911, so far as that Act applies to India under the Order in Council No. 1551 of 1916. He is assisted by a Deputy Secretary, an Under Secretary, a Director of Military Lands and Cantonments, a Director, Regulations and Form, and two Assistant Secretaries, (one of whom is also Secretary of the Indian Soldiers' Board).

The Army Department deals with all army services proper, and also the administration of the Royal Indian Marine and the Royal Air Force in India, in so far as questions requiring the orders of the Government of India are concerned. The Army Department Secretariat has no direct relations with commanders of troops or the staffs of formations subordinate to Army Headquarter: it has continuous and intimate relations with Army Headquarters in all administration matters and is responsible for the administration of Cantonments, the estates of deceased officers and the compilation of the Indian Army List. The Army administration is represented in the Legislature by the Army Member in the Council of State, and by the Army Secretary in the Legislative Assembly.

The Military Council—is composed of the Commander-in-Chief as President, and the following members, namely: The Chief of the General Staff, as Vice-President, the Adjutant-General, the Quartermaster-General, the Master-General of Ordnance, the Air Officer Commanding Royal Air Force, the Secretary to the Government of India in the Army Department and the Financial Adviser, Military Finance, representing the Finance Department of the Government of India. It is mainly an advisory body, constituted for the purpose of assisting the Commander-in-Chief in the performance of his administrative duties. It has no collective responsibility. It meets when convened by the Commander-in-Chief for the consideration of cases of sufficient importance and difficulty to require examination in conference. The heads of the minor independent branches of Army Headquarters and the directors of technical services attend when required.

Military Territorial Areas.

Indian Territory is divided in four commands each under a General Officer Commanding-in-Chief and the Independent District of Burma under a Commander. The details of the organisation are given in the table on the next page and it will be seen that Commands comprise 13 districts: 4 Independent Brigade Areas and 30 Brigades and Brigade Areas. The Northern Command, with its headquarters at Murree, coincides roughly with the Punjab and North-West Frontier Province; the Southern Command, with headquarters at Poona, coincides roughly with the Bombay and Madras Presidencies and part of the Central Provinces and Rajputana; the Eastern Command, with headquarters at Naini Tal, coincides roughly with the Bengal Presidency and the United Provinces; the Western Command, whose headquarters are at Quetta, covers Sind and Baluchistan.

The General Officer Commanding-in-Chief of each command is responsible for the command, administration, training and general efficiency of the troops stationed within his area, and also for all internal security arrangements.

Apart from the four commands, the only formation directly controlled by Army Headquarters is the Burma district which, mainly because of its geographical situation, cannot conveniently be included in any of the four command areas. The Aden Independent Brigade which was under the administrative control of the Government of India was transferred to the administrative control of His Majesty's Government from the 1st April 1927.

The distribution of the troops allotted to the commands and districts has been determined by the principle that the striking force must be ready to function in war, commanded and constituted as it is in peace. With this end in view, the Army in India is now regarded as comprising three categories of troops:

(1) Covering Troops,
(2) The Field Army,
(3) Internal Security Troops.

The role of the Covering Force is to deal with minor frontier outbreaks and, in the event of major operations, to form a screen behind which mobilisation can proceed undisturbed. The force consists of approximately 12 infantry brigades with a due proportion of other arms.

The Field Army consists of 4 Divisions and 4 Cavalry Brigades. The Field Army is India's striking force in a major war.

Army Headquarters.

The organization of the Army Headquarters with the Commander-in-Chief as the head, is founded upon four Principal Staff Officers charged with the administration of—

(*a*) The General Staff Branch;
(*b*) The Adjutant-General's Branch;
(*c*) The Quartermaster-General's Branch.
(*d*) The Master-General of Ordnance Branch.

General Staff Branch.

C. G. S.—Genl. Sir Kenneth Wigram, K.C.B., C.S.I., C.B.E., D.S.O., A.D.C., I.A.

D. C. G. S.—Maj.-Genl. B. R. Moberly, C.B., D.S.O., I.A.

M. G., Cat. & Tech. Adviser, R. T. C.—Maj.-Genl. E. D. Giles, C.B., C.M.G., D.S.O., I.A.

M.G., R. A.—Maj-Genl. H. W. Newcome, C.B., C.M.G., D.S.O., Brit. Ser.

This Branch deals with military policy, with plans of operations for the defence of India, with the organization and distribution of the army for internal security and external war, the administration of the General Staff in India the supervision of the training of the military forces for war, their use in war, the organisation and administration of the general staff in India; the education of officers, the supervision of the education of warrant and non-commissioned officers and men of the Army in India, and inter-communication services.

Adjutant-General Branch.

A. G.—Lt.-Genl. Sir Walter S. Leslie, K.C.B., K.B.E., C.M.G., D.S.O., I.A.

D. A. G.—Maj.-Genl. G. Thorpe, C.B., C.M.G., D.S.O., Brit. Ser.

D. M. S.—Maj.-Genl. E. A. Walker, K.H.S., I.M.S.

This Branch deals with all matters appertaining to the raising, organising and maintenance of the military forces in officers and men, the peace distribution of the army, discipline, pay and pensions, martial, military and international law, medical and sanitary matters affecting the Army in India, personal and ceremonial questions, prisoners of war, recruiting mobilization and demobilization. The Judge Advocate-General forms part of the Branch. The Director of Medical Services in India, who was independent before the war, is now included in the Adjutant-General Branch.

Plan Showing Chain of Command.

THE COMMANDER-IN-CHIEF.

(His Excellency Field-Marshal Sir Philip W. Chetwoode, Bart., G.C.B., K.C.M.G., D.S.O., Brit. Ser.)

General Officer Commanding-in-Chief, Northern Command. (Genl. Sir Robert A. Cassels, G.C.B., C.S.I., D.S.O., I.A.)

- Commander, Rawalpindi District. (1st class.) (Maj.-Genl. R. G. Finlayson, C.B., C.M.G., D.S.O., Brit. Ser.).
  - Commander, 1st (Abbottabad) Infantry Brigade. (Brigr. H. L. Haughton, C.I.E., C.B.E.
  - Commander, 2nd (Rawalpindi) Infantry Brigade. (Brigr. A. L. Ransome, D.S.O., M.C., Brit. Ser.).
  - Commander, 3rd (Jhelum) Infantry Brigade. (Brigr. R. H. Anderson, C.I.E., I.A.).
- Commander, Kohat District. (2nd class.) (Maj.-Genl. D. I. Shuttleworth, C.B., C.B.E., D.S.O., I.A.).
  - Commander, Kohat Brigade. (Brigr. H. L. Scott, C.B., D.S.O., M.C., I.A.).
- Commander, Peshawar District. (1st class.) (Maj.-Genl. S. F. Muspratt, C.B., C.S.I., C.I.E., D.S.O., I.A.).
  - Commander, 1st (Risalpur) Cavalry Brigade. (Brgr. E. deBurgh, C.B., D.S.O., O.B.E., I.A.).
  - Commander, Landikotal Brigade. (Maj.-Genl. W. Dent, C.B., C.B.E., D.S.O., I.A.).
  - Commander, Peshawar Brigade. (Brigr. C. J. E. Auchinleck, D.S.O., O.B.E., I.A.).
  - Commander Nowshera Brigade. (Brigr. W. D. Croft, C.M.G., D.S.O., Brit. Ser.).

General Officer Commanding-in-Chief, Western Command. (Lt.-Genl. Sir Torquhil G. Matheson, K.C.B., C.M.G., Brit. Ser.)

- Commander, Baluchistan District. (1st class.) (Maj.-Genl. H. Karslake, C.B., C.M.G., D.S.O., Brit. Ser.).
  - Commander, 4th (Quetta) Infantry Brigade. (Brigr. A. H. Spooner, C.M.G., D.S.O., Brit. Ser.).
  - Commander, 5th (Quetta) Infantry Brigade. (Brigr. S. J. P. Seobell, C.M.G., D.S.O., Brit. Ser.).
- Commander, Zhob (Independent) Brigade Area. (Brigr J. C. McKenna, D.S.O., I.A.). —
- Commander, Sind (Independent) Brigade Area. (Maj-Genl. C. Kirkpatrick, C.B., C.B.E., I.A.). —
- Commander, Waziristan District. (2nd class.) (Maj.-Genl. S. B. Pope, C.B., D.S.O., I.A.).
  - Commander, Razmak Brigade. (Brigr. A. M. Mills, C.B., D.S.O., A.D.C., I.A.).
  - Commander, Bannu Brigade. (Brigr. H. St. G. S. Scott, C.B., D.S.O., I.A.).
  - Commander, Wana Brigade. (Brigr. M. Saunders, D.S.O., A.D.C., I.A.).
- Commander, Lahore District. (1st class.) (Maj.-Genl. A. W. H. M. Moens, C.B., C.M.G., D.S.O., I.A.).
  - Commander, 2nd (Sialkot) Cavalry Brigade. (Brigr. T. A. A. Wilson, I.A.).
  - Commander, Ferozepur Brigade Area. (Brigr. B. W. Shuttleworth, I.A.).
  - Commander, Jullunder Brigade Area. (Brigr. A. G. C. Hutchinson, C.B., O.B.E., I.A.).
  - Commander, Lahore Brigade Area. (Brigr. J. C. Gretton, I.A.).
  - Commander, Ambala Brigade Area. (Brigr. F. G. Gillies, C.B., O.B.E., I.A.).

Plan Showing Chain of Command.
THE COMMANDER-IN-CHIEF.—contd.

(His Excellency Field-Marshal Sir Philip W. Chetwode, Bart., G.C.B., K.C.M.G., D.S.O., Brit. Ser.)

- General Officer Commanding-in-Chief, Eastern Command. (Genl. Sir C. Norman Macmullen, K.C.B., C.M.G., C.I.E., D.S.O., A.D.C., I.A.)
  - Commander, Presidency and Assam District. (2nd class.) (Maj.-Genl. H. K. Bethell, C.B., C.M.G., C.V.O., D.S.O., Brit. Ser.)
    - Commander, 7th (Dehra Dun) Infantry Brigade. (Brigr. A. B. Haig, M.C., I.A.).
    - Commander, 8th (Bareilly) Infantry Brigade. (Brigr. D. B. Ross, O.B.E., I.A.)
  - Commander, Lucknow District. (2nd class.) Maj.-Genl. C. J. B. Hay, C.B., C.M.G., C.B.E., D.S.O., I.A.).
    - Commander, 6th (Lucknow Infantry Brigade. (Brigr. K. M. Laird, D.S.O., Brit. Ser.).
    - Commander, Allahabad Brigade Area. (Brigr. D. G. Ridgeway, C.B., D.S.O., I.A.).
  - Commander, Delhi (Independent) Brigade Area. (Brigr. A. L. M. Molesworth, I.A.).
  - Commander, Meerut District.—(1st class.) (Maj.-Genl. C. A. Key, C.B., C.M.G., C.B.E., D.S.O., Brit. Ser.).
    - Commander, 3rd (Meerut Cavalry Brigade. (Brigr. E. M. Dorman, D.S.O., M.C., Brit. Ser.).
    - Commander, 9th (Jhansi) Infantry Brigade. (Brigr. F. L. Nicholson, D.S.O. M.C., I.A.),
- General Officer Commanding-in-Chief, Southern Command. (Lt.-Genl. Sir George D. Jeffreys, K.C.B., K.C.V.O., C.M.G., Brit. Ser.)
  - Commander, Madras District (2nd class). (Maj.-Genl. C. R. Newman, C.B., C.M.G., D.S.O., Brit. Ser.). —
  - Commander, Bombay District 2nd class.). (Maj.-Genl. H. Needham, C.B., C.M.G., D.S.O., Brit. Ser.). — Commander, Mhow Brigade Area. (Brigr. J. de L. Consy, I.A.).
  - Commander, Poona (Independent) Brigade Area. (Brigr. F. G. Spring, C.M.G., D.S.O., Brit. Ser.). —
  - Commander, Deccan District (1st class). (Maj.-Genl. H. B. D. Baird, C.B., C.M.G., C.I.E., D.S.O., I.A.).
    - Commander, 4th (Secunderabad) Cavalry Brigade. (Brigr. D. K. McLeod, D.S.O., I.A.).
    - Commander, 10th (Jubbulpore) Infantry Brigade. (Brigr. C. G. Ling, D.S.O., M.C., Brit. Ser.).
    - Commander, 11th (Ahmednagar) Infantry Brigade. (Brigr. L. S. H. Smithers, I.A.).
    - Commander, 12th (Secunderabad) Infantry Brigade. (Brigr. D. G. Johnson, V.C., D.S.O., M.C., Brit. Ser.).
- Commander, Burma Ind. District. (2nd class.) (Maj.-Genl. D. Deane, C.B., D.S.O., I.A.)
  - — — Commander, Rangoon Brigade Area. (Brigr. C. C. Foss, V.C., D.S.O., Brit. Ser.).

Quarter-Master General's Branch.

Q. M. G.—Lt.-Genl. Sir W. Edmund Ironside, K.C.B., C.M.G., D.S.O., Brit. Ser.

D. Q. M. G.—Maj.-Genl. E. F. Orton, C.B., I.A.
D. S. & T.—Brigr. (Local Maj.-Genl.) E. M. Steward, O.B.E., I.A.

This Branch is concerned with the specification, provision, inspection, maintenance and issue of supplies, *i.e.*, foodstuffs, forage, fuel, etc., and is responsible for the following Services:—Transportation, Movements, Quartering, Supply and Transport, Military Farms, Remounts, Veterinary, Garrison and Regimental Institutes. Also for the purchase of grains and of minor supplies not provided in bulk by the authority responsible for production and provision.

Master General of the Ordnance Branch.

M. G. O.—Lt.-Genl. Sir Henry, E. ap R. Pryee, K.C.B., C.M.G., D.S.O., I.A.

D. M. G. O.—Brigr. (Local Maj.-Genl.) W. R. Paul, C.B.E., Brit. Ser.

This Branch controls the ordnance and clothing factories is concerned with the provision, inspection, maintenance and issue of equipment and ordnance stores, clothing, and necessaries and conducts all matter relating to contracts in respect of food-stuffs, &c., and supply in bulk of general stores and materials. The Master-General is also responsible for the design, inspection, and supply of guns, carriages, tanks, smallarms, machine guns, ammunition, chemical warfare appliances, etc. He also deals with questions regarding patents, royalties and inventions.

There are other branches of Army Headquarters administered by officers who are not classified as Principal Staff Officers, but are not directly subordinate to any of the four Principal Staff Officers.

These are:

(1) MILITARY SECRETARY'S BRANCH.
Mily. Secy.—Maj.-Genl. W. L. O. Twiss, C.B., C.B.E., M.C., I.A. The Military Secretary deals with the appointment promotion and retirement of officers holding the King's Commission, the selection of officers for staff appointments, and the appointment of officersto the Army in India Reserve of Officers. He is also the Secretary of the Selection Board.

(2) ENGINEER-IN-CHIEF'S BRANCH.
E.-in-C.—Maj.-Genl. G. H. Addison, C.B., C.M.G., D.S.O., Brit. Ser.

The Engineer-in-Chief is the head of the Corps of Royal Engineers in India. He is responsible for Engineer operations and Engineer Services during war and peace, the preparedness for warof the Engineering services. The supply of Engneer stores during war and peace. The construction and maintenance of all military works and the constructional efficiency, accuracy and economy of all projects and designs.

In addition to the above, the Army Headquarters staff includes certain technical advisers, *viz.*, the Major-General, Cavalry, the Major-General, Royal Artillery, and the Adviser and Secretary Board of Examiners.

The duties of the Signal Officer-in-Chief, the Inspector of the Army Educational Corps, India and the Inspector of Physical Training are carried out by the Commandants of Signal Training Centre, India, Jubbulpore, Army School of Education, India, Belgaum and Army School of Physical Training, Ambala, respectively.

Regular British Forces in India.

The British cavalry and British infantry units of the army in India are units of the British service. No individual British service unit is located permanently in India. Units of the British Army are detailed for a tour of foreign service, of which the major part is as a rule spent in India. In the case of British infantry battalions the system is that one battalion of a regiment is normally on home service while the other is overseas. In the case of British cavalry the same arrangement cannot be applied, as one unit only comprises the regiment.

In Great Britain, in peace-time, units are maintained at an establishment smaller than that required for war. In India, the peace establishments exceed the war establishments in view of the fact that reserves of British personnel do not exist, and reinforcements must be obtained from Great Britain.

British Cavalry.—There are 5 British cavalry regiments in India. The establishment of a British cavalry regiment is 27 officers and 567 other ranks.

British Infantry.—The present number of British infantry battalions in India is 45, each with an establishment of 28 officers and 865 other ranks.

In 1921, an important change was made in the composition of a British infantry battalion in India by the inclusion of a proportion of Indian combatant ranks. Battalions had always maintained a quota of Indian followers, but up to 1921 the combatant personnel was entirely British. In 1921, on the abolition of the Machine Gun Corps, eight machine guns were included in the equipment of a British infantry battalion. This number was increased to twelve in 1927. In 1929, a change of organisation was introduced, and the battalion now comprises:—*Headquarters Wing*—1 Machine Gun Company and 3 Rifle Companies. Each Rifle Company has 4 Lewis guns. The Machine Gun Company is organised into:—Headquarters and 3 Platoons (all on pack) each of 2 Sections of 2 vickers guns each. The peace establishment of Indian combatant personnel is fixed at one Indian officer and 43 Indian other ranks. The Indian platoon, as it is called, is transferred *en bloc* to another British battalion when the battalion to which it was originally attached proceeds on relief out of India.

Royal Artillery.—Indians are employed as drivers and artificers in the Royal Horse Artillery and in field and medium batteries, as drivers, gunners and artificers in mountain batteries, and as gunners in heavy batteries

The peace organisation of the artillery at the present day is as follows:

Royal Horse Artillery.—Comprises four independent batteries. Each battery is armed with six 13-pounder guns.

Field (Higher and Lower Establishment) Brigades.—Five brigades on the higher establishment, each consisting of headquarters and four batteries. Four brigades on the lower establishment, each consisting of headquarters and four batteries. A brigade on the higher establishment consists of 3 batteries of six 18 prs. each and 1 battery of six 4.5″ Howitzers or 2 batteries of six 18 prs. each and 2 batteries of six 4.5″ Howitzers. A brigade on the lower establishment consists of 3 batteries of four 18 prs. each and 1 battery of four 4.5″ Howitzers or 2 batteries of four 18 prs. each and 2 batteries of four 4.5″ Howitzers each.

Field (Mechanised) Brigade.—The mechanised brigade consists of two batteries armed with four 18-pounder guns, and two batteries armed with four 4·5″ howitzers.

Field (Reinforcement) Brigade.—The reinforcement brigade consists of two double batteries, each armed with four 18-pounder guns, and four 4·5″ howitzers.

Ammunition Columns.—Two Divisional ammunition columns are maintained for the artillery of the first and second divisions, and one field ammunition column for the covering force brigade on the frontier. These are all mechanised.

Indian Mountain Brigades.—Six brigades, each consisting of headquarters, one British light and three Indian mountain batteries, one unbrigaded mountain battery also one mountain Artillery Section for Chitral and one Survey Section. All batteries are armed, with four 3.7″ howitzers. The armaments of the Frontier posts at Kohat, Fort Lockhart, Fort Milward, Fort Salop, Jhansi post, Arawali, Bannu, Wana Mir Ali, Wana Thal, Chaman, Hindubagh, Malakand, Landi Kotal; Shagai; Chakdara and Fort Sandeman are also manned by personnel of Indian Mountain Brigades, R.A.

Medium Brigades.—Two brigades, all consisting of tractor drawn batteries. Three batteries in each brigade, two of which are armed with six 6″ howitzers, and one battery with four 60-pounder guns.

Heavy Brigade.—One battery at Bombay and one at Karachi.

Anti-Aircraft—Headquarters One battery, located at Bombay. The battery is armed with eight 3 inch, 20 cwt. guns.

Artillery Training Centres.—One centre at Muttra, for Indian ranks of R. H. A. and of field medium and anti-air craft batteries and another centre at Ambala for Indian ranks of Light, Mountain and Heavy Artillery. These centres were created for the recruitment and training of Indian personnel. There is also a R. A. Boys Depot at Bangalore.

Engineer Services.

The Engineer-in-Chief.—The head of the Corps of Royal Engineers in India is directly responsible to His Excellency the Commander-in-Chief. The Engineer-in-Chief is not a Staff Officer, but the technical adviser of the Commander-in-Chief on all military engineering matters and is responsible for:

(1) Engineer operations and engineer services during war and peace.

(2) The preparedness for war of the engineering services.

(3) The supply of engineer stores during war and peace.

(4) The execution and maintenance of all military works.

(5) The constructional efficiency, accuracy and economy of all projects and designs submitted by him.

The Organisation.—The Engineer organisation of the Army consists of two main branches, *viz.*, the Sappers and Miners and the Military Engineer Services.

The composition of the Corps of Sappers and Miners is as follows:

Queen Victoria's Own Madras Sappers and Miners, with headquarters at Bangalore. King George's Own Bengal Sappers and Miners, with headquarters at Roorkee. Royal Bombay Sappers and Miners, with headquarters at Kirkee.

The personnel of the Corps consists of Royal Engineer officers, Indian Army Officers fromthe late Pioneer Corps, Indian officers holding the Viceroy's commission, a certain number of British warrant and non-commissioned officers, Indian non-commissioned officers and Indian other ranks. Each Corps is commanded by a Lieut.-Colonel, who is assisted by a Superintendent of Instruction, an Officer-in-Charge, Workshops, an Adjutant, a Quartermaster, three Subadar-Majors, a Jemadar Adjutant and a Jemadar Quartermaster.

Field Troops are mounted units, trained to accompany cavalry, and are equipped to carry out hasty bridging, demolition and watersupply work. Field Companies are trained to accompany Infantry. Divisional Headquarters' Companies are small units containing highly qualified "tradesmen" and are trained to carry out technical work in connection with field workshops. Army Troops Companies are somewhat smaller units than field companies; they are required to carry out work behind divisions, under the orders of Chief Engineers, *e.g.*, heavy bridging work, large water-supplies, electrical and mechanical installation.

The Military Engineer Services control all military works in India, and Burma except in the case of a few small outlying military stations, which are in charge of Public Works Department. They control all works for the Royal Air Force and all major works for the Royal Indian Marine; and they are charged with all civil works in the North-West Frontier, Province and Baluchistan under the orders, in each of these two areas, of the Governor and Agent to the Governor-General, respectively. They also control civil works in Bangalore, under the Mysore Government.

The Engineer-in-Chief is assisted by a Deputy Engineer-in-Chief (Works) and a Deputy Engineer-in-Chief (Electrical and Mechanical). In each Command there is a Chief Engineer, while in the Northern Command a Deputy Chief Engineer administers Military and Civil works in the N. W. F. P. and is Secretary, P. W. D., to the Govt. of N. W. F. Province. The Chief Engineer, Western Command, is the

Secretary, P. W. D., to the Agent to the Governor-General in Baluchistan. Both at Army Headquarters and in Commands there are Staff Officers, R. E., and Technical Officers. At the headquarters of each district there is a Commander, Royal Engineers, assisted in certain districts by A. Cs. S. R. E. Officers of the Barrack Department are also employed as District Stores Officers. Garrison Engineers are in charge of brigade areas and military stations, their charges being divided into sub-divisions under Sub-divisional Officers. The sub-divisions are Buildings and Roads, Electrical and Mechanical, and Furniture and Stores. There are sub-overseers for Buildings and Roads and the Barrack Department subordinates in charge of Furniture and Stores are assisted by storekeepers.

Royal Air Force in India.

The Royal Air Force in India is controlled by the Commander-in-Chief in India as part of the defence services of the Indian Empire. The Air Force budget is incorporated in the Military Estimates. The Commander of the Air Force, the Air Officer Commanding in India is an Air Marshal whose rank corresponds to that of a Lieut.-General in the Army. The appointment is now held by Air Marshal Sir John M. Steel, K.B.E., C.B., C.M.G.

The headquarters of the Air Force is closely associated with Army Headquarters and is located with the latter at the seat of the Government of India. The Air Officer Commanding has a headquarters staff constituted in six branches, namely, air staff, personnel, technical, stores, medical and chief engineer. The system of staff organisation is similar to the staff system obtaining in the Army. Broadly speaking, the duties assigned to the divisions mentioned are those which are performed by the General Staff Branch, the Adjutant-General's and Military Secretary's branches, the Quartermaster-General's Branch, the Medical Directorate and the Engineer in Chief's branch respectively, of Army Headquarters.

Subordinate formations.—The formations subordinate to the Royal Air Force Headquarters are:—

(*i*) GROUP COMMAND, comprising 2 Wing Stations of two squadrons each, on a station basis.
(*ii*) Wing Command comprising 2 squadrons not on a station basis.
(*iii*) Station Commands.
(*iv*) The Aircraft Depot.
(*v*) The Aircraft Park.
(*vi*) Heavy Transport Flight.
(*vii*) R.A. F. Hill Depot, Lower Topa.

Group Command.—The Group Command is known as No. 1 (Indian) Group Headquarters, and is located at Peshawar. The Group Commander is a Group Captain, corresponding in rank to a Colonel in the Army. His staff is organised on the same system as that of the Headquarters of the R. A. F. in India. The establishment of the Group consists of 4 officers and 16 airmen.

The subordinate units to No. 1 (Indian) Group Headquarters are as follows:—
No. 1 Wing Station, R.A.F., Kohat.
No. 2 Wing Station, R.A.F., Risalpur.
Army Co-operation squadron at Peshawar.

Wing Command.—There is one Wing Command only namely 3 (Indian) Wing, R.A.F., located at Quetta. The Wing Commander is an officer with Air Force rank corresponding to a Lieutenant-Colonel in the Army.

He is equipped with a staff organised on approximately the same system as the Headquarters of a Group. The Wing Establishment consists of 4 officers and 17 airmen.

Wing Station Commands.—There are 2 Wing station commands in India, one located at Peshawar and the other at Risalpur. Each station consists of two squadrons on a reduced squadron basis with one administrative head, *i.e.*, Station Headquarters under the command of a Wing Commander. The strength of the Station Headquarters is 8 officers and 112 airmen, while that of the two squadrons totals 24 officers and 106 airmen. The wing Station at Risalpur also administers the Parachute Section.

The Squadrons.—Of the 8 squadrons 7 are extended along the North West Frontier from Quetta to Risalpur, and one is stationed at Ambala.

The squadron is the primary air force unit, and it consists, normally, of a Headquarters and three flights of aeroplanes. A flight can be detached temporarily but not permanently from its squadron as repair facilities, workshops and stores cannot economically be organised on anything less than a squadron basis. The squadrons headquarters comprises the officers and other ranks required for the command and administration of the squadron as a whole; it includes the workshops and repair units, the armouries and equipment stores of the squadrons.

The number of aeroplanes in a squadron varies with the type of aeroplane with which the squadron is equipped; but speaking generally squadrons on a peace basis have twelve aeroplanes *i.e.*, four in each of three flights. This does not however apply to the twin engined bombing squadrons.

Of the 8 squadrons 4 are equipped with Bristol Fighters and four with Wapitis and they are allotted for distant reconnaissance and bombing duties, of the other four, which are allotted for Army Co-operation duties, two squadrons are equipped with Bristol Fighters and two with Wapitis aircraft.

Squadron Establishment.—The establishment of officers in a squadron consists of seven officers in the Headquarters, and fifteen officers allotted to flying duties. This allows a reserve of one officer for each of the operative flights.

The establishment of other ranks is 123 airmen.

The Aircraft Depot.—The Aircraft Depot may be conveniently described as the wholesale store and provision department of the Royal Air Force. Technical stores are received from the United Kingdom, and in the first instance, held by this unit. It is also the main workshop and repair shop of the Force, where all engine repairs, mechanical transport repairs, and aircraft repairs of any magnitude are carried out. The Depot is located at Drigh Road, Karachi.

The Aircraft Park.—Relatively to the Aircraft Depot, the Aircraft Park may be described as a central retail establishment, intermediate between the squadrons and the Aircraft Depot. It receives stores from the depot and distributes them to the squadron. The Stocks held in the Park are, however, usually limited to items necessary at short notice for operations, and the quantities held are kept as low as distance from the depot and local conditions will admit. In war, an Aircraft Park is intended to be a mobile formation, though the aircraft Park in India cannot be made mobile under ordinary conditions. In peace, the Aircraft Park is located at Lahore. New aeroplanes received from the United Kingdom are erected there, but no major repairs are undertaken. In addition to the above functions, practically the whole of the motor transport bodies requred for R. A. F. vehicles are built or repaired at Aircraft Park. The Heavy Transport flight is administered by this unit.

Composition of Establishments.—The personnel of the Royal Air Force in India consists of officers, warrant officers, non-commissioned officers and men in the ranks of the R. A. F. of the United Kingdom, and Indian artificers, Mechanical Transport drivers and followers of the Indian Technical and Followers Corps, R. A. F. in India. The officers are employed on administration, flying and technical duties but all with the exception of officers of the store and medical branches are required to be capable of flying an aeroplane. A proportion of airmen are also trained and employed as pilots for a period of five years, after which period, they revert to their technical trades. Apart from these airmen all warrant officers, non-commissioned officers and aircraftsmen are employed solely on technical duties. The only other flying personnel who are not officers or airmen pilots are air gunners and a certain percentage of wireless operators.

The warrant officers, non-commissioned officers and aircrattsmen are employed at all units. The personnel of the Indian Technical and Followers Corps are employed as follows :—

(*a*) Technical Section (artificers) .. Aircraft Depot. Aircraft Park.
(*b*) M. T. Drivers Section . All Units.
(*c*) Followers Section .. All Units.

The total establishment of the Royal Air Force in India is as follows :—

Officers	256
Airmen	1,881
Indian Officers, other ranks and followers ..	924
Civilians	521

The Royal Air Force Medical Services.—In India, as in the United Kingdom, the Air Force has a medical service of its own. Flying must still be regarded at present as an abnormal pursuit for the human being. It is carried out under conditions which differ widely from those on the ground. With the growth of aeronautics therefore, it was found necessary to create a separate depa t-ment of medical science whose functions, broadly stated are to study the effect of flying upon the human constitution both mental and physical, to study also the effects of different forms of illness and physical disability upon flying efficiency and to apply in practical form the results ascertained. The essential object in view is to save life by ensuring, so far as possible that those who fly are physically and psychologically fit to do so. The present establishment of the Royal Air Force Medical Service in India consists of 11 officers and 27 airmen. The Medical Administration is controlled by the Principal Medical Officer of the rank of Group Captain, on the staff of the Air Officer Commanding the R. A. F. in India.

Indian Air Force.—This force came into existence on 8th October 1932, the date on which the first batch of six Indian cadets, after receiving training at Cranwell, obtained commission as Pilot Officers. These officers will form the first unit of the Indian Air Force. The training of cadets for the Indian Air Force cannot at present be undertaken in India, and arrangements have been made to continue their training at Cranwell.

Regular Indian Forces.

Indian Cavalry.—The present number of Indian cavalry regiments is 21.

The peace establishment of an Indian cavalry regiment comprises :

14 British officers.
19 Indian officers.
492 Indian non-commissioned officers and men.

Indian Infantry.—The establishment of the Indian Infantry is constituted as follows:

	Battalions
19 Infantry Regiments consisting of ..	98
3 Regiments of Sappers and Miners ..	7
10 Gurkha regiments consisting of ..	20
32	125

The normal strength of an active battalion is—

	British Officers.	Indian Officers.	Indian other ranks
Infantry ..	2	20	703
Gurkhas ..	13	22	908

The strength of an infantry training battalion depends upon the number of battalions forming the regiment. The average is as follows :—

British Officers 9, Indian Officers 13, and Indian other ranks 682.

In 1932 it was decided that the Pioneer organization was no longer absolutely necessary as the duties on which Pioneers were employed eg., road-making etc., were now generally performed by la etwebour. The whole organization has therefore been disbanded, and the opportunity has been taken to make a much needed addition to the various Engineer units (Sappers and Miners).

Reserves for the various units of the Indian Army have to be sufficient to provide for an actual shortage on mobilisation as well as for the maintenance of the mobilised unit at full strength for the first 8 months after mobilisation.

Reserve.—The conditions of the reserve, are as follows:—

The Indian Army Reserve consists of private soldiers or their equivalent. It is comprised of class 'C' reservists for Indian Cavalry

Artillery Sappers and Miners, Signals and Infantry and class 1 for Gurkha Rifles. The new class 'C' reserve was introduced for Indian Cavalry, Artillery, Sappers and Miners and Signals with effect from 1st October 1932 and for Indian Infantry with effect from 1st May 1932. There still remain a number of classes 'A' and 'B' reservists which count against the authorised establishment of the reserve but those will be gradually eliminated.

Training for Indian Cavalry, Infantry and Gurkha Rifles reservists is carried out biennially.

Reserve pay at certain specified rates is admissible from the date of transfer to, or enrolment in, the reserve. When called up for service or training, reservists receive pay and allowances, in lieu of reserve pay, at regular rates according to their arm of the service.

The establishment of reservists is fixed at present as follows:—

Cavalry	2,943
Artillery	2,329
Engineers	1,678
Indian Signal Corps	994
Infantry	22,120
Gurkhas	2,000
Railway Nucleus Reserve ..	654
Supplementary Reserve ..	247
Total ..	32,965

The Indian Signal Corps.—The Corps is organised on the same lines as a Sapper and Miner Corps, with a headquarters for recruiting and training personnel, and detached field units for the various army formations. The head of the corps is the commandant, Signal Training Centre (India), who belongs to the Royal Corps of Signals and performs the duties of the Signal Officer-in-Chief in the General Staff Branch at Army Headquarters as a technical adviser on questions connected with signals, and is also responsible for the technical inspection of all signal units. A chief signal officer with similar functions is attached to the headquarters of each Army Command. The British portion of the Corps has now been amalgamated with the Royal Corps of Singals.

The headquarters, termed the Signal Training Centre, India, are located at Jubbulpore, and are commanded by a Colonel, assisted by a staff, British and Indian, organised on very much the same lines as the headquarters of a Corps of Sappers and Miners.

The various types of field units and the number maintained are:—

Corps Signals Headquarters including Line and Wireless Company	2
Cavalry Brigade Signal Troops ..	4
Divisional Signals	4
District Signals	3
Experimental Wireless Section ..	1

In addition, there is an Army Signal School which carries out the training of regimental signalling instructors.

The formation of the District signals units was effected in 1926 with the transfer of Communications on the North-West Frontier to the Posts and Telegraphs Department. This transfer of communications also made feasible the raising of the 'A' and 'C' troops of Cavalry Brigade Signals to include a Wireless Section each the formation of two Corps Signal Headquarters, The District Signals are located at Peshawar, Waziristan and Kohat.

Royal Tank Corps.—Six armoured car companies arrived in India in 1921. Two more companies arrived in 1925. Two Group Headquarters were sanctioned in 1925. They are located as follows:—the Northern Group at Rawalpindi, this Group Headquarters commands companies in the Northern and Eastern Commands. The Southern Group at Poona. This Group Headquarters commands companies in the Southern and Western commands. There is a school at Ahmednagar for the training of R. T. C. personnel and the conduct of experiments.

Organisations.—2 Light Tank Companies. Each company consists of Headquarters and 3 Sections and is armed with 25 Carden Lloyd Light Tanks; 4 for Company Headquarters and 7 per section.

6 Armoured Car Companies. Each company consists of Headquarters and 3 Sections and is armed with 16 armoured cars; 1 for Company Headquarters and 5 per section. Excepting one company which is equipped with Guy Cars, armoured car all companies are equipped with Crossley Cars.

The establishments of the Royal Tank Corps formations are shown below:—

—	British Officers.	British other ranks.	Followers.	Motor cars.	Motor cycles.	Armoured cars.	Lorries.
Group Headquarters	2	2	..	..	..	..	..
Tank Corps School	5	48	16	1	2	9	9
Armoured Car Company	12	142	32	2	6	16	10

Medical Services.—The military medical services in India are composed of the following categories of personnel and subordinate organisations:—

(*a*) Officers and other ranks of the Royal Army Medical Corps serving in India;

(*b*) Officers of the Indian Medical Service in military employment;

(*c*) The Indian Medical Department, consisting of two branches, *viz.*, (i) assistant surgeons and (ii) sub-assistant surgeons.

(*d*) Queen Alexandra's Imperial Military Nursing Service.

(*e*) The Queen Alexandra's Military Nursing Service for India.

(*f*) The Army Dental Corps.

(*g*) The Indian Military Nursing Service.
(*h*) The Indian Hospital Corps.

Of these categories, the officers and men of the Royal Army Medical Corps and the Army Dental Corps, the assistant surgeons of the Indian Medical Department and the Queen Alexandra's Imperial Military Nursing Service and the Queen Alexandra's Military Nursing Service for India are primarily concerned with the medical care of British troops; while the officers of the Indian Medical Service, the sub-assistant surgeons of the Indian Medical Department and the Indian Military Nursing Service are concerned, primarily, with the medical care of Indian troops. The Indian Hospital Corps serves both organisations.

Civilians of miscellaneous classes employed by the Army in Waziristan are given medical treatment in military hospitals, and arrangements have been made with the Headquarters of the Indian Red Cross Society for the medical treatment and care of cases amongst Indian soldiers and followers of the Indian Army for chronic diseases, such as tuberculosis, leprosy and diabetes.

Indian Army Service Corps.—The Indian Army Service Corps is the counterpart of the Royal Army Service Corps of the British Army. It has developed from the Commissariat Department of an earlier period, and its immediate predecessor was the Supply and Transport Corps, by which name the service was known up to 1923. The Indian Army Service Corps which is under the control of the Quartermaster-General, is constituted in three main branches, namely: (*a*) Supply, (*b*) Animal transport, and (*c*) Mechanical Transport. The latter is constituted upon a special basis, which is, generically, a sub-division of the Royal Army Service Corps organisation.

The strength of the establishment is shown by categories in the following table:—

SUPPLY.

Officers with King's commissions	140
Indian officers	68
British other ranks	340
Civilians	621
Followers	1,401
Total	2,570

ANIMAL TRANSPORT.

Officers with King's commissions.	58
Indian officers	129
British other ranks	42
Civilians	105
Indian other ranks	9,845
Followers	1,403
Total	11,582

There are also 1,576 driver reservists.

The total number of mules and camels maintained under the present organisation, including the depots and the detachment in Kashmir, are 13,711 and 4,128 respectively. There are also 183 horses, 436 ponies and 12 bullocks. Wheeled and pack transport are combined. The company on the lower establishment represent the pre-war "cadre," other companies being maintained in peace-time at full war establishment.

MECHANICAL TRANSPORT.

Officers with King's commissions.	123
Indian officers	63
British other ranks	227
Indian other ranks	2,839
Indian civilians	231
Followers	1,204
Total	4,687

There are also 3,035 reservists.

The mechanical transport establishment consists of the following:—

(*a*) Field units—
- 11 M. T. Companies, consisting of 11 headquarters, 36 service sections (higher establishment), and 8 service sections (lower establishment).
- 5 M. T. Companies for motor ambulance convoys consisting of 5 headquarters, 1 section (higher establishment) and 11 sections (lower establishment).
- M. T. Companies (Mobile Repair Units) consisting of 2 headquarters and 4 sections.

(*b*) Maintenance units—
- 5 Heavy Repair shops.
- 1 Central M. T. Stores Depot.
- M. T. technical inspectorate, one M. T. depot for training Indian drivers.
- 1 Vehicle Reserve Depot.

Apart from units and vehicles employed in the conveyance of military stores, the mechanical transport service also provides motor ambulance convoys for hospitals and field medical units, and vehicles for other miscellaneous purposes. The total establishment now consists of 2,068 vehicles with 109 motor cycles.

The mechanical transport was taken over by the Indian Army Service Corps in 1927. At present the officers of the service are mainly drawn from the Royal Army Service Corps since at present there are no facilities in India for training officers in every branch of mechanical transport duties. The establishment of officers includes, however, a certain number of King's commissioned officers belonging to the Indian Army. The British subordinates of the service are drawn entirely from the Royal Army Service Corps.

The Ordnance Services which are under the M.G.O. may be broadly described as the agency whose duty it is to supply the army with munitions of war, such as small arms, guns, ammunition and other equipment of a technical military character, and also, under an arrangement introduced in recent years, with clothing and general stores other than engineering stores. A central disposal organisation is in operation under the control of the Master General of Ordnance to dispose of the Surplus Stores and waste materials of the various services of the Army and the Royal Air Force in India to the best advantage of the State.

Army Remount Department.—The following are among the most important duties for the remount service:—The provision of animals for the Army in India. The enumeration throughout India of all animals available for transport in war. The animal mobili-

zation of all units, services and departments of the army. A general responsibility for the efficiency of all the animals of the army both in peace and war. The administration of the remount squadron formed in 1922 as a nucleus for expansion into three squadrons on mobilization. Breeding operations of a direct character.

The department is organised on lines corresponding to the remount service in the United Kingdom. Its composition is as follows: The Remount Directorate at Army Headquarters consisting of one Director and a Deputy Assistant Director. 4 Remount officers, one attached to each Command Headquarters, 6 Superintendents of Remount Depots, 5 District Remount officers of horse-breeding areas and the Ahmednagar Stud, 16 Assistant Remount officers and 8 Veterinary officers.

Veterinary Services in India.—The Veterinary services are responsible for the veterinary care, in peace and war, of animals of British troops, Indian cavalry and artillery, I. A. S. C. units, the remount department (excluding horse-breeding operations), etc. The veterinary services include: The establishment of Royal Army Veterinary Corps officers, serving on a tour of duty in India and those of the continuous service cadre. The establishment of warrant and non-commissioned officers, India Unattached List, and veterinary assistant surgeons of the Indian Army Veterinary Corps.

The Indian Army Veterinary Corps is organised in 12 sections, attached in peace-time to Class I veterinary hospitals at certain important stations.

Military Farms Department.—This department, which is under the control of the Quartermaster-General consists of two branches:-

(i) The military grass farms, which provide fodder for the army.

(ii) The military dairy farms, for the provision of dairy produce for hospitals, troops and families.

Educational Services.—The education of the army is under the control of the Army Educational Corps and of Indian officers borne supernumerary to the establishment of units of the Indian Army. The establishment is as follows including training schools:—

British officers.	Indian officers.	B. O.	I. O.	Civilians.
56	46	165	60	238

Terms of service in the Indian army are as follows:—

Cavalry, 7 years' service in army and 8 years in the reserve.

Artillery, 7 years' service in army and 8 in the reserve for gunners and drivers (horse); drivers (mechanical transport) 6 years in army and 9 years in the reserve; and 4 years' service in army for Heavy Artillery personnel.

S. & M. Corps, 7 years' service in army and 8 in the reserve.

Indian Signal Corps, 7 years' service in army and 8 in the reserve.

Infantry (except Gurkhas and trans-frontier personnel of the Infantry other than Orakzais), 7 years in army service and 8 years in the reserve.

Gurkhas and trans-frontier personnel of infantry, 4 years' service in army.

Indian combatant personnel of British infantry 6 years in army.

Indian Military establishments of the Indian Army Ordnance Corps, 4 years' service in the army.

Animal transport personnel of the Indian Army Service Corps, drivers of mechanical transport and all combatants of the Army Veterinary Corps, 6 years' service in army and 9 in the reserve.

All combatants in the Works Corps, 2 years' service in army.

Bandsmen, musicians, trumpeters, drummers, buglers, fifers and pipers, 10 years' service in army.

Except in the case of those enrolled in the Works and of those who are non-combatants, all school-masters, clerks, artificers, armourers, engine drivers, farriers, carpenters, tailors and bootmakers, 10 years' service in army.

The period laid down for service in the army is the minimum and may be extended. Combatants may be enrolled direct into the Reserve, in which case there is no minimum period of service, but no one is allowed to serve in the reserve or in any class of the reserve for a longer period than is permitted by the regulations in force.

Frontier Militia and Levy Corps.—These forces are "Civil" troops, *i.e.*, they are administered and paid by the Civil authorities and not by the Army. They are, however, officered by Officers of the Regular Indian Army. These forces were raised for duty on the North-West Frontier and at present consist of the following:—Kurram Militia, Tochi Scouts, South Waziristan Scouts, Chitral Scouts, Gilgit Scouts, Zhob militia and the Mekran Levy Corps.

The Auxiliary Force.

After the war, the question of universal training for European British subjects came up for consideration, and it was decided that in India, as elsewhere in the Empire, the adoption of compulsory military service would be undesirable. It was recognised, however, that India needed some adequate auxiliary force, if only on a voluntary basis, that could be trained to a fairly definite standard of efficiency; and in the result, an Act to constitute an Auxiliary Force for service in India was passed in 1920. Under this Act membership is limited to European British subjects, and the liability of members for training and service is clearly defined. Military training is graduated according to age, the more extended training being carried out by the younger members, the older members being obliged to fire a musketry course only. It was laid down that military service should be purely local. As the form of service that would be most suitable varies largely according to localities, the local military authorities, acting in consultation with the advisory committee of the Auxiliary Force area, were given the power of adjusting the form of training to suit local conditions.

The Auxiliary Force comprises all branches of the service, cavalry, artillery, engineers, infantry—in which are included railway battalions,—machine gun companies, a Signal Company, and the Medical and Veteri-

nary Corps. Units of the Auxiliary Force are under the command of the local military authority, and the latter has the power of calling them out for service locally in a case of emergency. Their role is to assist in home defence. Training is carried on throughout the year. Pay at a fixed rate is given for each day's training and, on completion of the scheduled period of annual training, every enrolled member of the force is entitled to a certain bonus. Men enrol in the Auxiliary Force for an indefinite period. An enrolled person is entitled to claim his discharge on the completion of four years' service or on attaining the age of 45 years. Till then he can only be discharged on the recommendation of the advisory committee of the area.

The duties connected with the Defence Light Sections at Calcutta, Bombay, Karachi and Rangoon are performed by the Field Companies R. E. (A. F. I.) at those stations, assisted by Indian ranks of Sapper and Miner Units.

Indian Territorial Force.

The Territorial Force is one of the several aspects of the Indianisation of the military services. The force is intended to cater, amongst other things, for the military aspirations of those classes of the population to whom military service has not hitherto been a hereditary profession. It is intended, at the same time, to be a second line to and a source of reinforcement for the regular Indian army. Membership of the force for this latter reason carries with it a liability for something more than purely local service or home defence. It may, in certain circumstances, involve service overseas. The force is the direct successor of the Indian section of the Indian Defence Force created during the war. It has been modelled on the old militia in England. The essence of its scheme of organisation consists in training men by means of annual embodiment for a short period in successive years. By this means Indian Territorial Force units can be given sufficient preliminary training in peace to enable them, after a comparatively short period of intensive training, to take their place by the side of regular units in war.

The Indian Territorial Force consists at present of three main categories, provincial battalions, urban units and the university training corps units. The last are recruited from the staff and students of Indian universities. They are trained all the year round by means of weekly drills during terms and a period of 15 days in camp and are equipped with a permanent staff of British instructors. On ceasing to belong to a university, a member of the corps is discharged. In the case of the university training corps units there is no liability to perform the liability to render actual military service. Their purpose is mainly educative, to inculcate discipline and form character. But, incidentally, they are expected to be a source of supply of both officers and men for the provincial and urban units.

The members of the provincial battalions accept the full liability for service which has been mentioned. Seven such battalions were constituted in the first instance. The number is now eighteen and, though the unit establishment has not been completely filled in all cases, the movement has already achieved a greater degree of success than might have been anticipated at so early a stage. Although for the present the infantry arm only has been created with the addition of the I.T.F. Medical Branch, the force by law may include every other army service.

Men enrol in the provincial battalions for a period of six years, the period being reduced to four years in certain cases. On the completion of the first period they can re-enrol voluntarily for further specified periods. During his first year, every man does preliminary training for one calendar month and during every year he receives one month's periodical training. Members of *urban units* have only a provincial liability. 4 such units were constituted in 1928 in Bombay, Madras, and the United Provinces, one of which has since been disbanded. Members enrolled for a period of 6 years and train all the year round. During his first year every man does 32 days' preliminary training, and in every subsequent year 16 days' periodical training.

The Indian State Forces.

The Indian State Forces, formerly designated "Imperial Service Troops," consist of the military forces raised and maintained by the Rulers of Indian States at their own expense and for State service. It has been the custom in emergency for State troops to be lent to the Government of India, and the Government of India have on many occasions received military assistance of great value from this source. But the rendering of such aid is entirely at the discretion of the Ruling Princes and Chiefs. Government, on the other hand, provide permanently a staff of British officers, termed "Military Advisers and Assistant Military Advisers," to assist and advise the Ruling Princes in organising and training the troops of their States.

After the war had ended, the Indian States, like the Government of India, undertook a military reorganisation, which in a number of cases, has already been carried out. The principal feature of the new arrangements, as adopted more or less generally, is that in future the Indian State Forces should be composed of three categories of troops, namely:

Class A.—Troops in this class are organised on the present-day Indian Army system and establishments, and, with some exceptions, are armed with the same weapons as corresponding units of the regular Indian Army.

Class B.—These troops consist of units which are, in most cases, little inferior in training and discipline to troops of Class A; but they are not organised on present-day Indian Army establishments. They have, as a rule, retained the system of the pre-war formations. Their standard of armament is pitched lower than that of Class A troops.

Class C.—These troops consist in the main of militia formations, which are not permanently embodied. The standard of training, discipline and armament, prescribed for this class, is generally lower than the standard prescribed for Class B troops.

The authorized and actual strength of the

Indian State Forces on the 1st October 1933, amounted to—

	Authorized strength.	Actual strength.
Artillery	1,616	1,599
Cavalry	9,648	9,066
Infantry	34,684	29,506
Camel Corps	466	456
Motor Machine Gun Sections	100	85
Sappers	1,307	1,067
Transport Corps ..	1,560	1,608
Grand total ..	49,371	43,387

Officers.

There are two main categories of officers in the Indian Army; those holding the King's Commission and those holding the Viceroy's Commission. The latter are all Indians, apart from the Gurkha officers of Gurkha battalions, and have a limited status and power of command, both of which are regulated by the Indian Army Act and the rules made thereunder. Within recent years several Indians have received King's Commissions, on entry into the Indian Army through the Royal Military College, Sandhurst and the Royal Military Academy, Woolwich.

King's Commissioned officers for the Indian Army are obtained from two main sources: from among the cadets who pass through the Royal Military College, Sandhurst, and by the transfer to the Indian Army of officers belonging to British units. The former is the principal channel of recruitment; the latter being only resorted to when, owing to abnormal wastage or for some other special reason, requirements cannot be completed by means of cadets from Sandhurst. A third source is from among University candidates. When a cadet has qualified at Sandhurst and has received his commission, he becomes, in the first instance, an officer of the Unattached List, and is posted for a period of one year to a British battalion or regiment in India, where he receives a preliminary training in his military duties. At the end of the year, he is posted as a squadron or company officer to a regiment or battalion of the Indian Army. Administrative services and departments of the army draw their officers from combatant units, as it has hitherto been regarded as essential that every officer should, in the first instance, receive a thorough grounding in combatant, duties, and acquire at first hand an intimate knowledge of the requirements of the combatant arms.

The promotion in rank of King's commissioned officers of the Indian Army is regulated by a time-scale up to the rank of Lieutenant-Colonel but is subject also to certain professional examinations and tests being successfully passed. The rank of Lieutenant-Colonel is in normal course attained at 26 years' service; promotion beyond this rank is determined by selection.

Indian Officers.—One of the most momentous decisions of the Great War, so far as the Indian Army is concerned, was that which rendered Indians eligible to hold the King's commission in the army. King's commissions are obtainable by Indian gentlemen in three ways: (1) By qualifying as a cadet through the Royal Military College, Sandhurst or the Royal Military Academy, Woolwich. Examinations are held twice a year in India for the selection of suitable candidates for admission. (2) By the selection of specially capable and deserving Indian officers or non-commissioned officers of Indian regiments promoted from the ranks or those appointed direct as jemadar. These receive their commissions after training at the Royal Military College or Academy as Cadets and qualifying in the usual way. (3) By the bestowal of honorary King's commissions on Indian officers who have rendered distinguished service, but whose age and lack of education preclude their being granted the full King's commission. The first two avenues of selection mentioned afford full opportunity to the Indian of satisfying a military ambition and of enjoying a military career on terms of absolute equality with the British officer, who, as a general rule, also enters the army by qualifying at Sandhurst or Woolwich. Until 1931, ten vacancies at Sandhurst and three at Woolwich were reserved annually for Indian cadets.

A further measure adopted by the Government was the establishment of the Prince of Wales' Royal Indian Military College at Dehra Dun, a Government institution for the preliminary education of Indians who desire to qualify for the King's commission in the army through the Royal Military College, Sandhurst or the Royal Military Academy, Woolwich. The arrangements so far made enable a maximum of 70 boys to be in residence at the college at any one time, and the normal course of education is planned to occupy six years. In February 1923, it was decided that eight units of the Indian Army should be completely Indianized. The units selected for Indianization were: 7th Light Cavalry; 16th Light Cavalry; 2nd Bn., Madras Pioneers; 4/19th Hyderabad Regiment; 5th Royal Battalion, 5th Mahratta Light Infantry; 1/7th Rajput Regiment (Q. V. O. L. I.); 1/14th Punjab Regiment; 2/1st Punjab Regiment.

In 1932 a considerable advance in the Indianization of the Army was made by the announcement that it was intended to Indianize a Division of all Arms and a Cavalry Brigade. In order to implement this decision, the following units have been marked for Indianization, 3rd Cavalry, 5/2nd Punjab Regiment, 5/6th Rajputana Rifles, 5/8th Punjab Regiment, 5/10th Baluch Regiment, 5/11th Sikh Regiment, 4/12th Frontier Force Regiment, and 6th Royal Battalion 13th Frontier Force Rifles, in addition to units of Indian Artillery, Engineers, etc., together with the usual complement of ancillary services, to make up a complete Division.

In order to train officers for the Indian Army of the future, the Indian Military Academy at Dehra Dun was opened in October 1932. It will provide officers for all arms cavalry, infantry, artillery and signals.

Training Institutions.

The following institutions exist in India for the higher training of military personnel and for the education of instructors for units:—

Staff College, Quetta.
Senior Officers' School, Belgaum.
School of Artillery, Kakul.
Equitation School, Saugor.
Small Arms Schools (India), at Pachmarhi and Ahmednagar.
Army School of Physical Training, Ambala.
Army Signal School, Poona.

Royal Tank Corps School, Ahmednagar.
Army School of Education, Belgaum.
Army School of Cookery, Poona.
Army Veterinary Schools, Ambala and Poona.
Indian Army Service Corps Training Establishment, Rawalpindi.
Indian Army Ordnance Corps School of Instruction, Kirkee.

The object of these Schools is to ensure to all the units throughout the army a constant supply of officers, warrant officers, non-commissioned officers and men, provided with a thorough up-to-date knowledge of various technical subjects, and with the ability to pass on this knowledge.

Following the procedure adopted at Home, the Small Arms and Machine Gun Schools were amalgamated in February 1927. Instruction in the rifle, light gun, etc., is carried out at Pachmarhi and in the machine gun at Ahmednagar.

The King George's Royal Indian Military Schools at Jhelum, Jullundur and Ajmere, and the Kitchener College, Nowgong, also exist for the education of the sons of Indian soldiers with a view to their finding a career in the Indian Army. The latter at present assists in the training of Indian N. C. Os. for promotion to Viceroy's Commission. The Prince of Wales's Royal Indian Military College at Dehra Dun exists for the preliminary education of Indians who desire to qualify for the King's Commission in the Army through the Indian Military Academy.

Army in India Reserve of Officers.—Previous to the Great War there existed what was called the Indian Army Reserve of Officers, a body of trained officers available to replace casualties in the Indian Army. The war proved that for many reasons this reserve did not fully meet requirements and in 1922 the Army in India Reserve of Officers was constituted.

The revised Regulations for the A. I. R. O. published in 1926 provide that the following gentlemen may be granted commissions in the Reserve:—

(1) Officers who having held King's commissions and retired from H. M.'s forces.

(2) Officials, other than Military officers, serving under the Government of India or a local Government.

(3) Private gentlemen residing in India, possessing the requisite qualifications and previous training.

The Reserve comprises each arm and branch of the Army and the officers are posted to definite branches and units.

All officers are required to undergo periodical training up to a maximum of 30 days a year and receive pay and allowances admissible to regular officers of the same rank and arm of the service, during training.

Members of the Auxiliary Force, India, may become "officers designate" for the grant of commissions in the A. I. R. O., upon the calling to army service of that reserve.

Officers and officers designate receive Rs. 200 annually as a retaining fee, and an outfit allowance of Rs. 400, on joining.

The strength of the Reserve on the 1st January 1934 was 1,398.

Recruitment for the Reserve has been extended to Ceylon, the number to be commissioned in Ceylon being limited to 50.

The Fighting Races.—The fighting classes that contribute to the composition of the Indian Army have hitherto been drawn mainly from the north of India, but the experiences of the great war have caused some modifications in the opinions previously held as to the relative value of these and other fighting men. The numbers of the various castes and tribes enlisted in the Army have since the war undergone fluctuations, and it is not possible at present to give exact information as to their proportions. Previous to the war the Sikhs contributed very large numbers both to the cavalry and infantry, and the contribution of the Gurkhas was also large. The Sikhs, who inhabit the Punjab originated in a sect founded near Lahore by a peasant in the early part of the sixteenth century and in the course of a hundred years grew into a formidable militant power. Muhammadans of various races contribute a still larger proportion to both the cavalry and infantry. These are drawn both from the north and the south of India, as well as from beyond the Frontier. They are all excellent fighting men, hardy and warlike, who have furnished soldiers to all the great powers of India for many hundreds of years. As cavalry the Muhammadans are perhaps unequalled by any other race in the East, being good horsemen and expert men-at-arms.

Next in point of numbers are the Gurkhas of Nepal, of whom there are twenty complete battalions, which during the war were considerably increased. As fighters in the hills they are unsurpassed even by the Pathans in the North-West Frontier, but the Garhwalis and Kumaonis are equally good mountaineers.

The professional military caste of India from time immemorial has been the Rajput, inhabiting not only Rajputana but the United Provinces and Oudh. Of fine physique and martial bearing, these warriors of Hindustan formed the backbone of the old Bengal Army, and have sustained the English flag in every campaign in the East. Their high caste and consequent prejudices in no respect interfere with their martial instincts and efficiency in war. They furnish many battalions. The Garhwalis are Hill Rajputs, good and gallant soldiers, who have proved themselves equal to any other troops on the field of battle and have established an imperishable record in the war both in Europe and in the East. The two battalions which existed in 1914 have since been increased to four. The Jats are a fine and warlike race of Hindus found in the Delhi and Rohtak districts and adjoining territory. It was these people who held out so bravely at Bharatpur and repelled Lord Lake's army in 1805. They have proved themselves good soldiers on the battlefields of Europe. Dogras are good and steady soldiers found in the hilly districts of the Punjab. They fought well in Flanders and in Mesopotamia.

Among those who have rendered signal and gallant service in the war are the Mahrattas of the Deccan and the Konkan, who have revived the reputation held by their race in the days of Shivaji, the founder of the Mahratta Empire. It is probable that their proved efficiency in war will lead to their recruitment in larger numbers in future.

In addition to the castes that have been mentioned other caste men from the south and other parts of India have filled the ranks of the

Sappers and Miners, and done their duty well in every campaign in which they have been engaged.

During the war the Victoria Cross was awarded for conspicuous gallantry to 2 Indian officers, 4 non-commissioned officers and 6 other ranks of the Indian Army.

The Military Cross was awarded to 96 Indian Officers for distinguished service rendered during the Great War and to 3 Indian Officers for service in Waziristan.

A large number of Indian Officers and men were also granted Foreign decorations.

Summary of India's Effort in the War.—In a despatch by the Commander-in-Chief published in July, 1919, the whole operations of the Indian Army during the war are reviewed. His Excellency gives in it the following figures showing the extent of India's contribution in terms of men. On the outbreak on war, the combatant strength of the Indian Army, including reservists, was 194,000 Indian ranks; enlistments during the war for all branches of the service amounted to 791,000, making a total combatant contribution of 985,000. Of this number, 552,000 were sent overseas. As regards non-combatants, the pre-war strength was 45,000; an additional 427,000 were enrolled during the war and 391,000 were sent overseas. The total contribution of Indian personnel has thus been 1,457,000, of whom 943,000 have served overseas. Casualties amounted to 106,594, which include 36,696 deaths from all causes. The number of animals sent overseas was 175,000.*

Effectives, 1933.

—	Officers with King's Commissions.	British other ranks.	Indian Officers with Viceroy's Commissions.	Indian other ranks.	Clerks and other civilians.	Followers.	Indian reservists.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
I. Combatant Services (includes Cavalry, Artillery Engineers, Pioneers, Infantry, Signal Service and Tank Corps) ..	4,012	54,576	3,174	1,21,718	(*a*)	19,280	32,965
II. Staff (inclusive of personnel of Administrative Services) ..	550	476	14	129	1,345	507	..
III. Training Establishments (inclusive of personnel of Departmental Corps)	104	132	14	90	51	508	..
IV. Educational Establishments ..	65	154	55	70	375	399	..
V. Indian Army Service Corps (*Numbers taken after deducting the numbers included in item II*)	386	769	278	13,403	1,288	5,681	4,611
VI. Indian Army Ordnance Corps. (*Numbers taken after deducting the numbers included in item II*)	81	561	6	1,128	546	191	85
VII. Medical Services (*Numbers taken after deducting the numbers included in item II*) ..	860	802	623	3,427	..	4,707	5,300
VIII. Veterinary Services (*Numbers taken after deducting the numbers included in item II*)	44	4	105	560	46	90	77
IX. Remount Services (*Numbers taken after deducting the numbers included in item II*) ..	26	18	3	145	298	2,618	..
X. Miscellaneous Establishments (inclusive of Military Accounts Department) ..	323	155	138	586	4,368	2,173	169
XI. Auxiliary and Territorial Forces (Permanent Establishments)	127	256	..	..	15	5	..
Total ..	6,578	57,903	4,410	1,42,256	8,331	36,159	43,207

(*a*) Included in column 7.

* For a record of the services of the Indian Army in the War, see "The Indian Year Book" of 1920, p. 152, *et seq.*

Budget Expenditure on National Defence.

A part of the Defence expenditure on the Indian Budget is incurred in England, the nature of such expenditure being indicated in the detailed Tables of Army, Marine and Military Engineer Services expenditure. This expenditure is met by transfer of funds from India. From the 1st April 1920 to the 31st March 1927, the accounts were prepared on the basis of the rate of 2*s* per rupee for the conversion of English sterling transaction into rupees. From the 1st April 1927 the accounts are being prepared at the standard rate of 1*s*. 6*d*. per rupee.

As a rule, the receipts collected by the various departments are not set off against expenditure as appropriations in aid, but are shown separately on the receipts side of the budget. This is especially the case with the receipts of the Military Departments, which amount to considerable sums.

The Provincial Governments incur no expenditure for Military purposes.

SUMMARY OF DEFENCE EXPENDITURE (Gross.)

Table 1.

	1931-32. Closed Accounts.	1932-33. Revised Estimates.	1933-34. Budget estimates as passed.
	Rupees (000's omitted.)		
Defence Services—Effective	46,15,05	42,07,70	41,96,58
Defence Services—Non-effective	8,70,45	8,51,08	8,55,09
Defence Reserve Fund	1,03,22	....	....
Total ..	55,88,74	50,58,78	50,51,67

NOTES.—(1) This summary includes the cost of the Royal Air Force, which is included in the Army Estimates, and also the expenditure on non-effective services, but does not include debt services.

(2) All Expenditure for Military purposes incurred in the United Kingdom by the Indian Government, as also all contributions to the Imperial Government for these purposes, are included in the above figures.

ANALYSIS OF DEFENCE EXPENDITURE.

1. The following table gives the main items of *Army* Expenditure, (gross) shown for India and England separately :—

Table 2.

	1931-32. Closed Accounts.	1932-33. Revised Estimates.	1933-34. Budget Estimates.
INDIA.	Rupees (000's omitted).		
A. *Standing Army :*			
(1) Effective Services :			
Fighting Services ..			13,79,67
Administrative services			6,11,95
Manufacturing establishments (including stores			2,18,93
Army Headquarters, Staff of Commands, etc.			1,85,73
Purchase and sale of stores, equipment and animals			4,04,51
Special Services			8
Transportation, Conservancy, anti-malarial measures, hot weather establishments and miscellaneous			1,98,25
Total Effective Services ..			29,99,12
(2) Non-effective Services :			
Non-effective charges			3,51,37
B. *Auxiliary and Territorial Forces :*			
Effective			68,39
C. *Royal Air Force :*			
Effective			95,72
Non-effective			32
Total : India:			
Effective	34,95,39	32,36,32	31,63,23
Non-effective	3,56,97	3,53,03	3,51,69
Total ..	38,52,36	35,89,35	35,14,92

Table 2—contd.

	1931–32. Closed Accounts.	1932–33. Revised Estimates.	1933–34. Budget Estimates.
ENGLAND.	(Rupees 000's omitted)		
1. *Standing Army.*			
(1) Effective Services :			
Fighting Services			3,24,48
Administrative Services			42,42
Manufacturing establishments (including stores)			24,22
Army Headquarters, Staff of Commands, etc.			11,77
Purchase and sale of stores, equipment and animals			40,67
Special Services			..
Transportation, Conservancy, anti-malarial measures, hot weather establishments and miscellaneous			89,45
Total Effective Services ..			5,33,01
(2) Non-effective Services			4,91,17
B. *Royal Air Force* :			
Effective			61,40
Non-effective			3,10
Total : England	12,55,33	11,02,59	10,88,68
Total Army Expenditure :			
Effective	42,61,37	38,48,40	37,57,64
Non-effective	8,46,32	8,43,54	8,45,96
Grand Total ..	51,07,69	46,91,94	46,03,63

The amounts expended in England on effective services consist of such charges as payments to the War Office and Air Ministry in London in respect of British Forces serving in India, the transport to India of these forces, and payments on account of stores taken to India by British Forces, educational establishments in England for Indian Services, leave pay of Indian and British service Officers on the Indian Establishments, purchase of imported stores, etc. The expenditure on non-effective services consists of payments to the War Office in London for retired pay to British forces for services in India and to non-effective and retired officers of the Indian Service, and of various gratuities.

Although a sum of Rs. 460 millions only has been allotted in the Budget for 1933-34 to meet the net expenditure on Military Services Rs. 505·1 millions (including receipts) will be available for expenditure under the heading "Military Services" made up of Rs.391·9 millions for expenditure in India and Rs. 113·2 millions in England.

The gross working expenses of military establishments, such as bakeries, pasture and dairy farms, army clothing factories, and storage depots, army ordnance factories and base mechanical transport workshops are included in the Budget.

The division of expenditure on *Military Engineer Services* between India and England is as shown below:—

	1931–32.	1932–33.	1933–34.
	Closed Accounts.	Revised Estimates.	Budget Estimates.
	(Rupees 000's omitted)		
India	3,94,29	3,27,97	3,64,69
England	4,69	4,60	4,06
Total ..	3,98,98	3,32,57	3,68,75

Cost of the Army.—A Tribunal was set up in 1932 to investigate the amount of India's contribution towards the recruiting and training expenses in England of the British troops and airmen who serve for a part of their time in India. The Tribunal has also examined India's counter-claim to a contribution towards the cost of her defence expenditure.

The Tribunal was an advisory body which met in November with instructions to report to the Prime Minister. The Chairman was Sir Robert Garran, until recently Solicitor-General in the Commonwealth of Australia. Lord Tomlin and Lord Dunedin were nominated by his Majesty's Government, and Sir Shadi Lal, Chief Justice of the Punjab High Court, and Sir Muhammad Sulaiman, the Senior Puisne Judge of the High Court of Allahabad, by the Government of India.

The matters on which the Tribunal will make recommendations have been subjects of controversy for many years, and, as was recognized in the Report of the Simon Commission, the issue bears upon the great constitutional problem now under consideration. One reason for the connexion is the heavy burden of the cost of defence upon India. Taking the Central and Provincial Governments together, it amounts to 29 per cent. of the total expenditure; and if the Central Government alone is considered it amounts to 54 per cent. These calculations take account of net receipts only from semi-commercial undertakings such as railways, posts, and telegraphs.

Capitation payments.—When, after the Mutiny, the troops of the East India Company were amalgamated with those of the Crown a capitation rate of £10 on every British soldier sent to India was fixed. This worked out at an average annual sum of, roughly, £631,000.

In 1870 objections were raised by both sides to the £10 rate, and until 1878 India made payments on account averaging £440,000 per annum. An Act of Parliament confirmed these amounts as full payment, with the effect of writing off outstanding War Office claims. In 1890 the capitation rate was fixed at £7 10s. Meanwhile the British forces in India had been substantially increased, and the altered rate represented an annual expenditure of about £734,000. A committee presided over by Lord Justice Romer was appointed in 1907. It held that the capitation charge was justified in principle. In the following year the Secretaries of State for India and War (Lord Morley and Lord Haldane) agreed to a compromise whereby the rate was raised to £11 8s., the annual charge on India being thereby increased by about £300,000. During the War India met this liability as part of her normal military expenditure, and all extraordinary costs arising from the employment of Forces from India in the various theatres of War were met by the British Exchequer, in accordance with decisions of Parliament.

The great increases in rates of pay and cost of equipment led to the capitation rate being raised in 1920 to £28 10s. Since 1924 India has paid on account each year £1,400,000, compared with War Office claims, backed by elaborate details which amounted in 1926-28 to approximately £4,500,000 and would still exceed the provisional payments by about £300,000 annually. The Government of India has disputed the bill.

The Strength of the Army.

BRITISH TROOPS.

The following table gives the average strength of British troops, and the main facts as regards their health for the quinquennial periods 1910-14 and 1915-19 and for the years 1920 to 1929 :—

Period.	Average strength.	Admissions.	Deaths.	Invalids sent home.	Average constantly sick.
1910-14 average	69,440	39,389	303	488	2,094·57
1915-19	66,199	58,367	583	1,980	3,277·53
1920	57,332	61,429	385	2,314	3,488·08
1921	58,681	60,515	408	749	3,070·04
1922	60,166	37,836	284	714	1,902·32
1923	63,139	37,595	237	979	1,793·31
1924	58,614	38,569	246	879	1,857·95
1925	57,378	36,069	166	997	1,750·19
1926	56,798	36,893	171	910	1,758·60
1927	55,632	34,666	149	829	1,654·22
1928	56,327	33,034	166	556	1,635·99
1929	59,827	38,742	203	671	1,746·84

INDIAN TROOPS.

The average strength of Indian troops, including those on duty in China and Nepal and other stations outside India in 1928 was 131,190.

The following table gives below the actuals and ratios of sickness, deaths, and invaliding for the quinquennial periods 1910-14 and 1915-19 and for the years 1920 to 1929 :—

Period.	Average strength.	Admissions.	Deaths.	Invalids.	Average constantly sick.	Ratio per 1,000 of strength.			
						Admissions.	Deaths.	Invalids.	Average constantly sick.
1910-14 (average)	130,261	71,213	573	699	2,662	544·6	4·39	5·4	20·7
1915-19 (average)	204,298	161,028	3,435	4,829	7,792	788·2	16·81	23·6	38·1
1920 ..	216,445	164,987	2,124	4,564	9,265	762·3	9·81	21·1	42·8
1921 ..	175,384	119,215	1,782	3,638	6,031	679 7	10·16	20·7	34·4
1922 ..	147,840	77,468	1,014	2,659	3,639	524·0	6·86	18·0	24·6
1923 ..	143,234	66,847	856	2,328	2,955	466·7	5·98	16·3	20·63
1924 ..	134,742	57,014	772	1,731	2,432	423·1	5·73	12·8	18·05
1925 ..	136,473	48,691	547	1,712	2,053	356·8	4·01	12·5	15·04
1926 ..	135,146	52,517	507	1,569	2,082	388·6	3·75	11·6	15·41
1927 ..	133,200	47,054	442	1,842	1,972	358.6	3·37	12·8	15·03
1928 ..	131,190	48,739	372	1,251	2,034	371.5	2·84	9·54	15·51
1929 ..	154,580	45,654	639	1,431	1,864	361·5	3·42	....	16·8

THE EAST INDIES SQUADRON.

Since 1903 a squadron of the Royal Navy, known as the East Indies Squadron, has been maintained in Indian waters. It has naturally varied in strength from time to time. In 1903 the squadron consisted of one second class and three smaller cruisers and four sloops or gunboats. In 1906, it consisted of two second class and two third class cruisers, and remained at this strength until 1910: when one second class cruiser was withdrawn and two smaller vessels substituted, and three cruisers were lent from the Mediterranean to assist in the suppression of the arms traffic in the Gulf. By 1913 the position of the East Indies squadron had considerably improved. The battleship Swiftsure had taken the place of the second class cruiser which had been flagship, and another, second class cruiser replaced the Perseus.

The present composition of the East Indies Squadron (Fourth Cruiser Squadron) is as follows:—

"Hawkins" (Flag), Cruiser: 9,800 tons "Emerald," Cruiser, 7,550 tons; "Enterprise" 7,550 tons Sloops. "Lupin," Cruiser: 7,550. Sloops "Folkestone," "Fowey," "Shoreham" and "Bideford,"

India contributes £100,000 a year towards naval expenditure and approximately £3,000 a year on account of Indian Transport Service performed by the Admiralty, and also maintains the Royal Indian Marine as a Naval Service.

India's Marine Expenditure.

Since 1869 India has paid a contribution of varying amounts to the Imperial Government in consideration of services performed by the Royal Navy. Under existing arrangements which date from 1896-7 the subsidy of £100,000 a year is paid for the upkeep of certain ships of the East India Squadron, which may not be employed beyond prescribed limits, except with the consent of the Government of India. The expenditure amounts to nearly £400,000 annually.

The question of a new distribution of the burden of the cost of Imperial Naval defence was discussed at the Imperial Conference in London in October—November 1926. The matter appeared to be one on which the delegates could form no new decision without further consultations in their respective capitals and no resolution was passed.

The Royal Indian Marine has been reorganized so as to form the nucleus of the Indian Navy. It consists of a Depot Ship 4 Sloops, 2 Patrol vessels and a Survey vessel. A fifth sloop is under construction in England and will replace one of the Patrol vessels.

ROYAL INDIAN MARINE.

The Royal Indian Marine (The Sea Service under the Government of India) traces its origin so far back as 1612 when the East India Company stationed at Surat found that it was necessary to provide themselves with armed vessels to protect their commerce and settlements from the Dutch or Portuguese and from the pirates which infested the Indian coasts. The first two ships, the Dragon and Hoseander (or Osiander), were despatched from England in 1612 under a Captain Best, and since those days under slightly varying titles and of various strengths the Government in India have always maintained a sea service.

The periods and titles have been as follows:—

Hon. E. I. Co.'s Marine	..	1612—1686
Bombay "	..	1686—1830
Indian Navy "	..	1830—1863
Bombay Marine ..	..	1863—1877
H. M. Indian Marine ..	..	1877—1892
Royal Indian Marine ..		1892, Present day.

The Marine has always been most closely connected with Bombay, and in 1668 when the E. India Co. took over Bombay, Captain Young of the Marine was appointed Deputy Governor. From then until 1877 the Marine was under the Government of Bombay, and although from that date all the Marine Establishments were amalgamated into an Imperial Marine under the Government of India, Bombay has continued to be the headquarters and the official residence of the Director.

War Service of the Marine.

1612–1717 Continuous wars against Dutch, Portuguese and Pirates for supremacy of West Coast of India. 1744 War with France, capture of Chandernagore, and French ship Indienne. In 1756 Capture of Castle of Gheria. 1774 Mahratta War, capture of Tannah. Latter part of the eighteenth century, war with French and Dutch, Capture of Pondicherry, Trincomalee, Jafnapatam, Colombo, etc. 1801 Egyptian campaign under Sir Ralph Abercrombie. 1803 War with France. 1810 Taking of Mauritius and capture of French ship in Port Louis. Early part of the nineteenth century suppression of Jowasmi Pirates in the Persian Gulf. 1811 Conquest of Tara. 1813 Expedition against Sultan of Sambar. 1817-18 Mahratta War, capture of Forts at Severndroog. 1819 Expedition to exterminate piracy in the Persian Gulf. 1820 Capture of Mocha. 1821 Expedition against the Beni-koo-Ali Arabs. 1824-26 First Burma War. 1827 Blockade of Berbera and Somali Coast. 1835 Defeat of Beni Yas Pirater. 1838 Expedition to Afghanistan and capture of Karachi. 1838 Capture of Aden. 1840-42 War in China. 1843 Scinde War Battle of Meanee, capture of Hyderabad. 1845-46 Maori war in New Zealand. 1848-49 War in Punjab, siege of Mooltan. 1852 Second Burma War, Capture of Rangoon, Martaban, Bassein, Prome and Pegu. 1855 Persian

War, capture of Bushire, Muhammerah and Ahwaz. 1856–57 War in China. 1857–59 The Indian Mutiny. 1859 Capture of the Island of Beyt. 1860 China War, Canton, Taku Forts, Fatshan and Pekin. 1871 Abyssinian War. 1882 Egyptian Campaign. 1885 Egyptian Campaign. 1885 Third Burma War. 1889 Chin-Lshai Expedition. 1896 Suakin Expedition. 1897 Expedition to Imtirbe, Mombassa E. Africa. 1899–1902 S. . African War. 1900–01 Boxer Rebellion in China relief of Pekin, 1902-04 Somaliland Expedition, Suppression of Arms Traffic operations, Persian Gulf, 1912-14.

During the War 1914-1918 Royal Indian Marine Officers were employed on many and various duties. Royal Indian Marine Ships "DUFFERIN," "HARDINGE," "NORTHBROOK," "LAWRENCE," "DALHOUSIE" and "MINTO" had their guns mounted and served as Auxiliary Cruisers. Officers also served in the Royal Navy in the Grand Fleet, Mediterranean North Sea, North Red Sea and Caspian Sea Fleets.

In addition to transport duties in Indian Ports, Officers were sent to Marseilles, East Africa and Egypt for such duties, and on the entry of Turkey into the War were employed on duties towing and manning River Craft and Barges to and in Mesopotamia, and it was necessary to enlist a number of Temporary Officers, Warrant Officers and men to the numbers of approximately 240, 60 and 2,000 respectively for these and other duties.

When the War Office assumed full control of Operations in Mesopotamia a large number of Regular and Temporary Officers and men were seconded to the Royal Engineers and General Service respectively for duties in the Inland Water Transport which controlled all River Transport work in that country, and these officers held many important executive appointments in that unit.

The movements of all sea transports between India and the various theatres of War were controlled by Marine Officers.

Trawlers were built in the Bombay and Calcutta Dockyards and mine sweeping operations were carried out with these and launches off Bombay and elsewhere, the trawlers were also used for towing duties.

Retired Royal Indian Marine Officers were employed on naval transport duties in England and France, and also in very responsible positions with the Inland Water Transport in France.

Service in the War 1914-18.—The Royal Indian Marine, though a small Service compared with the Army and Navy, played a very active and conspicuous part in the European War. These are set out in detail in the Indian Year Book for 1922 and earlier editions (*q. v.* p. 202 *et seq.*).

Reorganisation Schemes.—After the War the Government of India asked Admiral of the Fleet Lord Jellicoe, who was visiting India, to draw up a scheme for the reorganisation of the Service. His valuable suggestions were unfortunately too ambitious for Indian finances and could not be accepted.

Shortly afterwards the Esher Committee arrived in India to report on the Indian Army and although the R.I.M. was not included in their terms of reference, they strongly recommended that the R. I. M. should be reorganised as a combatant service. The Government of India in 1920 obtained from the Admiralty the services of Rear-Admiral Mawby as Director, R.I.M., to draw up a scheme of reorganisation within limited lines. His scheme, however, was not adopted, and Admiral Mawby resigned his appointment.

The R.I.M. then fell upon hard times; money was scarce, the report of the Inchcape Committee necessitated drastic retrenchments, and the working of the Montagu-Chelmsford reforms resulted in the Local Governments having to defray the cost of the work of R. I. M. ships on their various stations, on lighthouse duties, transport work, carrying of officials, etc. The Local Governments were naturally inclined to think that if they had to pay they would like to have a say in the management, and that if the work could be done cheaper locally, they should arrange to carry out the duties themselves. Further, the Inchcape Committee recommended that the three large troopships should be scrapped and all trooping carried out under contract, which would have left the Marine with only the Survey Department and the Bombay Dockyard.

A Combatant Service.—Happily for the Service, however, the Government of India in 1925 appointed a Departmental Committee under the Chairmanship of General Lord Rawlinson, in his capacity of Minister of Defence and Member of Council in charge of the Marine Portfolio, to submit a scheme for the reorganisation of the Service as a combatant force. This Committee recommended that the Service should be reorganised as a purely combatant Naval Service with the title of Royal Indian Navy, with a strength in the first instance of 4 armed sloops, 2 patrol vessels, 4 mine-sweeping trawlers, 2 surveying ships and a depot ship, the Service in the first instance to be commanded by a Rear-Admiral on the active list in the Royal Navy. The scheme was accepted by the Indian and Home Governments, and the necessary Act to permit India to maintain a Navy was passed through both Houses of Parliament.

To effect the change in the title it was necessary to draw up a new Indian Naval Discipline Act, and this had to be passed in the Legislative Assembly and Council of State in India. The Bill was introduced in February 1928, when the Government were defeated by one vote, the defeat being caused, not by the fact that the people of India did not want an Indian Navy, but because in some cases members did not consider that the Legislature had been properly and fully consulted beforehand. Other members voted against the Bill on principle, as they considered that both Army and Navy should be directly controlled by the Legislature, while the extremists voted against it because they were prepared to vote against any Government Bill which might be introduced.

The blow to the Service was a heavy one, as it was feared that the defeat might put an

end to the reorganisation. The Government, however, decided that the reorganisation should continue on the original lines, except that the title could not be altered, and that the service would have to use the old Discipline Act, a perfectly correct "Articles of War" based on the Naval Discipline Acts.

In 1928, on the recommendation of the Admiralty, His Majesty the King approved of the change in uniform of officers to that of the Royal Navy, with the exception of the buttons of the R. I. M., which bear the Star of India as a distinctive mark, and also of the flying in R.I.M. ships of the White Pennant and the White Ensign of the Royal Navy. The White Ensign was hoisted for the first time on Armistice Day, November 11th, 1928.

The Indian Marine is now reorganised as one of the fighting forces of the Empire under the command of a Flag Officer on the active list of the Royal Navy. Its duties are purely naval and its personnel are trained for war.

Personnel, 1934.

HEADQUARTERS STAFF.

Flag Officer Commanding, Royal Indian Marine and P. S. T. O., East Indies.	Vice-Admiral Sir H. T. Walwyn, K.C.S.I., C.B., D.S.O.
Naval Secretary	Paymaster Captain E. A. Jolley, R. N.
Flag Lieutenant	Lieut. H. Morland, R. I. M.

Chief of the Staff and Captain Superintendent of the R.I.M. Dockyard ..	Captain A. G. Maundrell R.I.M.
Staff Officer (Operations) ..	Commander H. L. Davis, R.H.M.
Commander of the Dockyard ..	Commander J. N. Metcalfe, O.B.E., D.S.C., R.I.M.
Squadron Gunnery Officer ..	
Squadron Signal Officer ..	Lieut.-Comdr. St. J. A. D. Garniss, R.I.M.
Engineer Manager of the Dockyard ..	Engineer Captain W. W. Collins, R.I.M.
1st Assistant to the Engineer Manager of the Dockyard ..	Engineer Commander W. Richardson, R.I.M.
2nd Assistant to the Engineer Manager of the Dockyard ..	Engineer Lieut.-Comdr. G. W. Underdown, R.I.M.
Marine Store Officer ..	Engineer Commander W. Richardson, R.I.M.
Financial Adviser to the Flag Officer Comdg. R.I.M. ..	C. Rajagopala Aiyar, Esq., M.B.E.
Chief Superintendent to the Flag Officer Comdg. R.I.M. ..	V. G. Rose, Esq.

MARINE TRANSPORT STAFF.

Divisional Marine Transport Officer, Bombay ..	Commander C. H. Boykett, R.I.M.
Asst. Marine Transport Officer, 1st Grade ..	Lieut.-Comdr. H. C. Beauchamp, R.I.M.
Marine Transport Officer, Karachi ..	Lieut-Comdr. R. R. Caws, R.I.M.

CIVILIAN GAZETTED OFFICERS.

Constructor	W. G. J. Francis, Esq.
Assistant Constructor	E. J. Underhay, Esq.
Electrical Engineer	N. T. Patterson, Esq.
Assistant Marine Store Officer ..	J. A. B. Hawes, Esq., (on leave).

OFFICERS.

Captains	9	Engineer-Lieutenant-Commanders, Engineer-Lieutenants and Engineer-Sub-Lieutenants	35
Commanders	15		
Lieutenant-Commanders, Lieutenants, and Sub-Lieutenants	44		
Engineer-Captain	1		
Engineer-Commanders	13		

WARRANT OFFICERS.

Gunners and Boatswains	18
Warrant Writers	4

PETTY OFFICERS AND MEN.

Who are mostly recruited from the Ratnagiri District of the Bombay Presidency and the Punjab.

SHIPS.

Sloop Minesweeping ..	H. M. I. S. Clive	..	2,050 tons	..	1,700 Horse Power.
Sloop	,, Cornwallis	..	1,290 ,,	..	2,500 ,,
Sloop Minesweeping ..	,, Hindustan	..	1,190 ,,	..	2,000 S. H. P.
Sloop Minesweeping ..	,, Lawrence	..	1,225 ,,	..	1,900 Horse Power.
Surveying Vessel ..	,, Investigator	..	1,172 ,,	..	1,[illegible]00 ,,
Depot Ship	,, Dalhousie	..	1,960 ,,	..	
Patrol Vessel ..	,, Pathan	..	695 ,,	..	3,500 S. H. P.
,, ...	,, Baluchi	..	682 ,,	..	3,500 ,,

In addition to the above there are 11 vessels composed of minesweeping and steam trawlers, service launches, target towing tugs, distributed at Bombay, Calcutta, and Karachi.

Dockyards.

There were two Royal Indian Marine Dockyards at Bombay and at Calcutta, the former being the more important. The one at Calcutta has been closed. There are 5 graving docks and a wet basin at Bombay, together with factories.

Medical Staff.

Marine Surgeon, Bombay, Major J. T. Simson, M.B., R.A.M.C.

Officer-in-Charge, Dockyard Dispensary, Captain J. B. D'Souza, M.B.E., I.M.D.

R. I. M. Warrant Officers.

Officer-in-charge, Dockyard Police Force, Gunner, P. O'Haran, R.I.M.

Boatswain of the Dockyard, Boatswain A. H. Lovett, M.B.E., R.I.M.

Appointments.

In addition to the regular appointments in the ships of the Royal Indian Marine, and in the R. I. M. Dockyard, the following appointments under the Government of India, Commerce Department, are held by the officers of the Royal Indian Marine :—

BOMBAY.

Principal Officer, Mercantile Marine Department, Bombay District, Nautical Surveyor, Mercantile Marine Department, Bombay District, Principal Engineer and Ship Surveyor, 2nd, 3rd and 4th Engineers and Ship Surveyors.

CALCUTTA.

Principal Officer, Mercantile Marine Department, Calcutta District; Nautical Surveyor, Mercantile Marine Department, Calcutta District; Principal Engineer and Ship Surveyor, 2nd, 3rd, 4th and 5th Engineers and Ship Surveyors.

MADRAS.

Principal Officer, Mercantile Marine Department, Madras District, and Engineer and Ship Surveyor.

BURMA.

Principal Officer, Mercantile Marine Department, Rangoon District, Nautical Surveyor, Mercantile Marine Department, Rangoon District, and Engineer and Ship Surveyor, Rangoon.

KARACHI.

Principal Officer, Mercantile Marine Department, Karachi District.

ADEN.

Principal Officer, Mercantile Marine Department, Aden District.

CHITTAGONG.

Nautical Surveyor and Engineer and Ship Surveyor.

PORT BLAIR.

Engineer and Harbour Master.

Agriculture.

As crops depend on the existence of plant, food and moisture in the soil, so the character of the agriculture of a country depends largely on its soil and climate. It is true that geographical situation, the character of the people and other considerations have their influence which is not inconsiderable, but the limitations imposed by the nature of the soil and above all by the climate tend to the established of a certain class of agriculture under a certain given set of conditions.

The climate of India, while varying to some extent in degree, in most respects is remarkably similar in character throughout the country. The main factors in common are the monsoon, the dry winter and early summer months, and the intense heat from March till October. These have the effect of dividing the year into two agricultural seasons, the *Kharif* or Monsoon and the *Rabi* or Winter Season each bearing its own distinctive crops. Between early June and October abundant rains fall over the greater part of the continent while the winter months are generally dry, although North-Western India benefits from showers in December and January. The south of the Peninsula, and especially the Madras Presidency, however, is more truly tropical especially in the south, and depends mainly on the N.-E. monsoon; here the two crop seasons can hardly be said to exist. The distribution of the rainfall throughout the year, which is of considerable importance to agriculture, is none too favourable, but is not quite so bad as is often represented. The rainfall is greatest at what would otherwise be the hottest time of the year, *viz.*, mid-summer, and when it is most needed. It should be remembered that in a hot country intermittent showers are practically valueless as evaporation is very rapid. Heavy rainfall concentrated in a limited period, though it has its drawbacks and demands a special system of agriculture, has many advantages in hot countries.

Soils.—Four main soil types can be recognised in India, *viz.*, (1) the Red soils derived from rocks of the Archæan system which characterise Madras, Mysore and the South-East of Bombay and extend through the East of Hyderabad and the Central Provinces to Orissa, Chota Nagpur and the South of Bengal. (2) The black cotton or *regur* soils which over-lie the Deccan trap and cover the greater part of Bombay, Berar and the Western parts of the Central Provinces and Hyderabad with extensions into Central India and Bundelkhand. The Madras *regur* soils though less typical are also important. (3) The great alluvial plains, agriculturally the most important tract in India as well as the most extensive, mainly the Indo-Gangetic Plain embracing Sind, northern Rajputana, most of the Punjab, the plains of the United Provinces, most of Bihar and Bengal and half of Assam. (4) The laterite soils which form a belt round the Peninsula and extend through East Bengal into Assam and Burmah.

The great alluvial plains are characterised by ease of cultivation and rapid response to irrigation and manuring; broadly speaking there are few soils in the world more suited to intensive agriculture so long as the water supply is assured. The other soils are less tractable and call for greater skill in management and are less adapted to small holdings; of these the *regur* soils are the most valuable.

Agricultural Capital and Equipment.—India is a country of small holdings and the commonest type is that which can be cultivated with one pair of bullocks under local conditions. Large holdings are practically unknown, and are mainly confined to the planting industries. Farming is carried on with a minimum of capital, there being practically no outlay on fencing buildings, or implements. Many causes militate against the accumulation of capital and agricultural indebtedness is heavy and the interest on loans high. Great progress has been made by the co-operative credit movement during the last twenty years. There are now 04,187 Co-operative Credit Societies in India with some 4,182,000 members and a working capital exceeding 90 crores of rupees. Not only have these societies brought cheaper credit to the cultivator but they have striven to inculcate the lesson that cheap credit is only valuable if applied to productive purposes and have encouraged thrift.

Equipment.—Practically all cultivation is done by bullocks and the capacity of these as draught animals varies from district to district as well as depending on the cultivator's individual circumstances. The best types in common use are capable of handling what would be considered as light single-horse implements in Europe. In those tracts where irrigation is from wells, bullocks are also used for drawing water; they also drive the sugarcane crusher and tread out the grain at harvest. His implements being few, a cultivator's bullocks form by far the most important item of his movable property.

Implements are made of wood although ploughs are usually tipped with iron points, and there is a great similarity in their shape and general design. The introduction of iron ploughs has made muchprogress in the last few years and many hundred thousands are now in use. The levelling beam is used throughout the greater part of the country in preference to the harrow and roller; and throughout Northern India the plough and the levelling beam are the only implements possessed by the ordinary cultivator.

On black cotton soils the commonest implement is the *bakhar*, a simple form of broad shape plough. Seed drills and drill hoes are in use in parts of Bombay and Madras but throughout the greater part of the country the seed is either broadcasted or ploughed in. Hand implements consist of various sizes of hoes, the best known of which are the *kodal* or spade with a blade set at an angle towards the labourer who does not use his feet in digging, and the *khurpi* or small hand hoe. Of harvesting machinery there is none; grain is separated either by treading out with oxen or beating out by hand, and winnowing by the agency of the wind. Simple reapers and winnowers are slowly coming into use in the wheat tracts. The larger iron ploughs are now a familiar sight in certain black soil areas and the use of other improved implements is growing,

Even motor tractor ploughs are now estimated to number hundreds and a few steam ploughing sets are at work reclaiming land from deep-rooted grasses.

Cultivation.—Cultivation at its best is distinctly good but in the greater part of the country there is plenty of room for improvement. As in any other country success in agriculture varies greatly with the character of the people, depending largely as it does on thrift and industry. In most places considering the large population cultivation is none too good. Agriculture suffers through lack of organization and equipment. Two economic factors tend to keep down the standard of cultivation. Holdings are not only small but fragmented and the Indian laws of inheritance both perpetuate and intensify this evil. Very definite attempts are now being made in several provinces and states to amend matters and consolidate holdings but the process is necessarily slow. Secondly, cultivators rarely live on or near to their holdings but congregate in villages. The need for mutual protection is less than formerly and though tradition dies hard sub-villages are now springing up in many places. For *Rabi* crops which demand a fine seed-bed preparatory tillage consists mainly of repeated treatments with the indigenous plough (or on black soils the *Bakhar*) which serves the purpose of plough, harrow and cultivator, combined with applications of the levelling beam. Crude as these implements are, they produce in Northern India a surface mulch and moist sub-soil which is the aim of all dry-farming operations. For *Kharif* crops the preparation is much less thorough as it is essential to sow without delay. Interculture is usually inadequate. Manure is generally applied to more valuable crops like sugarcane, cotton, tobacco, etc. Seeding is either done broadcast or by drilling behind a wooden plough or drill. Thinning and spacing are not nearly so well done as they might be, and intercultivation is generally too superficial. Harvesting is done by sickle where the crops are cut whole, and there is little waste involved. At their best the ryot's methods are not ineffective but being uneconomical of both cattle and man-power, they are seldom carried out fully. The use of simple improved implements and of machines which lessen the strain on the bullocks, which the agricultural department is steadily fostering, is an important factor in raising the general standard of agriculture.

Irrigation.—The concentration of the principal rainfall in less than a third of the year, which is not the sowing period of the *rabi* crops, places a very definite limit of the yield which can be obtained from the principal cereal crops. Some other crops, *e.g.*, Sugarcane, can hardly be grown indeed without supplementary watering. With adequate irrigation the yield from the principal grain crops in Northern India is doubled even in areas where the monsoon is generous, whilst in the great canal colonies barren desert has become fertile land. The Indian canal system is by far the largest in the world and already irrigates 32 million acres of crops annually. The area will be increased shortly to 40 million acres when works under construction are completed and, when the various new canals are developed fully, will probably reach 50 million acres. The protective effect of the canals in many areas is no less important than the enhanced yield. Protective irrigation works have made agriculture stable instead of precarious in many districts. The Indian canals are of two types—perennial and inundation—and the trend of irrigation practice is to replace the latter by the former wherever possible. The great perennial canals in the North of India draw their supply from snow-fed rivers; the inundation canals run only when the rivers rise with the melting of the snow in April-May and must close when supplies fall at the end of the monsoon. Other canals depend for their supply during the dry part of the year on water stored behind great dams thrown across suitable gorges and are in consequence less dependable than the larger snow-fed systems. Water rates are levied on the area of irrigated crops matured so that Government bears part of the risk of failure of crops. Different rates are charged for different crops and vary somewhat in different parts of India; rates are also lower when the water has to be lifted than when flow irrigation is given.

At the present time the Bombay Presidency possesses the most spectacular irrigation schemes in India—if not in the world. The Lloyd Dam at Bhatgar, 190 feet high, has the greatest cubical contents of any masonry wall in the world; the Wilson Dam at Bhandardara, impounding 272 feet of water, is far and away the highest dam in India, whilst the Sukkur Barrage in Sind across the Indus irrigates a desert whose area far exceeds that of any other scheme conceived by engineers.

Irrigation from Wells.—About one quarter of the total irrigation of the country is got from lifting water from wells ranging in depth from a few feet to over fifty feet. Their numbers have greatly increased in recent years largely through Government advances for their construction. The recurring cost of this form of irrigation has, however, greatly increased owing to the high price of draught cattle and the increasing cost of their maintenance.

All Agricultural departments are now giving increased attention to the better utilisation of underground water supplies, existing wells being improved by boring and tube wells of large capacity installed and equipped with pumping machinery.

Tank irrigation is common in Central and Southern India. Large quantities of rain water are stored in lakes (or tanks) and distributed during the drier seasons of the year. Often the indirect effect of the tank in maintaining the sub-soil water level is as important as the direct irrigation.

Manures.—Although the number of cattle maintained in India is very high and indeed excessive, there is everywhere a shortage of farmyard manure. This is partly due to the small use of bedding, for which straw can ill be spared, and to the keeping of cattle in the open but mainly to the use of dung as the principal source of village fuel. Hence the supply of organic matter to Indian soils is deficient. Unfortunately the Indian cultivator does not possess

the skill of the Chinaman in the making of composts and much valuable manurial material is wasted in every Indian village and to the detriment of sanitation. Green-manure crops are spreading slowly and the use of oil-cakes, especially castor-cake, for the more valuable crops like sugarcane and tobacco is increasing.

The general trend of the results of experiments carried on by the various agricultural departments is to show that a better supply of organic manures is everywhere important, nitrogen is the most common limiting factor for India as a whole, phosphatic manures are definitely advantageous in certain more limited tracts. Manuring for higher production is gradually spreading as the result of village demonstrations; at present prices of certain artificial fertilisers, notably ammonium sulphate and the newer types of soluble phosphatic manure are definitely profitable not only for tobacco, sugarcane and market garden crops buttfor some staple crops but generaly speaking the fall in the pricer of agricultuie produce has arrested progress in the use of purchased fertilisers.

Rice.—A reference to the crop statistics shows that rice is the most extensively grown crop in India, although it preponderates in the wetter parts of the country, *viz.*, in Bengal, Bihar and Orissa, Burma and Madras. The crop requires for its proper maturing a moist climate with well assured rainfall. The cultivated varieties are numerous, differing greatly in quality and in suitability for various conditions of soil and climate, and the people possess an intimate acquaintance with those grown in their own localities. The better qualities are sown in seed beds and transplanted in the monsoon. Broadcasted rice is grown generally in lowlying areas and is sown before the monsoon as it must make a good start before the floods arrive. Deep water rices grow quickly and to a great height and are generally able to keep pace with the rise in water level.

For transplanted rice the soil is generally prepared after the arrival of the monsoon and is worked in a puddle before the seedlings are transplanted. The land is laid out into small areas with raised partitions to regulate the distribution of the water supply. The seedlings are planted in small bunches containing from 4 to 6 plants each and are simply dibbled into the mud at distances of 6 to 12 inches apart. Either by bunding to retain rainfall or by artificial irrigation, the details varying with locality, the rice fields are kept more or less under water until the crop shows signs of ripening. The area under improved varieties of rice distributed by the agricultural departments now exceeds 2,270,000 acres.

Wheat.—Wheat is grown widely throughout Northern India as a winter crop, the United Provinces and the Punjab supplying about two-thirds of the total area, and probably three-quarters of the total outturn in India. The majority of the varieties grown belong to the species *Triticum vulgare*. Indian wheats are generally white, red and amber coloured and are mostly classed as soft from a commercial point of view. As seen in local markets Indian wheats frequently contain appreciable quantities of other grains and even of extraneous matter due to the method of threshing employed. Wheat for export is well-cleaned and there has been great improvement in this respect of recent years. Most of the Indian wheats are soft weak wheats but there are some well known Maccaroni wheats amongst them. The largest wheat acreage of recent years is but the largest that of 1933-34 provisionally estimated at 34½ million acres. but it is not known if the yield will reach the record harvest of 1930 (which exceeded 10¼ million tons) recent crops have averaged 9¼ million tons per annum which is only slightly, if any thing, above internal requirements. Exports of wheat amounted to 197,000 tons in 1930-31 but have since been nominal Indian wheat having been quoted well above world parity. With the development of irrigation from the Lloyd Barrage Canal in Sind and in the newer Punjab Canal Colonies a further increase in wheat production is practically certain and an export market will again be of importance. The crop is generally grown after a summer fallow and, except in irrigated tracts, depends largely on the conservation of the soil moisture from the previous monsoon. Rains in January and February are generally beneficial but an excess of rainfall in these months usually produces rust with a diminution of the yield. On irrigated land 2 to 4 waterings are generally given. The crop is generally harvested in March and April and the threshing and winnowing go on up till the end of May. The total area under improved varieties of wheat is now reported to approximate to 5 millions of acres.

The Millets.—These constitute one of the most important group of crops in the country, supplying food for the poorer classes and fodder for the cattle. The varieties vary greatly in quality, height and suitability to various climatic and soil conditions. Perhaps the two best known varieties are Jowar (*Sorghum vulgare*) the *great* millet, and Bajra the Bulrush millet (*Pennisetum typhoideum*). Generally speaking the jowars require better land than the bajras and the distribution of the two crops follows the quality of the soil. Neither for jowar nor bajra is manure usually applied though Jowar responds handsomely to high manuring and cultivation is not so thorough as for wheat. The crop is generally sown in the beginning of the monsoon and so it requires to be thoroughly weeded. It is often grown mixed with the summer pulses especially *Arhar*. (*Cajanus indicus*—pigeon pea) and other crops. The subsidiary crops are harvested as they ripen either before the millet is harvested or afterwards. In some provinces *rabi* juar is also an important crop. The produce is consumed in the country.

Pulses.—Pulses are commonly grown throughout India in great variety and form at once the backbone of the agriculture, since even the present moderate degree of soil fertility could not be maintained without leguminous rotations, and a primary necessity in the food of a vegetarian population. The yields on the

whole are fairly good, mixed cropping is common. The principal pulses are *Arhar* (*Cajanus indicus*), gram (*Cicer arietinum*), various species of *Phaseolus* and *Pisum*. Reference should be made to Groundnuts which though of modern introduction now forms an important leguminous oil-seed crop in Madras and Bombay, and to a less extent in other provinces and an important article of export.

Exports groundnuts in 1933 amounted to 587,000 tons nearly treble prewar average. The total crop for season 1932-33, was estimated at 3,007,000 tons. That of the current year is forecasted as 3,235,000 tons.

Cotton.—Is one of the most important commercial crops in India and despite the sharp fall both in quantity and values due to the trade depression raw cotton was second the in list of exports for 1932-33. Normally the cotton crop covers some 28 million acres with a yield of some 5½ to 6 million bales. Recently as a result of low prices the area has contracted to 23¼ million acres in 1933-34 estimated to produce 4,633,000 in the fourth special forecast but the ginning returns to date indicate a crop 5½ million bales. Indian mills now consume annually about 2,300,000 bales of Indian cotton and at present some 300,000 bales per annum of imported cotton (Egyptian, Sudan and African) of a staple longer than is produced in India. The principal export is of short staple cotton of ⅞" staple but there is also in normal years an export of Indian medium ⅞" to 1 1/16" staple cottons such as Punjab/American and Karunganni. The area under improved varieties of cotton is now estimated to be approximately million acres. There is no Indian cotton belt; Bombay, the Central Provinces, Hyderabad, Baroda, Madras, the Punjab and the United Provinces all have important cotton tracts producing distinct types. Sowing and harvesting seasons are equally diverse, the former extending from May to December in different parts of the country and the latter from October to May and June. Yields vary greatly in the best irrigated tracts the normal yield is about 200 lbs. of ginned cotton per acre and yields much above these have been recorded whilst in the poorest unirrigated tracts 60 lbs. per acre is a good crop. Of recent years, as the result of the work of the Agricultural Departments and the Indian Central Cotton Committee, the quality and yield of the staple cottons has improved and also the yield and cleanliness of the short-staple tracts.

The Cotton Transport Act, the Cotton Ginning and Pressing Factories Act the Bombay Cotton Markets Act the C. P. Cotton Markets Act and the Madras (commercial crops) Market Act have all been passed at the instance of the Committee and are doing much to check the abuse of adulteration and promote better marketing. Agricultural Departments have continued their campaign of cotton improvement and, apart from improvements in methods of cultivation.

Exports.—The exports of raw cotton from India by sea to foreign countries for the last 5 fiscal years (ending March 31st) were as follows in thousands of bales of 400 lbs. each):—

Countries	1928-29.	1929-30.	1930-31.	1931-32.	1932-33.
United Kingdom	241	270	281	166	167
Other parts of the British Empire.	7	7	6	6	7
Japan ..	1,610	1,640	1,686	1,080	1,035
Italy ..	384	393	362	183	150
France ..	204	53	232	81	124
China (exclusive of Hong-Kong, etc.)	404	556	606	436	134
Belgium ..	347	341	217	121	123
Spain ..	76	80	106	45	52
Germany..	324	344	309	166	152
Other countries	115	176	121	85	64

Total exports from the six principal port (Bombay, Karachi, Madras, Tuticorin, Calcutta and Rangoon) for the cotton season ending August 31st, 1932, totalled 1,606,739 bales as compared to 3,728,265 bales in 1931 and 3,959,849 bales in 1930.

Sugarcane.—India, until recentlya large importer of sugar, is one of the most important sugarcane growing countries in the world, the area under the crop being above 3 million acres. The crop is mostly grown in the submontane tracts of Northern India. The indigenous hard, thin, low-sucrose canes have now largely been replaced by seedling canes of high quality mainly the productions of the Imperial Sugarcane Breeding Station, Coimbatore. The latest actual returns show an area under improved varieities of cane of 1,064,000 acres in 1930-31 of which 6,78,000 acres was in the United Provinces. It is now believed that in Northern India about half the cane area is occupied with these seedlings and the effect of this advance is clear from the fact that though the area under sugarcane for 1932-33 is a record it only exceeds the 5 year average by 21 per cent.(3,305,000 acres) but the yield (4,651,000 tons expressed as *gur*) is an increase of 55 per cent. With the grant of protection by the passing of the Sugar Industry Protection Act 1932 a definite incentive to the increase in sugar production by modern methods has been given and it is estimated that modern factories will produce some 676,000 tons in 1933-34 There has also been a considerable revival of the indigenous *khandsari* open pan process of sugar making. Imports of sugar from foreign countries for 1933-34 are estimated at some 300,000 tons as compared to 901,000 in 1930-31 the fall is partly due to lower purchasing power resulting from the fall in price of agricultural commodities, partly to the abundant supply of cheap *gur* and partly to increased Indian production of sugar. Sugar production has been stimulated in recent years by the protection given to sugar manufacture.

Oilseeds.—The crops classified under the heading are chiefly sesamum, linseed and the cruciferous oilseeds (rape, mustard, etc.) Although oilseeds are subject to great fluctuation in price and the crops themselves are more or less precarious by nature—they cover an immense area.

Linseed requires a deep and moist soil and is thus grown chiefly in Bengal, Bihar, the United Provinces and the Central Provinces. The crop is grown for seed and not for fibre and the common varieties are of a much shorter habit of growth than those of Europe. The yield varies greatly from practically nothing up to 500 or 600 lbs. of seed per acre. In 1932-33 this crop occupied 3,239,000 acres and yielded 403,000 tons. As recently as 1925-26 production was estimated at 501,000 tons and prior to 1914 the linseed area had reached 5 million acres with a yield of 630,000 tons. Indian linseed is of high quality and commands a premium in European markets.

Exports during 1933-34 have again reached the pre-war average being approximately 390,000 tons of which the United Kingdom took the largest share. This is largely the result of the 'Ottawa' Preferene. Prices have improved and Indian linseed having re-established its dominant position in the English market an increase in production is expected.

Sesamum or (Gingelly) is grown mostly in Peninsular India as an autumn or winter crop. About 10 per cent. of the production is exported and the rest consumed locally.

The Cruciferous Oilseeds form an important group of crops in Northern India where they grow freely and attain a fair state of development. The area under rate and Mustard, including an estimated figure for the are a grown mixed with other is about 6½ to 7 million acres annually production in 1932-33, was estimated at 1,025,000 tons of which 115,000 tons were exported a marked improvement in the previous year though still below the average. Several species are grown and there are numerous local varieties. A large portion of the crop is crushed locally for domestic consumption.

Jute.—Two varieties of the plant are cultivated as a crop, Capsularis and Olitorius. Jute growing is confined almost entirely to Bengal, Assam, Bihar and Orissa. The crop requires a rich moist soil. Owing to river inundation this part of India receives a considerable alluvial deposit every year and the land is thus able to sustain this exhausting crop without manure. The crop is rather delicate when young, but once established requires no attention, and grows to a great height (10 to 11 feet). Before ripening the crop is cut and retted in water. After about three weeks submersion the fibre is removed by washing and beating. The area under Jute in 1932 was estimated at 2,143,000 acres as compared to 1,862,000 in the previous year; the production was estimated at 7,097,000 bales as compared to 5,567,000 bales in 1931.

Exports in 1933-34 have shown a distinct recovery on both 1931-32 and 1932-33 but care is still necessary to avoid over-production. In 1930 the area under jute was estimated at 3,492,000 acres and the yield at 11,205,000 bales.

Tobacco is grown here and there all over the country chiefly, however, in Bengal, Bihar, Bombay, Madras and Burma. Of two varieties cultivated *Nicotiana Tabacum* is by far the most common. Maximum crops are obtained on deep and moist alluvium soils and a high standard of cultivation including liberal manuring is necessary. The crop is only suited to small holdings where labour is plentiful as the attention necessary for its proper cultivation is very great. The seed is germinated in seed beds and the young plants are transplanted when a few inches high, great care being taken to shield them from the sun. The crop is very carefully weeded and hoed. It is topped after attaining a height of, say, 2 ft., and all suckers are removed. The crop ripens from February onwards and is cut just before the leaves become brittle. The greater part of the tobacco grown in India is intended for *Hookah* smoking and is coarse and heavy in flavour. Lighter kinds are also produced for cigar and cigarette manufacture of recent years there has been important development in the production, in commercial quantities, of better quality cigarette tobacco both in Madras and in Bihar. India exports about 29 million lbs. of unmanufactured tobacco annually of which about 35 per cent. goes to the United Kingdom. This trade though a small proportion of Indian production (which is estimated at 600,000 tons per annum from an area of 1.3 million acres) it is worth a crore of rupees annually even at present prices.

Livestock.—The livestock population of British India consists mainly of about 23 million cattle, 31 million buffaloes, 25 million sheep, 35 million goats and 3 million horses, mules and donkeys, and in the 51 Indian States for which figures are available, there are 118 million cattle and buffaloes, 28 million sheep and goats, 1 million horses, mules and donkeys and half a million camels. For draught purposes cattle are mainly used everywhere though male buffalo are important as draught animals in the rice tracts and damper parts of the country. Horses and mules are practically never used for agricultural purposes, For dairy purposes, the buffalo is important, the milk yield being high and the percentage of butter fat considerably above that in cow's milk. The best known breeds are the Murra buffaloes of the Punjab, the Jafferabadi buffaloes of Kathiawar, and the Surti buffaloes of the Bombay Presidency. The cattle and buffalo population in India is abnormally high amounting to over 60 per cent. of the human population. The spread of cultivation has diminished the grazing grounds, insufficient fodder crops are raised and many of the cattle are small, ill-fed and inefficient. Nevertheless the best Indian breeds have many merits. Of the draught types the best known breeds are the Hissar, Nellore, Amrit Mahal, Gujerat (Kankrej), Kangayam, Kherigarh and Malvi; the Sahiwal (Punjab), Gir (Kathiawar), Scindi and Hansi are amongst the best milking breeds On the Government cattle-breeding farms pedigree herds are being built up and from these selected bulls are issued, preference being given to special breeding areas, to villages which undertake to exclude 'scrub' bulls and where serious efforts to maintain a good strain of cow are made. Once established such breeding areas rapidly produce a supply of superior bulls for general distribution and in this way the valuable bulls from Government herds are used to advantage. The premium bull system is also working well in some tracts

Cattle improvement is a slow process at the best and though a start on sound lines has been made in all provinces, continued efforts and persistent endeavour is essential. There is no branch of agricultural improvement where the landowners of India could render greater service.

Dairying.—Though little noticed hitherto dairying forms a very important indigenous industry throughout India. The annual cash value of dairy products has recently been estimated at over 800 crores of rupees and the importance of milk and dairy products to the health and development of the people cannot be over-estimated. Apart from liquid milk the best known products are native butter (ghee) and cheese (dahi During recent years a considerable trade in tinned butter has sprung up and there seems to be no reason why an important industry should not be built up in other dairy products, such as milk-powder, condensed milk and casein. Pure ghee and milk can usually be procured in the villages but in towns dairy products can scarcely be bought unadulterated.

Government of India maintain an Institute of Animal Husbandry and Dairying at Bangalore where students are given 2 year courses for the Indian Dairy Diploma but little provision has hitherto been made for the extensive industrial research into the handling and processing of milk and dairy products under Indian conditions, which is essential for the development of dairying as a village industry. This matter is now receiving the attention of the Imperial Council of Agricultural Research.

Reference is made, use where to the principal grants made by the Council for the promotion of Veterinary Science and improvement of animal husbandry.

It is sufficient here to say that there is a growing recognition of the fact that as India's economic development proceeds a better balance between crop production and animal industry is needed and that the raising of crops for the feeding of Dairy stock, instead of for sale as such, will be of increasing importance.

AGRICULTURAL PROGRESS.

Agricultural Progress.—The historical aspect of agricultural development in India has recently been fully dealt with in the report of the Linlithgow Commission. The Famine Commission as long ago as 1866 made the first proposal for a separate Department of Agriculture but little resulted except the collection of agricultural statistics and other data with the object of throwing light on famine problems. The Famine Commission of 1880 by their masterly review of the possibilities of agricultural development revived interest in the matter and their proposal for a new Department for Agriculture and allied subjects in the Government of India and for provincial departments of agriculture bore fruit eventually. Dr. J. A. Voelker, Consulting Chemist to the Royal Agricultural Society, was invited to visit India and his book "Improvement of Indian Agriculture" is still a valuable reference book. In 1892 an agricultural chemist to the Government of India was appointed. Provincial Departments mainly concerned themselves at first with agricultural statistics but experimental farms were opened at Saidapet in 1871, Poona in 1880, Cawnpore in 1881 and Nagpur in 1883; there were various sporadic attempts at agricultural improvement but no real beginning was made until technical agricultural officers were appointed. Of these the earliest were Mollison in Bombay (subsequently Inspector General of Agriculture), Barber and Benson in Madras, Hayman in the United Provinces and Milligan in the Punjab. In 1901, the first Inspector General of Agriculture was appointed and in the same year an Imperial Mycologist was added followed by an Imperial Entomologist in 1903. The present departments of agriculture, however, owe their existence to the foresight and energy of Lord Curzon whose famous despatch of 1903 marked the commencement of the reorganisation which took place in 1905. That scheme provided for a central research institute at Pusa completely staffed provincial departments of agriculture with agricultural colleges and provincial research institutes and an experimental farm in each important agricultural tract. To the establishment of the Imperial Agricultural Research Institute at Pusa. Lord Curzon devoted the greater part of a generous donation of £30,000 given by Mr. Henry Phipps of Chicago to be applied to some object of public utility preferably connected with scientific research. The Indian Agricultural Service was constituted in 1906. Since that date progress has been steady and continuous. With the advent of the reforms of 1919, agriculture became a provincial transferred subject but the Government of India retained responsibility for central research institutions and for certain matters connected with the diseases and pests of plants and animals. The addition of the Imperial Institute of Animal Husbandry and Dairying (with a branch farm at Wellington), the Imperial Cattlebreeding Farm at Karnal and the Anand Creamery enabled livestock work to be carried out on a scale not possible at Pusa. The Imperial Sugarcane-breeding station at Coimbatore is yet another branch of the Imperial Agricultural Research Institute. Provincial Governments have steadily developed and strengthened their agricultural departments. The total nett expenditure of provincial agricultural departments now exceeds 105 lakhs rupees annually; the nett annual expenditure on the Imperial Department of Agriculture is in the neighbourhood of 11 lakhs.

Parallel developments took place in the provision made for matters connected with animal health. The now world-famous Imperial Institute of Veterinary Research at Muktesar started in 1893 as a modest hill laboratory for research on rinderpest. It is now a fully equipped research Institute which also manufactures protective sera and vaccines of which some 6 million doses are issued annually. The Civil Veterinary Department was formed in 1891 and until 1912 was under the control of the Inspector General. The departments were completely provincialised in 1919, the Government of India continuing to finance and control the Muktesar Research Institute and its branch station at Izatnagar (Bareilly).

Recent Progress.—As now constituted, the Agricultural Departments include a complete organisation for bringing the results of the application of science to agriculture into the village. At one end of the scale are the agricultural colleges and research institutes—at the other thousands of village demonstration plots where the issue of improved seed, methods, implements and manures is shown under the cultivators' own conditions. Intermediate links in the chain are the experimental farms, where scientific research is translated into field practice, demonstration and seed farms and seed stores. The ascertained results of the work of the agricultural department are striking enough. More than 13 million acres are known to be under improved crops—the further area due to natural spread is indeterminable. Improved methods of cultivation and manuring are steadily spreading, work is in progress on most of the major crops and each year brings new triumphs. The present position has been authoritative reviewed by the Royal Commission on Agriculture which reported in 1928. Recognising how much has already been done in the 20 years since the agricultural departments were created, the Commission also emphasised the enormous field for future work to which all witnesses had drawn their attention. The agricultural departments having shown that the application of science to Indian agriculture is a practical proposition and further that the individual cultivator can be reached and his methods improved, the problem is now to develop and intensify such work so that a general advance in agricultural practice will result. At no time has there been a greater need for co-ordinated effort directed towards the solution of agricultural problems. Only by increased efficiency can in India meet the situation caused by low prices for all agricultural commodities and the intense competition in world markets arising from production in excess of effective demand.

The Government of India has recently provided the Imperial Council of Agriculture Research with Funds for the formation of an Agricultural Marketing Branch and for the appointment of an Expert-Adviser in Marketing who will advise and collaborate with the Provincial officers which are being appointed in several provinces.

THE IMPERIAL COUNCIL OF AGRICULTURAL RESEARCH.

In Chapter III of their Report, the Royal Commission on Agriculture stated that the most important problem with which they had been confronted was that of devising some method of infusing a different spirit into the whole organisation of agricultural research in India and of bringing about the realisation on the part of research workers in this country that they are working to an end which cannot be reached unless they regard themselves as partners in a common enterprise. They had found not only a lack of sufficiently close touch between the Pusa Research Institute and the provincial agricultural departments but also between the provincial departments themselves. After describing the way in which similar difficulties had been overcome in Canada, the United States and Australia and dismissing as inadequate the constitution of crop committees on the model of the Indian Central Cotton Committee or the constitution of a quasi-independent governing body for Pusa on which the provincial agricultural departments and non-official interests would be represented, the Commission proposed the establishment of an **Imperial Council of Agricultural Research.**

The primary function of the Council would be to promote, guide and co-ordinate agricultural, including veterinary, research in India and to link it with agricultural research in other parts of the British Empire and in foreign countries. It would make arrangements for the training of research workers, would act as a clearing house of information in regard not only to research but also to agricultural and veterinary matters generally and would take over the publication work at present carried out by the Imperial Agricultural Department. The Commission proposed that the Council should be entrusted with the administration of a non-lapsing fund of Rs. 50 lakhs to which additions should be made from time to time as financial conditions permit. Its Chairman should be an experienced administrator with a knowledge, if possible, of Indian conditions and, in addition, there should be two other whole-time members of the Council for agriculture and animal husbandry respectively. The Commission suggested that the Council should consist of thirty-six members, in addition to the Chairman and the two whole-time members. Of these, eight would be nominated by the Government of India, eighteen would represent the provincial, agricultural and veterinary departments, three would represent the Indian Universities, two would represent the Indian Central Cotton Committee and the planting community respectively and five would be nominated by the Council for the approval of the Government of India. The Council would largely work through a Standing Finance Committee and sub-committees. A provincial committee should be established in each major province to work in close co-operation with it. The advisory duties of the Agricultural Adviser to the Government of India would be taken over by the Chairman and whole-time members of the Research Council, his administrative duties being taken over by a whole-time Director of the Pusa Institute.

Constitution of the Council.—In a Resolution issued on May 23rd, 1929, the Government of India stated that whilst they were of opinion that the proposals of the Royal Commission were, on the whole, admirably designed to secure the objects for the attainment of which the establishment of the organisation outlined above was recommended, they considered a Council of thirty-nine members would be too large to be really effective and that it was not desirable that the Legislative Assembly should be deprived of its normal constitutional control over an activity which affects the staple industry of India. They had, therefore decided that the central organisation should be divided into two parts, a Governing Body which would have the management of all the affairs and funds of the Council subject to the limitation in regard to the control of funds which is mentioned below and an Advisory Board the functions of which would be to examine all proposals in connection with the scientific objects of the Council which might be submitted to the Governing Body, to report on their feasibility and to advise on any other questions referred to it by the Governing Body. The Governing Body would consist of the Member of the Governor-General's Council in charge of the portfolio of Agriculture, who would be *ex-officio* Chairman, the Principal Administrative Officer of the Council, who would be *ex-officio* Vice-Chairman, one representative of the Council of State, two representatives of the Legislative Assembly, one representative of the European business community elected by the Associated Chambers of Commerce of India and Ceylon, one representative of the Indian business community elected by the Federation of Indian Chambers of Commerce and Industry, the Provincial Ministers of Agriculture, two representatives elected by the Advisory Board and such other persons as the Governor-General in Council might from time to time appoint.

The Advisory Board would consist of all those whose inclusion in the Council was recommended by the Royal Commission with the exception of the representatives of the Central Legislature and the representatives of the European and Indian commercial communities, who, under the modified scheme, would be members of the Governing Body. In view of their exclusion from the Advisory Board, the university representation would be increased from three to four and the scientific representation by the addition of the Director of the Indian Institute of Science, Bangalore, a representative of the Forest Research Institute, Dehra Dun, and a representative elected by the Indian Research Fund Association. A representative of the Co-operative Movement would also be added. The Principal Administrative Officer to the Council would be *ex-officio* Chairman of the Advisory Board.

The Government of India further announced that for the lump grant of Rs. 50 lakhs recommended by the Royal Commission, they had decided to substitute an initial lump grant of Rs. 25 lakhs, of which Rs. 15 lakhs would be paid in 1925-30, supplemented by a fixed minimum grant annually. The annual grant would be Rs. 7·25 lakhs, of which Rs. 5 lakhs would be devoted to the furtherance of the scientific objects of the Council and the remaining Rs. 2·25 lakhs to the cost of its staff and secretariat. The Council would have an entirely free hand in regard to the expenditure of the grants made to it for scientific purposes subject to the condition that no liability in respect of such matters as leave or pension contributions after the research for which the grant had been given would be incurred. In regard to the grant to meet the cost of staff, establishment, etc., the Council would be in the same position as a Department of the Government of India Secretariat.

The Council has since been constituted a separate Department of the Government of India for the purpose of administering this grant.

The Government of India also stated their decision that the Council should not be constituted under an Act of the Imperial Legislature as recommended by the Royal Commission but should be registered under the Registration of Societies Act, XXI of 1860. In pursuance of this decision, a meeting of those who would constitute the Society was held at Simla in June, 1929, to consider the terms of a memorandum of association and the Rules and Regulations. At that meeting, it was announced that His Exalted Highness the Nizam's Government had offered a donation of Rs. 2 lakhs to the funds of the Council. This offer was gratefully accepted and the Revenue Member of the Nizam's Government has been added to the Governing Body, the Directors of Agriculture and of Veterinary Services becoming members of the Advisory Board. Since then donations of one lakh each, payable in 20 equal annual instalments, have been made by the Mysore, Baroda and Cochin States and each nominates one representative to the Governing Body of the Council and two technical members to the Advisory Board. The Bhopal State has also been admitted as a constituent member of the Council on payment of a donation of Rs. 50,000 in 20 equal annual instalments and has been allowed the same representation on the Council as has been granted to the States of Hyderabad, Mysore, Baroda and Cochin. The North West Frontier Province having been constituted a Governor's province is now represented on the Governing Body by the Minister in charge of Agriculture and on the Advisory Board by the Agricultural Officer and the Superintendent, Civil Veterinary Department.

Personnel.—In addition to the 17 *ex-officio* members the Governing Body includes the following gentlemen:—

The Hon'ble Diwan Bahadur G. Narayanaswamy Chetty, elected by the Council of State; Lal Hari Raj Swaroop, M.L.A. and Maulvi Mohd. Shafi Daoodi, M.L.A., elected by the Legislative Assembly; Sir Joseph Kay and Mr. Walchand Hirachand representing the business community; Messrs. Carpenter and Kerr, elected by the Advisory Board, and the Hon'ble Sir Frank Noyce, additional member appointed by the Governor-General in Council. The Chairman of the Council is the Hon'ble Member of the Council of His Excellency the Governor-General for the time being in charge of the portfolio of Agriculture.

The whole-time officers of the Council are:—The Vice-Chairman—Diwan Bahadur Sir T. Vijayaraghavacharya, K.B.E. The Expert

Advisers: Mr. B. C. Burt, C.I.E., M.B.E., I.A.S.; Colonel A. Olver, C.B., C.M.G., F.R.C.V.S.; and the Secretary—Rai Sahib Malik Charan Das, I.S.S.

The Advisory Board consists of the Vice-Chairman, the Expert Advisers, the Heads of the Agricultural Departments in the Provinces, the Heads of the Agricultural and/or Veterinary Departments in the contributing States, the Chief Agricultural Officer, Sind, the Directors, Imperial Institute of Agricultural Research, Pusa, Imperial Institute of Veterinary Research, Muktesar, and Indian Institute of Science, Bangalore, the Director of Veterinary Services in India, and the Chief Publicity Officer, Indian States Railways as *ex-officio* members together with the following nominated or elected members:—

Representatives of the Provincial Veterinary Departments.—Mr. P. T. Saunders, nominated by the Government of Madras; Mr. E. S. Farbrother, nominated by the Government of Bombay; Mr. P. J. Kerr, nominated by the Government of Bengal; Khan Bahadur Sheikh Niaz Muhammad Khan, nominated by the Government of the U.P.; Mr. T. F. Quirke, nominated by the Government of the Punjab; Mr. D. T. Mitchell, nominated by the Government of Burma; Major P. B. Riley, nominated by the Government of B. & O.; Major R. F. Stirling, nominated by the Government of C.P.:—Mr. Guru Prasanna Sen, nominated by the Government of Assam; Mr. S. I. A. Shah, nominated by the Government of N.W.P.F.

Representatives of the Inter-University Board.—Dr. J. C. Ghosh, Head of the Department of Chemistry, Dacca University; Dr. T. Ekambaram, Professor, Presidency College, Madras.; Mr. C. T. Mudaliyar, Retired Principal, Agricultural College, Coimbatore. Dr. L. K. Hyder, Member, Public Service Commission; (India).

Representative of the Indian Tea Association and of the Southern India Planters' Association.—Mr. P. H. Carpenter.

Representative of the Indian Central Cotton Committee.—Rao Bahadur Bhimbhai R. Naik.

Representative of the Co-operative movement.—Diwan Bahadur T. Raghaviah, C.S.I.

Representative of minor administrations under the Government of India.—Mr. A. M. Mustafa, Agricultural Officer, Baluchistan.

Representative of the Forest Research Institute, Dehra Dun.—Mr. C. G. Trevor, C.I.E., I.F.S., Offg. Inspector-General of Forests.

Representative of the Indian Research Fund Association.—Lt.-Col. A. J. H. Russell, Public Health Commissioner with the Govt. of India.

Members appointed by the Governor-General in Council.—Mr. Mohd. Azhar Ali, M.L.A.; Dr. Nazir Ahmad, Director of Technological Laboratory, Matunga; Mr. G. K. Devadhar, C.I.E., and Dr. S. S. Nehru, Ph.D., I.C.S.

The work of the Council.—It is an important feature of the Research Council's constitution that it stands in the same relation to all research institutions whether central or provincial (or State), and whether official or unofficial. Though certain of its activities are administered direct the Council has no permanent research institute of its own and its normal method of promoting agricultural and veterinary research is by means of research grants to existing institutions. Proposals for research come up for consideration in two ways. Under the first applications for grants to provincial institutions including the universities, are made by Local or State Governments, usually on the advice of the Provincial Agricultural Research Committees. The decision whether or not a particular scheme with or without modification should receive a grant depends largely on the extent to which it is of general importance and on the extent to which the proposals can be co-ordinated with research work already in progress. The second method is a natural corollary to the one just described. The Council through its Advisory and Special Committees reviews the progress and position of work in agricultural and veterinary science and frames schemes for the filling of lacunæ—this process is continuous and is further assisted by the recommendations of the Board of Agriculture in India and its Committees. At present the following standing committees of the Council are at work: The Sugar Committee, the Fertilisers Committee, the Locust Committee, the Oil Crushing Industry Committee, the Joint Committee of the Imperial Council of Agricultural Research and the Indian Central Cotton Committee, Animal Nutrition Committee, Dairying Committee and the Cattle Breeding Committee. Sub-Committees of the Advisory Board to deal with the detailed special proposals are set up from time to time as required.

A valuable feature of the Council's organisation is its elasticity and for that reason though certain definite principles laid down by the Governing Body are followed in regard to expenditure on research rigid rules have been avoided. Actually the schemes financed by the Council fall into the following classes:—

(*i*) Special all-India schemes of research which call for a special central but not necessarily permanent organisation and which are administered direct by the Council, *e.g.*, Sugar Technology and Locust Research. Agricultural Marketing and Statistical aspect of Field Experiments and Animal Husbandry.

(*ii*) Scheme of research requiring temporary expansion of the work of a central research institute, *e.g.*, the two sub-stations at Karnal for cane-breeding and economic Botany (under the Imperial Sugarcane expert and the Imperial Economic Botanist respectively).

(*iii*) Co-ordinated schemes of research in several provinces where grants in aid are given for work to be carried out provincially as part of a general scheme. Examples are found in:—

(*a*) The Rice research scheme in Madras, Bengal, U.P., Burmah, B. & O. and Assam.

(*b*) The Sugarcane testing station scheme (U.P., Punjab, B. & O., Bombay, Bengal, Assam, all collaborating with the Coimbatore cane breeding station).

(*c*) Fruit Research.

(*d*) Dry Farming Research, (Bombay, Madras and Hyderabad).

(*iv*) Research schemes carried out by arrangement in one province or State on a problem of all-India importance or affecting several provinces.

As examples of this may be mentioned:—The experimental and demonstration sugar factory and training scheme in sugar technology at the Harcourt Butler Technological Institute, Cawnpore, U.P., the Bombay Fruit-Storage and Transport scheme; the Madras Potato Breeding scheme.

Grants to Universities to enable research workers on the University staff to expand existing research of agricultural importance or to develop the agricultural aspect of their own research. The following statement shows the schemes received from Universities or Colleges in India and approved by the Council up to the end of 1933:—

Statements showing schemes of Agricultural and Veterinary Research received from the Universities or Colleges in India and sanctioned by the Council up to December 1932.

Name of University.	Schemes.	Amount sanctioned.
		Rs.
Dacca	Research work on soils and the nutrition of the rice plants by Dr. J. C. Ghosh	34,080
Dacca	Investigation of the organic constituents of Indian soils by Prof. J. C. Ghosh	11,200
Calcutta	Research into properties of colloid soil constituents by Dr. J. N. Mukherjee	14,100
Calcutta	For statistical investigation on experimental errors in field trials by Prof. P. C. Mahalanobis	11,500
Punjab	Investigation on the "wither-tip" of citrus trees by Dr. H. C. Chaudhuri.	12,600
Punjab	Investigation on the relation between Physico-chemical properties and fertility of soils by Dr. S. S. Bhatnagar ..	8,300
Punjab	Research on the standardisation of Physico-chemical single value measurements most suitable for Indian soils by Dr. A. N. Puri	13,500
Punjab	Research on the effect of ions on plant growth by Dr. S. S. Bhatnagar	6,000
	Investigation of an electric method of Hygrometry by Prof. J. B. Seth for 2 years	3,600
Madras	Research in the cytological study of Indian crop plants ..	25,830
Ravenshaw College, Cuttck.	Research on water Hyacinth by Prof. Parija of Ravenshaw College, Cuttack	9,646
Agra College	Research work on cereal rusts by Dr. Mehta of Agra College	1,03,100
Agra College	Research work on investigation on Physiologic forms of wheat rusts by Dr. Mehta of Agra College	3,000
Royal Institute of Science, Bombay.	Research work on the Physiology of rice plant of Prof. R. H. Dastur	10,800
Indian Institute of Science, Bangalore.	(*i*) Scheme for the preparation of cheap synthetic manure from town refuse and waste materials	4,950
	(*ii*) Scheme for the extension of sewage farm investigation with special reference to Papaya and Plantain cultivation	18,340
	(*iii*) Scheme for the extension of work on "quality" in crops	5,400
Vishwa Bharati* Institute of Rural Reconstruction, Sriniketan.	Development of methodology in rural research	18,750
School of * Tropical Medicine, Calcutta.	Research in systematic collection of medicinal plants and study of food poisons in India by Col. Chopra	62,860
Allahabad* Agricultural Institute.	Research on the composition of milk by Dr. Sam Higginbottom	8,600

* Funds not yet allotted for these schemes.

Statement showing fresh schemes of Agricultural and Veterinary Research received from Universities or Colleges in India and approved by the Imperial Council of Agricultural Research during 1933.

Name of University.	Scheme.	Amount
		Rs.
Calcutta*	Scheme for statistical studies relating to Agricultural work in India by Prof. P. C. Mahalanobis for five years ..	40,000
Punjab	Research work on the effects of ions on the growth of plants by Dr. S. S. Bhatnagar for 6 months	900
Punjab*	Investigations on the relations of Physico-chemical factors to the fertility of soils by Dr. S. S. Bhatnagar for seven months	2,420
Punjab*	Investigation of the wither-tip of citrus trees by Dr. H. C. Chaudhuri for 4 months	2,200
Lucknow*	Enquiry into the Helminthiasis of cattle, sheep and goats in the United Provinces by Prof. G. C. Thapar for 5 years	25,460
Indian Institute of Science, Bangalore.*	Study of the composition and nutritive value of milk of the cow, buffalo and goat for three years	50,588

* Funds not yet allotted for these schemes.

The principal whole time research officers employed under the Council are:—

Expert Adviser. Agricultural Marketing—Mr. A. M. Levingstone (I. C. A. R. Headquarters.)

Sugar Technologist—Mr. R. C. Srivastava, M.Sc., Harcourt Butler Technological Institute, Cawnpore.

Locust Research Entomologist—Rao Sahib Y. Ramchandra Rao, Karachi.

Entomologist at Locust Sub-Station—Dr. K. R. Karandikar, Pasni.

Agricultural Statistician—Mr. M. Vaidyanathan (I. C.A.R. Headquarters).

Chief Economist—Mr. R. D. Kapoor (I. C. A.R. Headquarters).

The following research schemes have been sanctioned by the Governing Body of the Imperial Council of Agricultural Research.

STATEMENT A.—SCHEMES TO WHICH THE IMPERIAL COUNCIL OF AGRICULTURAL RESEARCH IS ALREADY COMMITTED.

PART I. SUGAR SCHEMES.—(*a*) Research Schemes.

Serial No.	Description of scheme.	Sanctioned grant.	Expenditure to end of 1933-34.	Balance to be spent.	REMARKS.
		Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	
1	Construction and testing of improved juice boiling bel	4,000	3,906	14	
2	Lump sum grant to Shahjahanpur Research Station for a detailed examination of new seedling cane	6,000	6,000	..	
3	Lump sum grants of Rs. 8,000 each to United Provinces, Bihar and Orissa and Punjab Governments for experiments in designing of a satisfactory small power sugarcane crushing mill. A further grant of Rs. 5,000 sanctioned for the Punjab .	29,000 (24,000 Rs. 5,000 extra grant to the Punjab.)	29,000	..	
4	Bombay-Deccan Sugarcane Research Scheme	5,22,000 (from 1931-32 to 1935-36).	1,80,468	3,41,532	
5	Grant to Harcourt Butler Technological Institute, Cawnpore	2,25,000 (from 1930-31 to 1934-35).	1,65,000	60,000	

PART I. SUGAR SCHEMES.—(*a*) Research Schemes.

Serial No.	Description of Scheme.	Sanctioned grant.	Expenditure upto end of 1933-34.	Balance to be spent.	REMARKS.
		Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	
6	Scheme for the establishment of a Sugarcane Research Station in Bihar and Orissa and for the appointment of a Sugarcane Specialist	*1,92,800 (from 1931-32 to 1936-37).	1,09,978	82,822	* Round figure only.
7	Scheme for the establishment of a Sub-Station of the Coimbatore Imperial Sugarcane Station at Karnal	82,000 (from 1931-32 to 1935-36).	43,970	38,030	
8	Scheme submitted by the Imperial Mycologist, Pusa, for research on "Mosaic" and other Cane diseases at Pusa ..	85,000 from 1932-33 to 1934-35).	38,997	26,003	
9	Bengal Scheme for Sugarcane Crushing and Gur Boiling	5,700 (from 1930-31 to 1932-33).	5,652	48	
10	Sugarcane Seedling Testing Station at Dacca	13,100 (from 1931-32 to 1935-36).	6,411	6,689	
11	Grant to the Mysore Durbar for breeding of thick canes	21,000 (from1933-34)	5,900	15,100	
12	Economic enquiry into the cost of production of crops in the principal Sugarcane and cotton tracts in India	4,43,200 (from 1932-33 to 1935-36).	1,27,500	3,15,700	Half the expenditure to be borne by the Indian Central Cotton Committee.
13	Research on the genetics of Sugarcane at the Imperial cane breeding stations, Coimbatore	12,333 (5 years.)	7,400	29,600	
14	Research on Sugarcane in the Madras Presidency	1,50,100 (5 years.)	41,500	1,08,600	
15	Establishment of a Sugarcane research station in the Punjab	1,33,000 (5 years).	30,000	1,03,000	
16	Investigation into various problems of sugar industry in the United Provinces..	1,01,300 (5 years).	33,000	63,300	
17	Establishment of a Research and Testing Station for the indigenous system of gur and sugar manufacture by the Sugar Technologist to the Council	1,67,400 (5 years).	67,000	1,00,400	
18	Extension of Sugarcane work at the Jorhat Experimental Station, Assam	48,000	21,200	26,800	
19	Enquiry into the production of khandsara sugar in the United Provinces	2,000	3,000	..	
	Grand Total ..	22,48,600	9,26,962	13,22,638	

STATEMENT A.

PART I.

Sugar Schemes.

(*b*) *Statement showing the cost of establishments employed under the Imperial Council of Agricultural Research.*

Serial No.	Description.	Sanctioned Annual Grant.	REMARKS.
		Rs. a. p.	
1	Sugar Committee	9,200 0 0	Funds are provided from year to year.
2	Sugar Technologist.—		
	(*a*) Main office	45,000 0 0	Funds are provided from year to year.
	(*b*) Sugar Cable Service	12,000 0 0	Funds are Receipts not taken into account. Practically the service is self-supporting.
3	Chief Economist and his staff	8,200 0 0	Sanctioned for about 4 years.
4	Indian Sugar Trade Information Service ..	7,000 0 0	Sanctioned for five years. Anticipated receipts not taken into account. The service is likely to be self-supporting.
	(Total sanctioned cost for five years Rs. 35,306).		
	Total ..	81,400 0 0	

SCHEMES TO WHICH THE IMPERIAL COUNCIL OF AGRICULTURAL RESEARCH IS ALREADY COMMITTED.

PART II.

General Schemes other than Sugar.

(*a*) *Research Schemes.*

Serial No.	Description of scheme.	Sanctioned grant.	Expenditure to end of 1933-34.	Balance to be spent.	REMARKS.
1	2	3	4	5	6
	Agricultural Schemes.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	
1	Botanical Sub-Station at Karnal .	1,33,900	86,506	47,394	
2	Grant to Dacca University ..	38,100	28,747	9,353	
3	Professor Mukherjee's Scheme of research into properties of Colloid Soil Constituents	14,100	10,945	3,155	
4	Professor Mahalanobis' scheme of investigation on experimental errors in field trials	11,500	11,000	500	
5	Grant to Principal, Agra College, Agra, for investigation into the rusts of wheat and barely ..	54,600	30,800	23,800	
6	Dr. Bhatnagar's scheme—				
	(*a*) "Effects of Ions on Plant Growth"	7,400	7,380	20	
	(*b*) "Physico-chemical properties and fertility of soil"	8,300	8,262	38	
	(*c*) Extension of (*a*) and (*b*) ..	3,320	3,320	..	

Serial No.	Description of scheme.	Sanctioned grant.	Expenditure to end of 1933-34.	Balance to be spent.	REMARKS.
1	2	3	4	5	6
		Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	
7	Professor Dastur's scheme "Rice-Physiology	10,800	7,565	3,235	
8	(*i*) Dr. Chaudhri's Scheme "Wither-tip of Citrus trees" ..	11,600	9,760	1,840	
	(*ii*) Extension of (*i*)	2,000	2,000	..	
9	Establishment of a new branch of Agricultural Meteorology under the Indian Meteorological Department, Poona ..	56,000	29,650	26,350	
10	Appointment of a Physical Assistant on the staff of Agricultural Chemist, Bengal	22,600	8,473	14,127	
11*	Co-ordinated scheme of Rice-Research in Provinces	10,70,000	3,58,465	7,11,535	*Out of this the contribution from the Empire Marketing Board is Rs.1,70,000 (revised).
12	Award of a prize for a bone crusher worked by—				
	(*a*) Animal power	} 5,000	5,000	..	
	(*b*) Mechanical power ..				
13	Exhibits for World's Grain Exhibition and Conference ..	} 9,173	9,173		
14	Special Locust Research staff ..	3,54,600	2,76,600	78,000	
15	Grant to Punjab Government for Locust Research	12,860	7,200	5,660	
16	Experimental consignment of mangoes to the Empire Marketing Board	9,520	9,100	420	
17	Research work on potatoes in Madras	20,000	3,000	17,000	
18	Provincial scheme of fruit research Bombay Cold Storage fruit scheme	90,200	53,400	36,800	
19	Horticultural schemes in the Provinces of Madras, Bengal, Punjab, United Provinces, Bihar and Orissa	3,84,900	1,12,300	2,72,600	
20	Dry-farming research schemes in the Bombay-Deccan, Hyderabad, Madras and the Punjab ..	5,42,000	48,000	4,94,000	
21	Improvement of Castor crop in India by H. E. H. the Nizam's Government	61,050	..	61,050	
22	Grant to the Burma Shell Oil Storage and Distributing Co., Bombay	7,000	7,000	..	
23	Grant to the United Provinces Government for investigation into the malting and brewing tests of improved barley ..	4,650	4,650	..	
24	Grant to the Punjab Government for investigation into the malting and brewing qualities of Punjab barley	4,800	4,806	..	
25	Grant to the Bihar and Orissa Government for investigating in the malting and brewing qualities of Bihar barley ..	4,000	4,000	..	
	Total Agricultural Schemes..	29,53,973	11,47,096	18,06,877	

Serial No.	Description of Scheme.	Sanctioned grant.	Expenditure upto end of 1933-34.	Balance to be spent.	REMARKS.
	Animal Husbandry Schemes.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	
1	Dr. A. Slater's scheme of Goat Breeding	32,000	20,537	11,463	
2	Appointment of a physical chemist to study animal nutrition at Dacca	48,600	18,750	29,850	
3	Appointment of Veterinary Investigation officers in Provinces.	5,00,000	1,12,435	3,87,565	
4	Research at the Anand Creamery in the manufacture of products and by-products of milk ..	1,10,700	....	1,10,700	
5	Investigation into the most suitable and economic methods of combating different types of parasitic infection in ruminents in the fields, etc.	20,100	7,500	12,600	
6	Appointment of a protozoologist .	36,000	....	36,000	
	Total Animal Husbandry Schemes	7,47,400	1,59,222	5,88,178	
	GRAND TOTAL	37,01,373	13,06,318	23,95,055	

STATEMENT A.

PART II.

General Schemes other than Sugar.

(*b*) *Statement showing the annual cost of establishments employed directly under the Council.*

Serial No.	Description.	Sanctioned Annual Grant.	REMARKS.
		Rs. a. p.	
1	Fertilizer's Committee	1,500 0 0	Funds are provided from year to year.
2	Locust Committee	3,000 0 0	
3	Locust Bureau	1,800 0 0	
4	Oil Seed Crushing Industry Committee	8,000 0 0	
5	Statistical Section of the Bureau of Agricultural Intelligence	13,000 0 0	
6	Appointment of a statistician for the compilation of certain statistics relating to feeding scales, etc., in Military Dairies	5,000 0 0	
7	Editorial Committee	1,000 0 0	
8	Sub-Section of the Imperial Agricultural Bureau*.	2,700 0 0	
9	Accounts and Audit	9,000 0 0	
	Total ..	38,600 0 0	

STATEMENT **A.**

STATEMENT No. A—PART II.

General Schemes other than Sugar.

(*c*) *Statement showing the annual cost of fixed Contributions to Imperial and International Institutions.*

Serial No.	Description.	Sanctioned Annual Grant.	REMARKS.
1	International des Epizootics, Paris	Rs. 1,200 0 0	Sanctioned for the year 1934-35 only.
2	Imperial Institute of Mycology, London ..	£ 600 0 0 or Rs. 8,000 0 0	Sanctioned for the year 1934-35 only.
3	International Institute of Agriculture, Rome ..	Rs. 12,000 0 0	Sanctioned for the year 1934-35 only.
4	Imperial Agricultural Bureau	Rs. 29,167 0 0 £ 2,187 10 0	Sanctioned for the year 1934-35 only.
5	Imperial Institute of Entomology, London ..	Rs. 1,300 0 0	Sanctioned for the year 1934-35 only.
6	Tobacco Federation of the British Empire ..	Rs. 133 0 0 £ 10 0 0	Sanctioned for five years with effect from 1934-35.
	Total ..	Rs. 51,300 0 0	

STATEMENT **A.**

PART II. *Schemes other than Sugar.*

(*d*) *Statement showing the amount required to meet the travelling allowance of Non-Official members attending meetings of the Imperial Council of Agricultural Research and of Visitors invited to the meetings.*

Description.	Sanctioned Annual Grant.	REMARKS.
	Rs. a. p.	
Travelling Allowance of Visitors for attending meetings of the Advisory Board and Committees of the Council	2,000 0 0	Travelling Allowance of Visitors if invited at the initiative of the Vice-Chairman, Imperial Council of Agricultural Research, is paid from the funds of the Council but is invited at the initiative of a local Government is payable from the Provincial Budget.
Travelling Allowance of Non-Official members of the Council	5,000 0 0	Travelling Allowance of Official members is met by their respective Governments.
Total ..	7,000 0 0	

STATEMENT B.

List of Schemes approved by the Council but not yet undertaken owing to lack of funds.

PART (*a*)—*Sugar Schemes.*

Serial No.	Description.	Cost.	Serial No.	Description.	Cost.
		Rs.			Rs.
1	Grant to the Government of Burma for a scheme of research into parasites to control the beetle pest of sugarcane in Burma ..	11,200	2	Grant to the Government of the North West Frontier Province for a scheme for sugar-cane research in the North West Frontier Province	64,250
				Total ..	75,450

STATEMENT B.

List of Schemes approved by the Council but not yet undertaken owing to lack of funds.

PART (*b*)—*General Schemes other than Sugar.*

Serial No.	Description.	Cost.	Serial No.	Description.	Cost.
		Rs.			Rs.
1	Financial assistance to the oil technological Section of the Harcourt Butler Technological Institute	30,000	10	Extension of work on 'quality' in crops by the Indian Institute of Science (2 years)	5,400
2	Establishment of an All-India Animal Husbandry Bureau	15,000	11	Professor J. B. Seth's scheme for investigating an electric method of Hygrometry (2 years)	3,600
3	Professor Mahalanobis' Statistical scheme	40,000	12	Grant to the Central Provinces Government for investigation into vaccination of cattle against rinderpest ..	46,700
4	Crops— Tobacco Expert for Bengal (5 years) Tobacco Expert for Madras (5 years) .. Tobacco Expert for Punjab (2 years) ..	1,33,150	13	Grant to the Government of North West Frontier Province for an entomological survey scheme in the North West Frontier Province ..	34,740
5	Research on the composition of milk (2 years)	8,600	14	Research in systematic collection of medicinal plants and study of food poisons in India by Colonel Choopra (5 years)	62,860
6	Extension of work on animal nutrition in the Madras Presidency (5 years) ..	49,930	15	Grant to the Government of Bombay for research in sheep-breeding (for 10 years)	85,122
7	Investigation on the organic Constituents of Indian soils (5 years)	11,200	16	Grant to the Government of Assam for investigation into fruit cultivation in Assam	37,424
8	Preparation of cheap synthetic manure from town refuse and waste materials by the Indian Institute of Science, Bangalore (2 years)	4,950	17	Grant to the Government of Bengal for research into diseases of poultry in Bengal	65,579
9	Investigation of the Chemistry of malting Cholam (Sorghum) (3 years)	15,256			

Serial No.	Description.	Cost. No.	Serial	Description.	Cost.
		Rs.			Rs.
18	Research in the cytological study of Indian crop plants (5 years)	25,830	30	Dr. Puri's scheme for work on the standardization of Physico-chemical single value measurements most suitable for Indian soils (5 years)	13,500
19	Mysore-Investigation of Indian Fish poisons ..	15,288	31	Grant to Dr. Thapar for investigation into Helminthiasis of cattle, sheep, etc.	19,790
20	Grant to the Government of Mysore for investigating into Johne's disease among animals	24,400	32	Grant to the Government of Madras for research on rural pisciculture	47,660
21	Scheme for the investigation of Tuberculosis and Johne's disease among animals ..	2,00,000	33	Grant to the Bihar and Orissa Government for research on the economics of irrigation from tube-wells	73,680
22	Grant to the Government of Madras for research in oil seeds in Madras	57,100	34	Grant to the Government of Assam for a scheme of cattle nutrition	69,788
23	Scheme for conducting research in Warble Flies at the Muktesar Institute ..	32,400	35	Punjab Government scheme for the installation of wheat milling and baking laboratory at Lyallpur	22,300
24	Grant to the Government of the United Provinces for research on Sunn Hemp .	34,266	36	Study of the composition and nutritive value of milk of the cow, buffalo and goat .	50,588
25	Animal Nutrition Research Scheme, Bangalore:—		37	Research into the indigenous drugs of India with special reference to their toxicology	73,080
	(*a*) Value of oil cakes and oil seeds for working bullocks	45,490	38	Scheme for the development of methodology in rural research by the Viswa Bharati Institute of Rural Reconstruction, Sriniketan (3 years)	18,750
	(*b*) Extension of laboratory facilities	23,100	39	Grant to the Government of Bombay for a scheme of poultry breeding research in Western India	13,045
26	Extension of sewage farm investigations with special reference to Papaya and Plantain cultivation (3 years)	18,340		Total ..	16,93,006
27	Scheme by Dr. P. E. Lander for determining the feeding values of certain food grains, oil seeds and oil-cakes for working bullocks and dairy cattle	38,570		Sugar Scheme ..	75,450
28	Statistical basis of the estimates of production of crops in India	5,000		Grand Total ..	17,68,456
29	Feeding values of oil seeds, cakes and other concentrates to milch animals ..	46,530			

STATEMENT C.

STATEMENT SHOWING COST OF EXPIRED SCHEMES.

	Sugar Schemes.	Rs.
1	Lump sum grant to Shahjahanpur Research Station for a detailed examination of new seedling cane ..	6,000
2	Deputation of a chemist to Bhopal to test K.B. Hadis' process of manufacturing Sugar by open pan method	1,080
3	K. B. Hadis' Commercial Test of Bilari under Lal Har Sahai Gupta	12,920
4	Deputation of the Sugar Technologist to Europe and America	12,666
	Total ..	32,666 or 32,700

	Agricultural Schemes.	
1	Grant to Dr. K. C. Mehta for :— (*a*) Investigation of rusts of wheat and barley ..	41,432
	(*b*) Investigation into the Physiologic forms of wheat rusts	4,008
	(*c*) Giving some relief from a part of his duties at college	4,182
2	Hemp marketing officer ..	13,864
3	Investigation into the vitamin contents of mangoes by Dr. Zilva	1,015
4	"Water Hyacinth" by Professor Parija	9,646
5	Standardisation of Physico-Chemical single value measurements most suitable for Indian Soils by Dr. A. N. Puri	5 250
6	Grants to Provinces for collecting data on manurial experiments conducted in the past	17,329
7	Distribution of Sodium Fluosilicate to Indian States ..	1,757
8	Cost of exhibits in connection with commercial samples room of the High Commissioners' office	516
		98,999 or 909,00

	Animal Husbandry Schemes.	Rs.
1	Testing of Drug Plasmoquine	523
2	All India Legislation for the control of animal disease .	415
	Total Rs. ..	938

(I)

Contributions, etc.

1	Contribution to Royal Veterinary College, London ..	1,009

(II)

Deputation of India's Representatives at International Conferences.

1	Deputation of Dr. K. C. Mehta and others to the International Botanical Congress at Cambridge in 1930 ..	2,432
2	Expenditure on the Third Entomological Conference in London in 1930.. ..	741
3	Expenditure on the International Veterinary Conference in London in 1930 ..	525
4	Expenditure on the Conference of workers interested in problems of fruit production within the Empire held in London in 1930..	193
5	Indian Delegation to the International Institute of Agriculture, Rome ..	5,159
6	India's representation at the Ninth International Dairy Congress, Copenhagen, 1931	3,372
7	Cost of India's representation at the Preparatory Conference to the Second World Wheat Conference, Rome.	857
8	Cost of India's representatives at the Soil Workers Conference held in London in 1930..	163
	Total Rs. ..	13,542

(III)

General Schemes.

1	Honorarium to Dr. Agharkar	750
2	Honorarium to Mr. Amar Nath	500
	Total ..	1,250

(IV)

Grand Total of (I), (II), (III) and (IV)	16,639
Sugar Schemes	32,700
Agricultural Schemes ..	99,000
Animal Husbandry and General Schemes	16,639
Grand Total ..	1,48,339

AREA, CULTIVATED and UNCULTIVATED, in 1931-32 IN EACH PROVINCE.

Provinces.	Area according to survey.	*Deduct* Indian States.	NET AREA.	
			According to survey.	According to Village Papers.
	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.
Ajmer-Merwara	1,770,921	..	1,770,921	1,770,921
Assam	43,375,360	7,890,560	35,484,800	35,484,800
Bengal	52,044,314	3,477,760	48,566,554	48,566,554
Bihar and Orissa	71,507,695	18,334,720	53,172,975	53,172,975
Bombay	97,446,023	18,568,960	78,877,063	78,877,063
Burma	155,849,528	..	155,849,528	155,849,528
Central Provinces and Berar	85,190,400	21,207,680	63,982,720	64,060,037
Coorg	1,012,260	..	1,012,260	1,012,260
Delhi	360,904	..	369,904	369,904
Madras	91,073,424	..	91,073,424	91,158,469
North-West Frontier Province.	8,578,296	140,800	8,437,496	8,576,829
Punjab	65,257,965	3,286,700	61,971,265	60,187,672
United Provinces	72,648,741	4,348,232	68,300,509	67,970,517
Total	746,124,831	77,255,412	668,869,419	667,057,729

Provinces.	CULTIVATED.		UNCULTIVATED.		Forests.
	Net area actually sown.	Current fallows.	Culturable waste other than fallow.	Not available for cultivation.	
	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.
Ajmer-Merwara	357,930	151,613	303,642	861,134	96,782
Assam	5,752,043	1,811,270	19,527,781	4,571,030	3,822,676
Bengal	23,567,900	5,300,710	5,915,644	9,152,760	4,629,540
Bihar and Orissa	24,768,100	6,214,766	6,999,999	8,017,146	7,172,964
Bombay	32,239,045	10,737,504	7,108,016	19,695,944	9,096,554
Burma	17,470,599	4,245,204	59,896,313	52,036,821	22,200,591
Central Provinces & Berar.	25,257,361	3,536,041	14,077,297	4,941,846	16,247,692
Coorg	137,793	171,547	11,690	334,045	357,185
Delhi	218,950	7,124	63,093	80,737	..
Madras	33,495,798	10,701,487	13,164,111	20,463,298	13,333,775
North-West Frontier Province	2,275,121	509,044	2,764,037	2,668,346	360,281
Punjab	27,549,514	3,221,166	14,716,694	12,721,012	1,979,286
United Provinces	35,745,770	2,468,775	10,573,860	9,913,535	9,268,577
Total	228,835,924	49,076,251	155,121,997	145,457,654	88,565,903

NOTE.—Statistics for Manpur Pargana have been omitted as it now forms part of Indore State.

AREA UNDER IRRIGATION IN 1931-32 IN EACH PROVINCE.

Provinces.	AREA IRRIGATED.					
	By Canals.		By Tanks.	By Wells.	Other Sources.	Total Area irrigated.
	Government.	Private.				
	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.
Ajmer-Merwara ..	..	..	39,350	100,531	..	139,881
Assam	145	324,940	1,331	33	294,469	620,918
Bengal	63,644	206,757	733,288	230,039	472,474	1,706,202
Bihar and Orissa ..	844,356	928,099	1,602,083	564,310	1,241,508	5,180,356
Bombay	3,168,108	80,234	133,458	646,348	228,407	4,265,555
Burma	613,195	247,907	192,918	19,086	335,512	1,408,618
Central Provinces & Berar	*	799,642	*	134,511	44,267	975,420
Coorg	2,212	..	1,379	..	..	3,591
Delhi	30,512	..	1,171	20,261	..	51,944
Madras	3,730,390	147,326	3,449,643	1,340,612	536,092	9,204,063
North-West Frontier Province ..	385,877	410,520	..	85,900	87,963	970,260
Punjab	9,929,217	40,709	33,229	3,766,667	130,904	14,267,056
United Provinces ..	2,849,341	38,695	58,961	4,745,025	4,378,990	10,071,012
Total ..	21,616,997	3,600,159	6,246,811	11,653,323	5,747,876	48,864,876

* Included under "Private canals".

Provinces.	Crops Irrigated. *				
	Rice.	Wheat.	Barley.	Jowar or Cholum (great millet).	Bajra or Cumbu (spiked millet).
	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.
Ajmer-Merwara	43	19,505	41,903	157	292
Assam	604,656	..	..	..	..
Bengal	1,507,897	16,398	4,687	10	70
Bihar and Orissa	3,488,584	254,437	130,838	3,040	1,486
Bombay	1,409,544	599,245	20,049	654,715	478,763
Burma	1,349,174	83	..	131	..
Central Provinces & Berar ..	811,522	53,455	1,784	335	..
Coorg	3,591	..	..	..	..
Delhi	30	22,905	2,445	636	210
Madras	8,261,907	2,764	2	446,900	311,226
North-West Frontier Province ..	41,369	329,640	60,517	24,565	8,327
Punjab	651,477	4,916,800	196,858	211,074	335,500
United Provinces	453,372	3,751,494	1,902,993	45,697	3,328
Tatol ..	18,583,166	9,966,730	2,362,076	1,387,260	1,139,202

* Includes area irrigated at both harvests.

Provinces.	Crops Irrigated*.						
	Maize.	Other cereals and pulses.	Sugarcane	Other food crops.	Cotton.	Other non-food crops.	Total.
	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.
Ajmer-Merwara ..	28,951	26,714	57	11,226	22,838	4,101	155,791
Assam	..	34	..	7,670	..	8,558	620,918
Bengal	4,084	42,178	55,872	141,422	1,865	152,397	1,899,880
Bihar and Orissa ..	65,690	886,437	145,552	162,281	4,087	112,486	5,254,918
Bombay	36,869	460,666	67,973	229,020	287,138	393,320	4,637,302
Burma	803	17,482	1,776	66,011	29	11,022	1,446,511
Central Provinces and Berar	319	3,832	20,044	74,358	95	9,676	975,420
Coorg	..	..	..	..	..	..	3,591
Delhi	783	3,826	3,198	5,662	3,454	8,795	51,944
Madras	2,825	1,083,369	112,481	345,176	190,868	426,741	11,184,259
North-West Frontier Province	245,891	33,638	44,263	32,048	15,232	136,548	972,038
Punjab	427,193	1,629,543	403,825	254,192	2,014,609	3,504,496	14,545,567
United Provinces ..	215,250	2,122,530	1,165,049	341,493	371,331	330,488	10,703,025
Total ..	1,028,658	6,310,249	2,020,090	1,643,559	2,911,546	5,098,628	52,451,164

* Includes area irrigated at both harvests.

AREA UNDER DIFFERENT CROPS CULTIVATED IN 1931-32 IN EACH PROVINCE.

Provinces.	Food Grains.				
	Rice.	Wheat.	Barley.	Jowar or cholum (great millet.)	Bajra or cumbu (spiked millet.)
	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.
Ajmer-Merwara	586	30,696	64,767	104,984	35,238
Assam	4,699,630	..	..	..	..
Bengal	22,128,800	145,200	87,500	6,200	2,200
Bihar and Orissa	14,091,300	1,220,900	1,356,400	83,500	71,100
Bombay	3,159,208	2,314,405	35,161	7,893,837	5,228,780
Burma	12,543,154	40,519	..	651,870	..
Central Provinces & Berar	5,527,392	3,532,009	16,851	4,290,249	119,306
Coorg	83,128	..	..	..	..
Delhi	36	46,948	12,711	30,067	69,630
Madras	11,537,733	17,361	2,911	4,830,678	2,877,161
North-West Frontier Province	41,405	1,014,240	152,441	84,433	155,136
Punjab	799,028	9,079,613	629,480	1,013,634	3,232,886
United Provinces	6,676,506	7,897,212	4,137,004	2,619,023	2,150,162
Total	81,287,906	25,320,103	6,495,226	21,608,475	13,941,599

Provinces.	Food Grains.				
	Ragi or marua (millet.)	Maize.	Gram (pulse).	Other food grains and pulses.	Total, Food Grains.
	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.
Ajmer-Merwara	111	72,253	35,081	56,523	400,239
Assam	..	..	*	213,083	4,912,713
Bengal	4,400	83,700	179,700	1,071,000	23,708,700
Bihar and Orissa	744,100	1,693,900	1,465,000	4,646,500	25,372,700
Bombay	644,198	191,418	1,019,057	3,208,499	23,694,563
Burma	..	221,113	244,640	734,065	14,435,361
Central Provinces & Berar.	13,826	154,248	1,327,128	5,447,566	20,409,575
Coorg	3,351	..	320	1,062	87,861
Delhi	15	2,069	99,020	7,502	267,998
Madras	2,200,674	110,184	105,112	6,948,542	28,630,356
North-West Frontier Province	..	449,266	224,072	108,281	2,229,274
Punjab	14,954	1,004,431	5,546,685	1,495,388	22,816,099
United Provinces	246,292	2,125,045	5,685,928	6,511,350	38,048,522
Total	3,871,921	6,107,627	15,931,743	30,449,361	205,013,961

* Included under "Other food grains and pulses."

AREA UNDER DIFFERENT CROPS CULTIVATED IN 1931-32 IN EACH PROVINCE.

Provinces.	Oilseeds.							
	Linseed.	Sesamum (til or jinjili.)	Rape and mustard.	Ground-nut.	Cocoanut	Castor.	Other Oil seeds.	Total.
	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.
Ajmer-Merwara ..	638	20,024	891	..	..	..	..	21,553
Assam ..	2,260	20,683	302,041	..	..	4,818	..	329,802
Bengal ..	126,300	161,300	770,300	300	12,800	100	30,900	1,102,000
Bihar and Orissa ..	654,100	200,400	638,700	1,200	28,500	51,000	299,900	1,876,800
Bombay ..	137,191	233,646	163,691	989,224	27,088	76,953	220,276	1,848,069
Burma ..	26	1,328,463	4,360	408,309	10,439	14	7,532	1,759,143
Central Provinces and Berar ..	937,224	504,924	69,821	164,333	..	38,263	340,960	2,055,525
Coorg ..	..	260	4	1	..	..	..	265
Delhi ..	4	23	7,744	..	..	..	263	8,034
Madras ..	5,804	747,053	14,723	2,635,427	539,031	330,114	153,518	4,425,670
North-West Frontier Province ..	285	3,592	106,927	..	..	..	25	110,829
Punjab ..	31,512	162,440	1,149,860	..	..	47	1,206	1,345,065
United Provinces ..	321,256	329,660	277,820	27,214	..	10,188	33,507	999,645
Total ..	2,216,600	3,712,468	3,506,882	4,226,008	617,858	514,497	1,088,087	15,882,400

Provinces.	Condiments and spices.	Sugar.		Fibres.			
		Sugarcane.	Others*	Cotton.	Jute.	Other fibres.	Total fibres.
	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.
Ajmer-Merwara ..	3,415	57	299	26,595	..	97	26,692
Assam ..	..	31,332	..	37,128	99,282	..	136,410
Bengal ..	136,100	233,400	54,900	58,500	1,596,700	63,900	1,719,100
Bihar and Orissa ..	65,000	281,600	..	68,500	147,500	26,300	242,300
Bombay ..	218,754	68,848	1,155	4,320,908	..	109,494	4,430,402
Burma ..	97,332	20,624	21,197	228,483	..	1,186	229,669
Central Provinces and Berar ..	112,365	22,042	..	4,620,366	..	95,138	4,715,504
Coorg	3,676	19	..	..	..	443	443
Delhi	2,150	3,225	..	4,398	..	642	5,040
Madras	728,395	116,105	90,796	2,204,506	..	149,245	2,353,751
North-West Frontier Province ..	7,090	44,268	..	17,767	..	1,286	19,053
Punjab	62,820	474,655	..	2,159,722	..	54,964	2,214,686
United Provinces ..	156,888	1,576,280	..	739,640	1,734	183,544	924,918
Total ..	1,593,985	2,872,455	168,347	14,486,513	1,845,216	686,239	17,017,968

* Area under sugar-yielding plants other than sugarcane.

AREA UNDER DIFFERENT CROPS CULTIVATED IN 1931-32 IN EACH PROVINCE.

Provinces.	Dyes and Tanning materials.		Drugs and Narcotics.					Fodder Crops.
	Indigo.	Others.	Opium.	Tea.	Coffee.	Tobacco.	Other Drugs and Narcotics (*a*)	
	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.
Ajmer-Merwara ..	..	..	..	..	..	22	..	1,403
Assam	..	..	..	431,145	..	13,830	..	..
Bengal ..	..	..	..	199,100	..	292,800	3,800	100,100
Bihar and Orissa ..	4,000	500	..	4,100	..	141,100	..	31,400
Bombay	182	520,034	..	24	4	158,423	29,773	2,449,716
Burma	405	..	..	55,393	17	91,922	67,249	235,416
Central Provinces and Berar ..	3	34	..	..	..	15,871	2,349	441,073
Coorg	..	..	..	415	40,533	7	..	..
Delhi	1	..	..	..	..	464	..	25,207
Madras	37,239	5,237	..	68,794	51,160	268,815	156,512	464,978
North-West Frontier Province ..	..	23	..	..	..	13,444	55	126,115
Punjab	8,992	7,241	1,177	9,695	..	85,258	1,480	4,471,971
United Provinces ..	2,631	630	40,916	6,455	..	68,303	2,470	1,277,283
Total ..	53,453	533,699	42,093	775,121	91,714	1,150,259	263,688	9,624,662

(*a*) Includes Cinchona and Indian hemp also.

Provinces.	Fruits and Vegetables including root crops.	Miscellaneous Crops.		Total area sown.	*Deduct* area sown more than once.	Net area sown.
		Food.	Non-food.			
	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.
Ajmer-Merwara ..	1,467	7,719	2,542	465,408	107,478	357,930
Assam	413,638	(*b*)	155,081	6,424,851	672,808	5,752,043
Bengal	772,100	249,000	104,300	28,675,400	5,107,500	23,567,900
Bihar and Orissa ..	652,900	1,066,300	347,900	30,086,600	5,318,500	24,768,100
Bombay	255,855	3,148	8,622	33,687,572	1,448,527	32,239,045
Burma	1,098,195	21,375	246,496	18,379,794	909,195	17,470,599
Central Provinces and Berar	120,989	4,491	985	27,900,806	2,643,445	25,257,361
Coorg	5,832	..	..	139,051	1,258	137,793
Delhi	6,130	494	890	319,633	100,683	218,950
Madras	741,075	68,422	137,272	38,344,577	4,848,779	33,495,798
North-West Frontier Province	21,931	61,693	3,003	2,636,778	361,657	2,275,121
Punjab	284,058	216,890	6,590	32,006,677	4,457,163	27,549,514
United Provinces ..	521,499	199,970	7,938	43,834,348	8,088,578	35,745,770
Total ..	4,895,669	1,899,502	1,022,519	262,901,495	34,065,571	228,835,924

(*b*) Included under Miscellaneous non-food crops.

AGRICULTURAL PRODUCE.

The following table shows the area under the principal crops, in British India, and their territorial distribution for 1931-32. The sown area is always greater than the area of cultivated land, owing to double cropping. The figures represent thousands of acres: —

Provinces.	Rice.	Wheat.	Sugar Cane.	Tea.	Cotton.	Jute.	Linseed.	Rape & Mustard.	Sesamum.	Castor Seed.	Ground Nut.	Barely.
Ajmer Merwara ..	..	31	..	..	27	..	..	..	20	..	..	42
Assam	4,700	..	31	431	37	109	..	302	..	..	..	..
Bengal	22,128	145	233	199	58	1,611	126	770	161	..	..	87
Bihar & Orissa ..	14,091	1,221	282	3	68	157	654	639	200	54	..	1,356
Bombay	2,994	2,314	63	..	4,073	..	126	124	213	59	976	35
Burma	12,511	..	..	..	228	..	..	..	1,262	..	426	..
C. P. & Berar ..	5,553	3,499	22	..	4,588	..	896	66	514	44	160	17
Delhi	..	41	3	..	4	..	..	8	..	..	..	13
Coorg	83	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Madras	11,538	..	116	72	2,228	..	..	..	747	330	2,635	3
N. W. Frontier Province ..	..	1,014	44	..	18	..	..	99	..	..	..	152
Punjab	..	9,080	474	9	2,160	..	32	1,106	159	..	..	629
United Provinces ..	6,682	7,748	1,498	6	772	..	903	2,923	1,115	8	..	4,050
Total ..	80,286	25,003	2,766	722	14,261	1,877	2,737	6,037	4,391	495	1,497	6,384

AGRICULTURAL STATISTICS : (*Figures in thousands of acres.*)

—	1924-25.	1925-26.	1926-27.	1927-28.	1928-29.	1929-30.	1930-31.	1931-32.
Area by professional survey ..	667,646,262	667,610,031	667,750	670,038	670,047	669,916	669,345	668,869
Area according to village papers .	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	667,058
Area under forest	86,514,012	86,937,008	87,029	86,985	87,224	87,277	87,962	88,566
Area Not available for cultivation.	150,971	150,194	149,014	149,643	149,034	146,873	146,810	145,458
Cultivable waste other than fallow.	152,893	151,871	152,531	155,477	154,680	155,491	154,017	155,122
Fallow land	47,178	49,305	49,698	51,029	48,432	49,714	49,618	49,076
Net area sown	226,980	225,849	226,012	223,862	228,166	228,161	229,115	228,836
Area irrigated	45,298	47,565	47,785	43,321	49,762	51,010	49,697	48,865
Area under Food-crops—								
Rice	79,306	80,171	78,502	76,607	81,132	79,424	80,632	81,288
Wheat	24,848	23,979	24,181	24,569	24,926	24,731	24,797	25,320
Barley	6,969	6,610	6,387	6,825	7,533	7,027	6,693	6,495
Jowar	22,470	20,616	21,121	21,248	20,534	23,241	22,808	21,608
Bajra	11,965	12,269	13,801	14,062	12,952	13,291	13,698	13,942
Ragi	3,980	3,881	3,854	3,852	3,904	4,000	3,983	3,872
Maize	5,347	5,504	5,555	5,943	6,012	6,552	6,458	6,108
Gram	16,551	14,325	14,664	13,973	13,625	11,458	163,44	15,932
Other food-grains and pulse .	28,887	28,711	29,154	29,600	29,651	30,294	30,033	30,449
Total Food-grains ..	200,327,618	196,069	197,219	196,679	200,269	200,018	202,736	205,014
Area under other food-crops including fruits, vegetables, condiments, spices & miscellaneous food-crops).	7,671	7,754	7,537	7,844	7,852	7,898	8,241	8,389
Sugar	2,654	2,805	3,041	3,046	2,675	2,583	2,869	3,041
Coffee	94	95	91	92	87	91	92	92
Tea	715	728	738	743	760	766	775	775

AGRICULTURAL STATISTICS OF BRITISH INDIA—(*in thousands of acres*).

	1924-25.	1925-26.	1926-27.	1927-28.	1928-29.	1929-30.	1930-31.	1931-32.
Area under Oilseeds—								
Linseed	2,559,473	2,524,078	2,325	2,212	2,092	1,927	1,999	2,217
Sesamum (til)	3,525,417	3,409,939	3,172	3,541	3,668	3,556	3,638	3,712
Rape and Mustard	3,920,035	3,088,948	3,280	3,277	4,287	3,554	3,297	3,507
Other Oilseeds *	5,008,894	6,133,854	6,222	7,093	7,839	7,293	7,524	6,446
Total Oilseeds ..	15,013,819	15,156,819	14,999	16,123	17,886	16,330	16,458	15,882
Area under—								
Cotton	17,414,249	18,186,199	15,687	14,804	16,507	16,141	14,201	14,487
Jute	2,737,931	2,923,408	3,610	3,294	3,062	3,268	3,402	1,845
Other fibres	892,630	910,027	805	713	657	666	719	686
Indigo	107,234	138,618	104	67	81	71	64	53
Opium	127,452	83,030	59	54	49	41	43	42
Tobacco	1,065,656	1,064,862	1,055	1,145	1,150	1,172	1,112	1,150
Fodder crops	8,836,438	8,932,158	8,940	9,152	9,177	9,381	9,300	9,625
Other non-food crops ..	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	1,820
Total non-food crops $ ..	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	46,457
Yields in thousands of—								
Rice .. .. *tons.*	31,072,000	30,737,000	30,669‡	29,192‡	33,187‡	32,198‡	33,241‡	31,691
Wheat .. .. „	8,867,000	8,696,000	8,973	7,791	8,592	10,469	9,306	7,252
Coffee .. .. .. *lbs.*	30,476,000	22,107,000	34,282	35,563	27,767	39,424	32,973	15,888
Tea † .. .. .. „	375,256,000	363,507,000	392,933	390,920	404,153	432,842	391,081	365,549
Cotton .. .. „ „	6,088,000	6,215,000	5,024	5,963	5,782	5,243	5,224	2,488
Jute † .. 400 *lb. bales.*	8,062,000	8,940,000	12,132	10,188	9,906	10,335	11,205	5,781
„ „								
Linseed .. .. *tons.*	501,000	402,000	406	348	322	380	377	309
Rape and Mustard .. „	1,220,000	909,000	1,004	840	910	1,095	988	1,013
Sesamum (til) .. „	513,000	421,000	414	543	495	455	526	374
Groundnut .. .. „	1,485,000	1,999,000	2,046	2,718	3,211	2,668	3,154	2,262
Castor seed .. .. „	..	144,000	129	138	113	116	120	62
Indigo .. .. *cwt.*	22,000	28,000	19	11	15	14	13	9
Cane-sugar (Gur) .. *tons.*	2,546,000	2,977,000	3,267	3,217	2,704	2,752	3,228	3,700
Rubber † .. .. *lbs.*	15,601,000	19,970,000	23,004	26,042	26,839	28,023	24,351	9,199

Note.—The acreage of crops given in this table is for British India only, but the yield includes the crops in certain Indian States also.
* Groundnut, cocoanut, castor and other oilseeds. † The statistics of the production of tea, jute and rubber are for calendar years.
‡ Includes yield of other tracts for which no forecast is made.
$ Other dyes & tanning materials, other drugs & materials and miscellaneous non-food crops.

Irrigation.

The chief characteristics of the Indian rainfall are its unequal distribution over the country, its irregular distribution throughout the seasons and its liability to failure or serious deficiency. The normal annual rainfall varies from 460 inches at Cherrapunji in the Assam hills to less than three inches in Upper Sind. The greatest rainfall actually measured at any station in any one year was 905 inches, recorded at Cherrapunji in 1861, while at stations in Upper Sind it has been nil. There are thus portions of the country which suffer as much from excessive rainfall as others do from drought.

The second important characteristic of the rainfall is its unequal distribution throughout the seasons. Except in the south-east of the peninsula, where the heaviest precipitation is received from October to December, by far the greater portion of the rainfalls during the south-west monsoon, between June and October. During the winter months the rainfall is comparatively small the normal amount varying from half an inch to two inches, while the hot weather, from March to May or June, is practically rainless. Consequently it happens that in one season of the year the greater part of India is deluged with rain and is the scene of the most wonderful and rapid growth of vegetation; in another period the same tract becomes a dreary, sun-burnt waste. The transition from the latter to the former stage often occurs in a few days. From the agricultural point of view the most unsatisfactory feature of the Indian rainfall is its liability to failure or serious deficiency. The average annual rainfall over the whole country is about 45 inches and there is but little variation from this average from year to year, the greatest recorded being only about seven inches. But if separate tracts are considered, extraordinary variations are found. At many stations annual rainfalls of less than half the average are not uncommon, while at some less than a quarter of the normal amount has been recorded in a year of extreme drought.

Scarcity.—Classing a year in which the deficiency is 25 per cent. as a dry year and one in which it is 40 per cent. as a year of severe drought, the examination of past statistics shows that, over the precarious area, one year in five may be expected to be a dry year and one in ten a year of severe drought. It is largely in order to remove the menace of these years that the great irrigation systems of India have been constructed.

Government Works.—The Government irrigation works of India may be divided into two main classes, those provided with artificial storage, and those dependent throughout the year on the natural supplies of the rivers from which they have their origin. In actual fact, practically every irrigation work depends upon storage of one kind or another but, in many cases, this is provided by nature without man's assistance. In Northern India, upon the Himalayan rivers, and in Madras, where the cold weather rains are even heavier than those of the south-west monsoon, the principal non-storage systems are found.

The expedient of storing water in the monsoon for utilization during the subsequent dry weather has been practised in India from time immemorial. In their simplest form, such storage works consist of an earthen embankment constructed across a valley or depression, behind which the water collects, and those under Government control range from small tanks irrigating only a few acres each to the huge reservoirs recently completed in the Deccan which are capable of storing over 20,000 million cubic feet of water. By gradually escaping water from a work of the latter type, a supply can be maintained long after the river on which the reservoir is situated would otherwise be dry and useless.

The Three Classes.—Previously all irrigation works were divided into three classes Productive, Protective and Minor, but during the triennium 1921-24 the method of determining the source from which the funds for the construction of Government works was provided was changed, and now all works, whether major or minor, for which capital accounts are kept, have been re-classified under two heads, Productive and Unproductive, with a third class embracing areas irrigated by non-capital works. The main criterion to be satisfied before a work can be classed as productive is that it shall, within ten years of the completion of construction, produce sufficient revenue to cover its working expenses and the interest charges on its capital cost. Most of the largest irrigation systems in India belong to the productive class. The total capital outlay direct and indirect on irrigation and navigation works, including works under construction, amounted at the end of the year 1929-30 to Rs. 130 crores.

Unproductive works are constructed primarily with a view to the protection of precarious tracts and to guard against the necessity for periodical expenditure on the relief of the population in times of famine. They are financed from the current revenues of India, generally from the annual grant for famine relief and insurance, and are not directly remunerative, the construction of each such work being separately justified by a comparison of the value of each acre protected (based upon such factors as the probable cost of famine relief, the population of the tract, the area already protected and the minimum area which must be protected in order to tide over a period of severe drought) with the cost of such protection.

Nearly one-eighth of the whole area irrigated in India from Government works is effected by minor works for which no capital account is kept.

Growth of Irrigation.—There has, during the last fifty years, been a steady growth in the area irrigated by Government irrigation works. From 10¼ million acres in 1878–79 the area annually irrigated rose to 19¼ million acres at the beginning of the century and to 31 million acres in 1930–31. This record was, however, surpassed in the year 1929–30, when the total area irrigated by all classes of works in India, excluding the Indian States, amounted to 31½ million acres.

The main increase has been in the class of productive works, which irrigated 4¼ million acres in 1878–79 and rose to 20,756,209 acres in 1926–27. During the year 1930–31 the areas irrigated by productive and unproductive works amounted to 22,446,783 acres and 4,195,701 acres respectively.

The area irrigated in 1930–31 was largest in the Punjab, in which province 11.49 million acres were irrigated during the year. In addition about 1.49 million acres were irrigated from channels which although drawing their supplies from British canals, lie wholly in the Indian States. The Madras Presidency came next with an area of 7.6 million acres, followed by the United Provinces with 4 million and Sind with 3.7 million acres.

Capital and Revenue.—The total capital invested in the works has risen from Rs. 42,36 lakhs in 1900–01 to Rs. 136.44 crores in 1930–31. The gross revenue for the year was Rs. 1,209 lakhs and the working expenses Rs. 569 lakhs, the net return on capital being, therefore, 4.7 per cent. In considering the latter figure, it must be remembered that the capital invested includes considerable expenditure, *viz.*, Rs. 4,096 lakhs upon four projects of the first magnitude *viz.*, the Cauvery Metur Project, the Lloyd (Sukkur) Barrage Project, the Sarda Canal Project and the Sutlej Valley Project, which were under construction and contributed little or nothing in the way of revenue. Of the several provinces, the return on the capital invested in productive works was highest in the Punjab, where the canals yielded 12.64 per cent.

Charges for Water.—The charges for water are levied in different ways in the various provinces. In some, notably in Sind, the ordinary land revenue assessment includes also the charge for water, 9/10ths of this assessment being regarded as due to the canals. In others, as in parts of Madras and Bombay, different rates of land revenue are assessed according to whether the land is irrigated or not, and the assessment upon irrigated land includes also the charge for water. These methods may however be regarded as exceptional. Over the greater part of India water is paid for separately, the area actually irrigated is measured, and a rate is charged per acre according to the crop grown. Lower rates are often levied in cases where irrigation is by "lift," that is to say where the land is too high for the water to flow on to it by gravity and consequently the cultivator has to lift it on to his field.

Various other methods of assessment have been tried, such as by renting outlets for an annual sum, or by charging according to the volume of the water used, but these have never been successful. The cultivator fully understands the principle of "No crops, no charge" which is now followed as far as possible in canal administration, but has no confidence in a system under which his liability for water rate is independent of the area and quality of his crop.

The rates charged vary considerably with the crop grown, and are different in each province and often upon the several canals in a single province. Thus in the Punjab, they vary from Rs. 7–8–0 to Rs. 12 per acre for sugarcane, from Rs. 4 to Rs. 7–8–0 per acre for rice, from Rs. 3–4–0 to Rs. 5–4–0 per acre for wheat, from Rs. 3 to Rs. 4–4–0 per acre for cotton and from Rs. 2 to Rs. 3–4–0 per acre for millets and pulses. Charge is made for additional waterings. Practically speaking, Government guarantees sufficient water for the crop and gives it as available. If the crop fails to mature, or if its yield is much below normal, either the whole or part of the irrigation assessment is remitted.

A somewhat different system, the long lease system, is in force in parts of Bengal and the Central Provinces, under which the cultivators pay a small rate for a term of years whether they take water or not. In these provinces where the normal rainfall is fairly high, it is always a question whether irrigation will be necessary at all, and if the cultivators have to pay the full rate, they are apt to hold off until water becomes absolutely essential, and the sudden and universal demand then usually exceeds the supply. By paying a reduced rate every year for a term of years they become entitled to water when required; consequently there is no temptation to wait till the last possible moment, and the demand is much more evenly distributed throughout the season.

Taken as a whole, irrigation is offered on extremely easy terms, and the water rates represent only a very small proportion of the extra profit which the cultivator secures owing to the water he receives.

Triennial Comparisons.—The average area irrigated in British India by Government works of all classes during the triennium 1927-30 was nearly 30 million acres.

The results obtained in each province are given in the table below :—

Provinces.	Average area irrigated in triennium 1925-28.	Triennium 1927-30.
Madras	7,205,587	7,277,967
Bombay (Deccan)	440,536	406,748
Sind	3,385,379	3,579,592
Bengal	97,182	90,054
United Provinces	2,698,265	3,639,867
Punjab	10,442,730	11,200,550
Burma	1,939,029	1,994,321
Bihar and Orissa	930,112	907,067
Central Provinces	417,850	400,438
North-West Frontier Province	369,343	403,064
Rajputana	24,820	31,984
Baluchistan	22,319	22,407
Total ..	27,973,152	29,954,059

Productive Works.—Taking productive works only, a triennial comparison is given in the following table. It will be seen that the average area irrigated by such works during the triennium was one-and-a-half million acres more than in the previous period :—

Provinces.	Average area irrigated in previous triennium 1924-27.	Average area irrigated in triennium 1927-30.
Madras	3,732,271	3,821,815
Bombay-Deccan	2,699	2,637
Sind	2,894,468	2,661,519
United Provinces	2,462,061	3,372,506
Punjab	9,755,740	10,775,794
Burma	1,531,403	1,378,393
Central Provinces	153,942	21,889
North-West Frontier Province	200,413	207,750
Total ..	20,732,997	22,202,303

Taking the productive works as a whole, the capital invested in them was, at the end of 1930-31, Rs. 92 crores. The net revenue for the year was Rs. 627 lakhs giving a return 6·81 per cent. as compared with 9 per cent. in 1918-19 and 9¾ per cent. in 1919-20. In considering these figures it must be remembered that the capital invested includes the expenditure upon several works which have only lately come into operation and others which are under construction, which classes at present contribute little or nothing in the way of revenue; moreover only receipts from water rates and a share of the enhanced land revenue due to the introduction of irrigation are credited to the canals, so that the returns include nothing on account of the large addition to the general revenues of the country which follows in the wake of their construction.

Unproductive Works.—Turning now to the unproductive works, the areas irrigated in the various provinces during the triennium were as below :—

Provinces.	Average area irrigated in previous triennium 1924-27.	Average area irrigated in triennium 1927-30.
Madras	271,455	266,849
Bombay-Deccan	277,709	239,278
Sind	527,737	331,722
Bengal	73,381	67,802
United Provinces	207,312	252,643
Punjab	243,613	424,756
Burma	268,110	539,253
Bihar and Orissa	889,733	904,303
Central Provinces	230,280	333,482
North-West Frontier Province	156,911	195,314
Rajputana	23,272	31,984
Baluchistan	22,070	22,407
Total ..	3,191,588	4,109,793

Non-capital Works.—The results obtained from the non-capital works are given below :—

Provinces.	Average area irrigated in previous triennium 1924-27.	Average area irrigated in triennium 1927-30.
Madras	3,174,731	3,189,303
Bombay-Deccan	157,025	164,833
Sind	87,279	86,351
Bengal	22,135	22,252
United Provinces	8,006	14,717
Punjab	349,768	*Nil.*
Burma	72,870	76,676
Bihar and Orissa	2,246	2,764
Central Provinces	45,689	45,067
Total ..	3,919,749	3,601,963

Capital Outlay.—The total capital outlay, direct and indirect, on irrigation and navigation works, including works under construction, amounted at the end of 1930-31 to Rs. 136 crores. The gross revenue for the year was Rs. 12,09 lakhs, and the working expenses Rs. 5,69 lakhs; the net return on capital was therefore 4.7 per cent. Of the several provinces, the return on the capital outlay invested in productive works was highest in the Punjab, where the canals yielded 12·64 per cent. In Madras the percentage of return was 6·17 while in the United Provinces a return of 4·93 per cent. was realised. In considering these figures it must be remembered that the capital invested includes considerable expenditure upon three projects of the first magnitude *viz.*, the Sarda Oudh canals, the Lloyd Barrage project and the Cauvery (Mettur) project which were under construction and contributed little or nothing in the way of revenue.

Irrigated Acreage.—A comparison of the acreage of crops matured during 1930-31 by means of Government irrigation systems with the total area under cultivation in the several provinces is given below :—

Provinces.	Net area cropped. Acres.	Area irrigated by Government irrigation works. Acres.	Percentage of area irrigated to total cropped area.	Capital cost of Government irrigation & Navigation works to end of 1930-31. In lakhs of rupees.	Estimated value of crops raised on areas receiving State irrigation. In lakhs of rupees.
Madras	39,193,000	7,573,000	19·3	17,63	22,33*
Bombay-Deccan	26,264,000	403,000	1·5	10.38	2,02
Sind	4,336,000	3,716,000	85·7	21,90	6,87
Bengal	28,399,000	73,000	0·3	4,85	27
United Provinces	43,022,000	3,989,000	9·3	25,12	14,43
Punjab	30,265,000	11,485,000	3··0	33,38	2,477
Burma	18,023,000	2,098,000	11·6	6,62	6,35
Bihar and Orissa	29,779,000	890,000	3·0	6,28	6,39
Central Provinces	20,650,000	423,000	2·1	6,63	1,40
North-West Frontier Provinces	2,423,000	405,000	16·7	2,94	1,28
Rajputana	377,000	20,000	5·3	35	5
Baluchistan	457,000	22,000	4·8	36	3
Total ..	243,188,000	31,097,000	12·7	1,36,44	86,19

* Exclusive of the value of crops raised on some 3 million acres irrigated by non-capital works.

New Works.—The major works of exceptional importance are the **Sukkur Barrage** and Canals in Sind, the Cauvery (Mettur) project in Madras, and the Sutlej Valley Canals in the Punjab. The Sukkur Barrage, which was opened by His Excellency the Viceroy early in 1932, is the greatest work of its kind in the world, measuring 4,725 feet between the faces of the regulators on either side. The total cost of the scheme is estimated at Rs. 20 crores which the barrage accounts for about Rs. 6 crores and the canals for Rs. 14 crores. A gross area of 7½ million acres is commanded, of which 6½ million acres is culturable and an annual area of irrigation of 5½ million acres is anticipated, of which 2 million acres represent existing inundation irrigation which will be given an assured supply by the new canals. The ultimate annual net revenue forecasted as obtainable from the project, after paying working expenses, is Rs. 194 lakhs, which represents a return of 10 per cent. on capital. This is the return from water rates alone, but a further large increase in general revenues may safely be reckoned upon from the area of 3 million acres of waste which will be brought under cultivation. There will be increases on this account under practically every head of revenue, such as railways, customs, stamps, excise and the like, not to mention the addition to the country's wealth owing to the production, on land at present barren, of crops to the value of Rs. 2,500 lakhs per annum.

The Sutlej Valley Works consist of four weirs, three on the Sutlej and one on the Panjab, as the Chenab is called below its junction with the Sutlej, with twelve canals taking off from above them. The total area to be irrigated is 5,108,000 acres, or nearly 8,000 square miles. Of this, 2,075,000 acres are perennial and 3,033,000 acres non-perennial irrigation. 1,942,000 acres are in British territory, 2,825,000 acres in Bahawalpur and 341,000 acres in Bikaner.

The total cost of the scheme was estimated at Rs. 1,460 lakhs. Upon this a return of 12¼ per cent. is anticipated from water-rates alone. But the scheme has another, and even more important source of revenue. On the introduction of irrigation, no less than 3¾ million acres of desert waste, the property of the three parties concerned, at present valueless, will become available for colonisation and sale. It is customary, in the *pro-forma* accounts of irrigation projects, to credit a scheme with the interest on the sale proceeds of Crown waste lands rendered culturable by its construction; if this is included, the annual return on the works will amount to nearly 38 per cent. It bids fair, indeed, to rival the Lower Chenab Canal, the return from which was more than 50 per cent. in 1929-30. These anticipations may need modification, however, in view of the fact that a revised estimate for the project amounts to Rs. 2,376 lakhs.

The Cauvery Reservoir project, which will cost nearly 6½ crores of rupees and will extend irrigation to a new area of 301,000 acres, is making satisfactory progress. In Bombay Presidency the Bhandardara Dam, 270 feet in height, was completed at the end of 1925 and the Bhatgar Dam at the end of 1926. The Damodhar River (Canal) project, which will irrigate 180,000 acres of rice lands in the Burdwan and Hooghly Districts of Bengal was commenced during the year 1926-27. Excellent progress has been made with the Sarda-Oudh Canals in the United Provinces and the system was inaugurated by H. E. the Viceroy in the autumn of 1928. This project will irrigate more than a million acres.

A comprehensive irigation programme extending over a period of 14 years is under investigation in the Central Provinces. The possibility of increasing irrigation in the North-West Frontier Province is receiving attention, whilst in Bombay Presidency there is a proposal to increase the supply in Lake Fife either by raising the present dam or by constructing subsidiary storage dams in branch valleys.

WELLS AND TANKS.

So far we have dealt only with the great irrigation schemes. They are essentially exotic, the products of British rule; the real eastern instrument is the well. The most recent figures give thirty per cent. of the irrigated area in India as being under wells. Moreover the well is an extremely efficient instrument of irrigation. When the cultivator has to raise every drop of water which he uses from a varying depth, he is more careful in the use of it; well water exerts at least three times as much duty as canal water. Again, owing to the cost of lifting, it is generally used for high grade crops. It is estimated that well-irrigated lands produce at least one-third more than canal-watered lands. Although the huge areas brought under cultivation by a single canal scheme tend to reduce the disproportion between the two systems, it must be remembered that the spread of canals increases the possibilities of well irrigation by adding, through seepage, to the store of subsoil water and raising the level.

Varieties of Wells.—Wells in India are of every description. They may be just holes in the ground, sunk to subsoil level, used to a year or two and then allowed to fall into decay. These are temporary or kacha wells. Or they may be lined with timber, or with brick or stone. They vary from the kacha well costing a few rupees to the masonry well, which will run into thousands, or in the sandy wastes of Bikanir, where the water level is three hundred feet below the surface, to still more. The means of raising the water vary in equal degree. There is the *picottah*, or weighted lever, raising a bucket at the end of a pivoted pole, just as is done on the banks of the Nile. This is rarely used for lifts beyond fifteen feet. For greater lifts bullock power is invariably used. This is generally harnessed to the *mot*, or leather bag, which is passed over a pulley overhanging the well, then raised by bullocks who walk down a ramp of a length approximating to the depth of the well. Sometimes the *mot* is just a leather bag, more often it is a self-acting arrangement, which discharges the water into a sump automatically on reaching the surface. By this means from thirty to forty gallons of water are raised at a time, and in its simplicity, and the ease with which the apparatus can be constructed and repaired by village labour, the *mot* is unsurpassed in efficiency. There is also the Persian wheel, an endless chain of earthenware pots running round a wheel. Recently attempts have been made, particularly in Madras, to substitute mechanical power, furnished by oil engines, for the bullock. This has been found economical where the water supply is sufficiently large, especially where two or three wells can be linked. Government have systematically encouraged well irrigation by advancing funds for the purpose and exempting well watered lands from extra assessment due to improvement. These advances, termed *takavi*, are freely made to approved applicants, the general rate of interest being 6¼ per cent. In Madras and Bombay ryots who construct wells, or other works of agricultural improvement, are exempt from enhanced assessment on that account. In other provinces the exemption lasts for specific periods, the term generally being long enough to recoup the owner the capital sunk.

Tanks.—Next to the well, the indigenous instrument of irrigation is the tank. The village or the roadside tank is one of the most conspicuous features in the Indian scene. The Indian tank may be any size. It may vary from a great work like Lakes Fife and Whiting in the Bombay Presidency or the Periyar Lake in Travancore, holding up from four to seven billion cubic feet of water, and spreading their waters through great chains of canal, to the little village tank irrigating ten acres. They date back to a very early stage in Indian civilisation. Some of these works in Madras are of great size, holding from three to four billion cubic feet, with water spreads of nine miles. The inscriptions of two large tanks in the Chingleput district of Madras, which still irrigate from two to four thousand acres are said to be over 1,100 years old. Tank irrigation is practically unknown in the Punjab and in Sind, but it is found in some form or other in all other provinces, including Burma, and finds its highest development in Madras. In the ryotwari tracts of Bombay and Madras all but the smallest tanks are controlled by Government. In the zemindari tracts only the large tanks are State works. According to the latest figures the area irrigated from tanks is about eight million acres, but in many cases the supply is extremely precarious. So far from tanks being a refuge in famine they are often quite useless inasmuch as the rainfall does not suffice to fill them and they remain dry throughout the season.

Bibliography.—Annual Review of Irrigation in India, 1930-1931, Delhi, Manager, Government of India Publications. Price Rs. 1-2-0. Also Annual Review of Irrigation in India 1930-31, Delhi, Manager of Publications. Price Rs. 1-2-0. The annual irrigation reports in India used to be as arid as the Sahara, consisting of a dull statistical record. They have been greatly improved of recent years and have now assumed a quite satisfactory form. The major review appears once every three years. The first of these triennial reviews was issued in 1922. Between the triennial reviews there is issued a briefer statement recording the progress of each particular year.

Meteorology.

The meteorology of India like that of other countries is largely a result of its geographical position. The great land area of Asia to the northward and the enormous sea expanse of the Indian Ocean to the southward are determining factors in settling its principal meteorological features. When the Northern Hemisphere is turned away from the sun, in the northern winter, Central Asia becomes an area of intense cold. The meteorological conditions of the temperate zone are pushed southward and we have over the northern provinces of India the westerly winds and eastward moving cyclonic storms of temperate regions, while, when the Northern Hemisphere is turned towards the sun, Southern Asia becomes a super-heated region drawing towards it an immense current of air which carries with it the enormous volume of water vapour which it has picked up in the course of its long passage over the wide expanse of the Indian Ocean, so that at one season of the year parts of India are deluged with rain and at another persistent dry weather prevails.

Monsoons.—The all-important fact in the meteorology of India is the alternation of the seasons known as the summer and winter monsoons. During the winter monsoon the winds are of continental origin and hence, dry, fine weather, clear skies, low humidity and little air movement are the characteristic features of this season. The summer rains cease in the provinces of the North-West Frontier Province and the Punjab about the middle of September after which cool westerly and northerly winds set in over that area and the weather becomes fresh and pleasant. These fine weather conditions extend slowly eastward and southward so that by the middle of October, they embrace all parts of the country except the southern half of the Peninsula, and by the end of the year have extended to the whole of the Indian land and sea area, the rains withdrawing to the Equatorial Belt. Thus the characteristics of the cold weather from October to February over India are:—Westerly winds of the temperate zone over the extreme north of India; to the south of these the north-east winds of the winter monsoon or perhaps more properly the north-east Trades and a gradually extending area of fine weather which, as the season progresses, finally embraces the whole Indian land and sea area. Two exceptions to these fine weather conditions exist during this period, *viz.*; the Madras coast and the north-west of India. In the former region the north-east winds which set in over the Bay of Bengal in October coalesce with the damp winds of the retreating summer monsoon, which current curves round over the Bay of Bengal, and blowing directly on to the Madras coast gives to that region the wettest and most disturbed weather of the whole year, for while the total rainfall for the four months June to September, *i.e.*, the summer monsoon, at the Madras Observatory amounts to 15·36 inches the total rainfall for the three months October to December amounts to 29·48 inches. The other region in which the weather is unsettled, during this period of generally settled conditions, is North-west India. This region during January, February and part of March is traversed by a succession of shallow storms from the westward. The number and character of these storms vary very largely from year to year and in some years no storms at all are recorded. In normal years, however, in Northern India periods of fine weather alternate with periods of disturbed weather (occurring during the passage of these storms) and light to moderate and even heavy rain occurs. In the case of Peshawar the total rainfall for the four months, December to March, amounts to 5·26 inches while the total fall for the four months, June to September, is 4·78 inches, showing that the rainfall of the winter is, absolutely, greater in this region than that of the summer monsoon. These two periods of subsidiary "rains" are of the greatest economic importance. The fall in Madras is, as shown above, of considerable actual amount, while that of North-west India though small in absolute amount is of the greatest consequence as on it largely depend the grain and wheat crops of Northern India.

Spring Months.—March to May and part of June form a period of rapid continuous increase of temperature and decrease of barometric pressure throughout India. During this period there occurs a steady transference northward of the area of greatest heat. In March the maximum temperatures, slightly exceeding 100° occur in the Deccan; in April the area of maximum temperature, between 100° and 105°, lies over the south of the Central Provinces and Gujarat; in May maximum temperatures, varying between 105° and 110°, prevail over the greater part of the interior of the country while in June the highest mean maximum temperatures exceeding 110° occur in the Indus Valley near Jacobabad. Temperatures exceeding 120° have been recorded over a wide area including Sind, Rajputana, the West and South Punjab and the west of the United Provinces, but the highest temperature hitherto recorded is 126° registered at Jacobabad on June 12th, 1897. During this period of rising temperature and diminishing barometric pressure, great alterations take place in the air movements over India, including the disappearance of the north-east winds of the winter monsoon, and the air circulation over India and its adjacent seas, becomes a local circulation, characterised by strong hot winds down the river valleys of Northern India and increasing land and sea winds in the coast regions. These land and sea winds, as they become stronger and more extensive, initiate large contrasts of temperature and humidity which result in the production of violent local storms. These take the forms of dust storms in the dry plains of Northern India and of thunder and hailstorms in regions where there

is inter-action between damp sea winds and dry winds from the interior. These storms are frequently accompanied with winds of excessive force, heavy hail and torrential rain and are on that account very destructive.

By the time the area of greatest heat has been established over North-west India, in the last week of May or first of June, India has become the seat of low barometric pressures relatively to the adjacent seas and the whole character of the weather changes. During the hot weather period, discussed above, the winds and weather are mainly determined by local conditions. Between the Equator and Lat. 30° or 35° south the wind circulation is that of the south-east trades, that is to say from about Lat. 30°-35° south a wind from south-east blows over the surface of the sea up to about the equator. Here the air rises into the upper strata to flow back again at a considerable elevation to the Southern Tropic or beyond. To the north of this circulation, *i.e.*, between the Equator and Lat. 20° to 25° North, there exists a light unsteady circulation, the remains of the north-east trades, that is to say about Lat. 20° North there is a north-east wind which blows southward till it reaches the thermal equator where side by side with the south-east Trades mentioned above, the air rises into the upper strata of the atmosphere still further to the northward and in the immediate neighbourhood of land there are the circulations due to the land and sea breezes which are attributable to the difference in the heating effect of the sun's rays over land and sea. It is now necessary to trace the changes which occur and lead up to the establishment of the south-west monsoon period. The sun at this time is progressing slowly northward towards the northern Tropic. Hence the thermal equator is also progressing northward and with it the area of ascent of the south-east trades circulation. Thus the south-east trade winds cross the equator and advance further and further northward, as the thermal equator and area of ascent follows the sun in its northern progress. At the same time the temperature over India increases rapidly and barometric pressure diminishes, owing to the air rising and being transferred to neighbouring cooler regions—more especially the sea areas. Thus we have the southern Trades circulation extending northward and the local land and sea circulation extending southward until about the beginning of June the light unsteady interfering circulation over the Arabian Sea finally breaks up, the immense circulation of the south-east Trades, with its cool, moisture laden winds rushes forward, becomes linked on to the local circulation proceeding between the Indian land area and the adjacent seas and India is invaded by oceanic conditions—the **south-west monsoon** proper. This is the most important season of the year as upon it depends the prosperity of at least five-sixths of the people of India.

When this current is fully established a continuous air movement extends over the Indian Ocean, the Indian seas and the Indian land area from Lat. 30° S. to Lat. 30° N. the southern half being the south-east trades and the northern half the south-west monsoon. The most important fact about it is that it is a continuous horizontal air movement passing over an extensive oceanic area where steady evaporation is constantly in progress so that where the current enters the Indian seas and flows over the Indian land it is highly charged with aqueous vapours.

The current enters the Indian seas quite at the commencement of June and in the course of the succeeding two weeks spreads over the Arabian Sea and Bay of Bengal up to their extreme northern limits. It advances over India from these two seas. The Arabian Sea current blows on to the west coast and sweeping over the Western Ghats prevails more or less exclusively over the Peninsula, Central India, Rajputana and north Bombay. The Bay of Bengal current blows directly up the Bay. One portion is directed towards Burma, East Bengal and Assam while another portion curves to south at the head of the Bay and over Bengal, and then meeting with the barrier of the Himalayas curves still further and blows as a south-easterly and easterly wind right up the Gangetic plain. The south-west monsoon continues for three and a half to four months, *viz.*, from the beginning of June to the middle or end of September. During its prevalence more or less general though far from continuous rain prevails throughout India, the principal features of the rainfall distribution being as follows. The greater portion of the Arabian Sea current, the total volume of which is probably three times as great as that of the Bengal current, blows directly on to the west coast districts. Here it meets an almost continuous hill range, is forced into ascent and gives heavy rain alike to the coast districts and to the hilly range, the total averaging about 100 inches most of which falls in four months. The current after parting with most of its moisture advances across the Peninsula giving occasional uncertain rain to the Deccan and passes out into the Bay where it coalesces with the local current. The northern portion of the current blowing across the Gujarat, Kathiawar and Sind coasts gives a certain amount of rain to the coast districts and frequent showers to the Aravalli Hill range but very little to Western Rajputana, and passing onward gives moderate to heavy rain in the Eastern Punjab, Eastern Rajputana and the North-west Himalayas. In this region the current meets and mixes with the monsoon current from the Bay.

The monsoon current over the southern half of the Bay of Bengal blows from south west and is thus directed towards the Tenasserim hills and up the valley of the Irrawady to which it gives very heavy to heavy rain. That portion of this current which advances sufficiently far northward to blow over Bengal and Assam gives very heavy rain to the low-lying districts of East Bengal and immediately thereafter coming under the influence of the Assam Hills is forced upwards and gives excessive rain (perhaps the heaviest in the world) to the southern face of these hills. The remaining portion of the Bay current advances from the southward over Bengal, is then deflected westward by the barrier of the Hi-

malayas and gives general rain over the Gangetic plain and almost daily rain over the lower ranges of the Himalayas from Sikhim to Kashmir.

To the south of this easterly wind of the Bay current and to the north of the westerly wind of the Arabian Sea current there exists a debatable area running roughly from Hissar in the Punjab through Agra, Allahabad and part of Chota Nagpur to Orissa, where neither current of the monsoon prevails. In this area the rainfall is uncertain and would probably be light, but that the storms from the Bay of Bengal exhibit a marked tendency to advance along this track and to give it heavy falls of occasional rain.

The Total rainfall of the monsoon period (June to September) is 100 inches over part of the west coast, the amount diminishes eastward, is below 20 inches over a large part of the centre and east of the Peninsula and is only 5 inches in South Madras; it is over 100 inches on the Tenasserim and South Burma coast and decreases to 20 inches in Upper Burma: it is over 100 in the north Assam Valley and diminishes steadily westward and is only 5 inches in the Indus Valley.

The month to month distribution for the whole of India is:—

May	..	2·6 inches.
June	..	8·3 "
July	..	11·9 "
August	..	10·5 "
September	..	7·2 "
October	..	3·2 "

Cyclonic storms and cyclones are an almost invariable feature of the monsoon period. In the Arabian Sea they ordinarily form at the commencement and end of the season, *viz.*, May and November, but in the Bay they form a constantly recurring feature of the monsoon season. The following gives the total number of storms recorded during the period 1877 to 1901 and shows the monthly distribution:—

	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apl.	May	June
Bay of Bengal	..	..	1	4	13	28
	July	Aug.	Sep.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.
Bay of Bengal	41	36	45	34	22	8
	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apl.	May	June
Arabian San	..	..	..	2	15	..
	July	Aug.	Sep.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.
Arabian Sea	2	..	1	1	5	..

The preceding paragraphs give an account of the normal procession of the seasons throughout India during the year, but it must be remembered, that every year produces **variations from the normal**, and that in some years these variations are very large. This is more particularly the case with the discontinuous element rainfall. The most important variations in this element which may occur are:—

(1) Delay in the commencement of the rains over a large part of the country, this being most frequent in North Bombay and North-west India.

(2) A prolonged break in July or August or both.

(3) Early termination of the rains, which may occur in any part of the country.

(4) The determination throughout the monsoon period of more rain than usual to one part and less than usual to another part of the country. Examples of this occur every year.

About the middle of September fine and fresh weather begins to appear in the extreme north-west of India. This area of fine weather and dry winds extends eastward and southward, the area of rainy weather at the same time contracting till by the end of October the rainy area has retreated to Madras and the south of the Peninsula and by the end of December has disappeared from the Indian region; fine clear weather prevailing throughout. This procession with the numerous variations and modifications which are inseparable from meteorological conditions repeats itself year after year.

(*For monsoon of* 1933, *see page* 327).

INDIA METEOROLOGICAL DEPARTMENT.

Functions of the Department.—The India Meteorological Department was instituted in 1875 to combine and extend the work of various provincial meteorological services which had sprung up before that date. The various duties which were imposed on the Department at the time of its formation were from time to time supplemented by new duties. The main existing functions, more or less in the historical order in which they were assumed, may be briefly summarised as follows :—

(*a*) The issue of warnings to ports and coastal districts of the approach of cyclonic storms.

(*b*) The issue of storm warnings by wireless to ships in the Indian seas, and the making of arrangements for the collection of meteorological data from ships.

(*c*) The maintenance of systematic records of meteorological data and the publication of climatological statistics. These were originally undertaken in order to furnish data for the investigation of the relation between weather and disease.

(*d*) The issue to the public of up-to-date weather reports and of rainfall forecasts. These duties were originally recommended by a Committee of Enquiry into the causes of famine in India.

(*e*) Meteorological researches of a general character, but particularly regarding tropical storms and the forecasting of monsoon and winter rainfall.

(*f*) The issue of seasonal rainfall forecasts.

(*g*) The issue of telegraphic warnings of heavy rainfall by special telegrams to district officers on departmental warning lists (*e.g.*, canal and railway engineers), and by means of the ordinary daily weather telegram to the public in general.

(*h*) Supply of meteorological, astronomical and geophysical information in response to enquiries from officials, commercial firms or private individuals.

(*i*) Technical supervision of rainfall registration carried out under the control of provincial Government authorities.

(*j*) The study of temperature and moisture conditions in the upper air by means of instrument-carrying balloons and of upper winds by pilot balloons.

(*k*) The issue of weather reports and warnings to aircraft, civil and military, the latter being in collaboration with the Royal Air Force.

(*l*) Study of meteorology in relation to agriculture, a subject on which the Royal Commission on Agriculture in India made recommendations.

In addition to these meteorological duties the India Meteorological Department was from time to time made responsible for or undertook various other important duties, such as—

(*m*) Determination of time in India and the issue of time-signals, also the determination of errors of chronometers for the Royal Indian Marine and the Royal Navy.

(*n*) Observations and researches on terrestrial magnetism at Bombay and atmospheric electricity at Bombay and Poona.

(*o*) Regular study (mainly by spectroscopic examination) of the sun at the Solar Physics Observatory at Kodaikanal.

(*p*) Maintenance of seismological instruments at various centres.

Definitions of different types and classes of Observatories.—Before proceeding to indicate the organisation of the Meteorological Department, it may be helpful to introduce here the following definitions :—

Forecast Centre at which weather observations are collected by telegrams from a number of stations in order to form the basis of weather reports and forecasts issued therefrom. These may be (*a*) Main Centres, serving a large area for general purposes, or (*b*) Regional Centres serving more limited areas for special purposes.

Upper Air Observatory undertaking observations of upper winds, and of upper air temperatures, humidities and pressures up to heights of about 15-20 miles by means of sounding balloons (*i.e.*, balloons with self-recording instruments attached).

Air Observatory to which Royal Air Force supply aeroplane data of temperatures and humidities up to heights of 2 or 3 miles.

Pilot Balloon Observatory at which pilot balloons (*i.e.*, balloons without attached instruments) are released and observed through special theodolites for the determination of wind directions and velocities at various heights in the free atmosphere. The minimum staff is two full-time observers for one balloon flight per day and 3 full-time observers and a balloon maker for two balloon flights per day.

A meteorological or **weather observatory** for the observations of such elements as can be recorded by an observer with the help of instruments on the ground (as distinct from upper air observations obtained by means of balloons, etc.). Observatories where the staff is provided and paid for by other agencies, *e.g.*, Indian States, are called non-departmental although instruments are supplied by the Meteorological Department. These surface observatories are classified according to the number of observations per day and the number and kind of instruments to be read. Thus :

First class weather observatory which is furnished with autographic instruments for continuously recording pressure, temperature, humidity, wind direction and velocity, and rainfall, in addition to instruments read by eye. It may also undertake special observations (*e.g.*, on atmospheric electricity). The staff required varies from two part-time observers to about four full-time observers according to the amount of special work and of computation and tabulation of data.

Second class weather observatory at which observations are taken twice daily and usually telegraphed to one or more forecast centres. The existing standard times of observation in India are 8 hrs. (Local Time) and 17 hrs. (Indian Standard Time), the observations being made by a part-time observer on Rs. 25 per mensem. At certain second class observatoreis, practically all of which are non-departmental, observations are recorded twice daily, at 10 and 16 hrs. (Local Time) but not telegraphed.

Third class weather observatory where readings are taken daily at 8 hrs. and sent by telegram daily or by post at the end of each month to one or more forecast centres. At each observatory of this type there is one part-time observer on Rs. 15 a month.

Fourth class weather observatory at which observations (*a*) of temperature, wind and rainfall only or (*b*) of temperature and rainfall only are recorded. The staff of a 4th class observatory is one part-time observer on pay not exceeding Rs. 12 a month.

Fifth class weather observatory at which a part-time observer on Rs. 5 p.m. records and telegraphs rainfall only.

Magnetic Observatory equipped with instruments for continuously recording the principal magnetic elements.

Seismological station equipped with one or more continuously recording seismographs.

Time Observatory equipped with instruments for the determination of time from observations of sun and stars and from European wireless time signals.

Solar Physics Observatory equipped with photo-heliograph, spectro-heliograph, etc.

Auxiliary centre where a Professional or Meteorological Assistant receives copies of weather reports from the forecasting centres for transmission to pilots.

Organisation.—It is necessary to note that practical meteorology implies a meteorological organisation, not merely individual meteorologists relying upon their own personal and purely local observations. The making of a single forecast in any of the larger meteorological offices of the world requires the organised co-operation of some hundreds of persons. In India some 340 observers co-operate daily to take simultaneous observations at about 250 separate places and hand in their reports to telegraphists, who transmit them to forecast centres, where, for rapid assimilation, clerks decode them and chart them on maps; meteorological experts then draw therefrom the conclusions on which their forecasts are based. There are other observatories, which take observations for climatological purposes, but do not telegraph them. An efficient system of telegraphic communication of weather reports is an essential feature in all meteorological organisations. This is recognised in the International Telecommunication Convention.

As aviation has been and still is making increasing demands on meteorologists in India, it is easier to understand the constitution and needs of the department if we first consider the organisation unconnected with the development of aviation. This organisation consisted of a central office, 5 principal sub-offices, 23 pilot balloon observatories and 270* weather observatories principally of the third class distributed over a region stretching from Persia, Aden and Zanzibar on the west to Burma on the east. Of the six principal sub-offices, the one at Madras was closed down in 1932 as a measure of retrenchment. A brief summary of the present functions of the five remaining offices, apart from their duties on behalf of aviation, is given below:—

(*a*) **Headquarters Office, Poona (F. U. W.)**—The general administration of the department is carried on by the Headquarters Office in Poona. In addition, it is in immediate and complete charge of all second, third, fourth and fifth class weather observatories in Kashmir, Gujarat, Central India, the Central Provinces and the Peninsula and is responsible for the scrutiny of records and checking and computation of data received from them. It receives telegraphic reports of morning observations collected at practically all pilot balloon and first, second, third and fifth class observatories in India and issues daily a telegraphic summary of general weather conditions with forecasts of probable changes in weather during the next 24 hours for the whole country. It prepares and publishes the Daily, Weekly and Monthly Weather Reports, and an Annual Volume entitled the "India Weather Review"; and issues two annual volumes containing rainfall data of about 3,000 stations in India. In collaboration with the Agra Observatory, it also publishes an annual volume containing all upper air data collected in India. It undertakes the issue of heavy rainfall warnings for practically the whole country except north-east India, and the issue of warnings for storms in the Arabian Sea. It is responsible for the preparation of normals of rainfall, temperature, humidity, etc., for all observatories in India. It collects and examines weather logs from ships in the Arabian Sea. It supplies all weather observatories with instruments and stores from the stock, which it maintains. It is also

* The actual numbers were 10 first class, 2 second class, 200 third class and 29 each fourth and fifth class.

responsible for the design, specification, test and repair of all meteorological instruments. On its transfer from Simla to Poona, the Headquarters Office was equipped as an upper air observatory and a first class weather observatory and has also been designed to provide facilities for research in theoretical and practical meteorology. Publications of meteorological research in the Department are edited and issued from Poona.

A branch for agricultural meteorology was started a year and a half ago; it has been sanctioned for a period of three years and is financed by the Imperial Council of Agricultural Research. The work of this new branch can be classed under two heads: (*a*) statistical and (*b*) experimental. The programme of statistical investigation includes a critical enquiry into the available data on the area and yield of crops for the various presidencies and districts in India, after careful selection, the correlation of some of them with the accumulated meteorological data. On the experimental side, the scheme aims to study micro-climatology, evolve suitable instruments for such work, standardize methods of observations and in general undertake a detailed study of the air layer near the ground.

(b) Meteorological Office and Observatory, Alipore, Calcutta (F. P. W1, S.T.).—The Alipore Office serves as a regional forecast centre and is responsible for the publication of the Calcutta Daily Weather Report for north-east India, for storm-warning in the Bay of Bengal and heavy rainfall warning in north-east India. It has charge of all second, third, fourth and fifth class observatories in the area comprising Burma and the Bay Islands, Assam, Bengal, Bihar and Orissa and the east United Provinces, including the checking and computation of data therefrom. It also supplies time signals by time ball to Fort William, by wireless to shipping at sea and by telegraphic signal throughout the Indian telegraph and railway systems. It is also a first class weather observatory, pilot balloon observatory and seismological station.

(c) Upper Air Observatory, Agra (U. W1. S.).—Agra Observatory is the headquarters of all pilot balloon work in India. It is responsible for the maintenance and supervision of the work of the pilot balloon observatories in India, Burma and the Persian Gulf and supplies them with the equipment necessary to carry on their daily observations; these duties have necessitated the provision of a hydrogen factory to make hydrogen gas and compress it into tubes, as well as the provision of a workshop for the repair and manufacture of upper air and other instruments. All data from pilot balloon observatories are collected, checked and statistically summarised at Agra. This observatory is also the principal centre of upper air research work in India. The sounding balloon work there (in the course of which balloons have provided information of conditions up to as great a height as 90,000 feet) has been responsible for most of our present knowledge regarding the free atmosphere over India. There is a seismological station attached to this observatory.

(d) Colaba and Alibag Observatories (W1. S.T.M.).—These observatories specialise in the study of geophysics, particularly terrestrial magnetism and seismology, and in addition carry on the duties of a first class weather observatory. The routine magnetic work at Alibag, as well as the publication of the magnetic data, is arranged in accordance with the recommendations of the International Commission for Terrestrial Magnetism. The observatories take star or sun observations for the determination of time; and the Colaba Observatory is responsible for the time-ball service at the Bombay Harbour and the rating of chronometers belonging to the Royal Indian Marine and Royal Navy. In recent years researches on atmospheric electricity and microseisms in relation to major weather phenomena over the sea have also been undertaken there.

(e) Kodaikanal (Sp. W1. S.).—The observatory at Kodaikanal specialises in the study of the physics of the sun, and is specially equipped for spectroscopic observations and research. The routine work is decided in accordance with recommendations of the International Astronomical Union which prevent any serious overlapping of work in the comparatively few solar physics observatories in the world. This observatory also undertakes the duties of a first class weather observatory and a seismological station.

Special Organisation to meet the needs of Aviation.—The above represents the activities and organisation of the Department unconnected with aviation in India. With the development of civil and military aviation and rather rapid expansion of their activities in recent years fresh duties of a different character devolved upon the Department and necessitated a more or less complete overhaul of the pre-existing arrangements. Aviators require detailed information about the weather; they wish to know winds at different levels, have information about visibility, fogs, dust-storms, thunderstorms, height of low clouds, etc., along with forecasts of changes in these elements. Many of these are local, short-lived and rapidly changing phenomena.

Definite recommendations regarding the nature of information to be supplied to aircraft, the exhibition of current weather information at aerodromes and the meteorological organisation of international airways have been embodied in Annexe G of the International Convention of Air Navigation. In accordance with these recommendations, expert meteorologists should be stationed at aerodromes at reasonable intervals along the airway to supply to the aviation personnel current information and forecasts of weather conditions along the routes up to the next aerodrome of the same class. Forecast centres should be established at least at each main aerodrome along aerial routes and forecasts prepared at such centres should be transmitted to the other aerodromes for the information of pilots. Other recommendations refer to hours and kind of observations and manner of codifying them.

In Europe practically all observatories record and telegraph readings at least thrice daily, whiles tations near air routes do so every three hours. In the United States of America readings are made at least twice daily at all observa-

tories, every three hours at most observatories near air routes and every hour at observatories along air routes. In addition, every aerodrome receives by telewriter frequent regular reports from certain stations along the air routes, a few of these at half-hourly and most at hourly intervals in order that the aviators may be supplied with current up-to-date information of actual weather on the air route itself. The network of observatories in Europe and America is closer than the existing network in India.

A consideration of the meteorological needs of the Indian air-routes, in conjunction with the International recommendations and the meteorological practices of other countries, showed that at each observatory in India fuller and more frequent observations should be taken and be made available to aviators in internationally approved codes, and that the number of observatories and of forecasting centres should be increased. Between 1927 and 1930 forecasting centres were opened at Karachi, Delhi and, Rangoon, which, along with that at Calcutta provided a meteorological service for the international air-route across northern India, and it was the function of these offices gradually to organise a service that would provide the minimum recommended in Annexe G of the International Air Convention. The preparation of two weather charts per day was arranged at these forecast centres and steps were taken to raise to 2nd class status most of the existing weather observatories reporting to them and to create some new observatories*. Further, on account of the fuller observations required, new instructions for observers were drawn up, new registers for the recording of observations and new telegraphic codes more in conformity with international agreement and suited to the changed method of recording observations were prepared. These were introduced at practically all the observatories in India and Burma and also at stations along the Persian Gulf and Mekran coasts. It is regretted that, as a result of the general need for retrenchment the Meteorological Offices at Delhi and Rangoon. had to be closed with effect from the 1st January 1932 and that the meteorological service is, therefore, not able to attain the standard recommended in Annexe G of the International Convention even along the main northern air-route. The sole forecast centre in southern India is at Poona, where facilities are available for the issue of only one forecast daily.

With the opening of a chain of new wireless stations along the air route, a system of exchange of current weather reports at specified hours between stations on the route was introduced, with the co-operation of the Director of Wireless and the Director of Civil Aviation, enabling each wireless station to have in a collected form the information regarding actual weather at neighbouring stations on the air-route, for supply to fliers. Stations taking part in the scheme are Karachi, Jodhpur, Delhi, Allahabad, Calcutta, Chittagong, Akyab, Sandoway, Bassein and Victoria Point. Apart from routine observations at stated times, it is possible for fliers to obtain information of current local weather at any time by wireless, by special requisition.

For the Karachi-Madras service, arrangements exist for communicating current weather information to aerodromes from a few observatories on the route to supplement the information available in the reports supllied by the forecasting centres.

The Meteorological Department is also helping private flying in the country by undertaking to provide facilities at the several departmental centres for the training and examination of candidates for pilot's licenses who have to attain a certain amount of proficiency in meteorology as a part of their course.

The centres which supply forecasts for aviators are those at Quetta, Peshawar, Karachi, Calcutta and Poona, whose functions in this respect are indicated below†.

(*a*) **Quetta and Peshawar (F. W1. P. A.).**—Aviation on a regular basis was first started in this country by the Royal Air Force in north-west India, and the need to arrange for local forecasting was first experienced there. Two forecasts centres were accordingly started about seven years ago at Quetta and Peshawar, each under an R. A. F. Meteorologist who was entrusted with the charge of issuing forecasts of weather over the Lahore-Peshawar-Quetta-Karachi air routes for R. A. F. aeroplanes and detailed local forecasts and warnings each for his own immediate neighbourhood. The Meteorological Department has been supplying instruments for the use of the R. A. F. Meteorologists, meeting the cost of the staff of clerks and observers at each centre and supplying data by telegram from its observatories. An officer of the Indian Meteorological Service is now temporarily holding the post of the R. A. F. Meteorologist at Quetta.

(*b*) **Karachi (F. W1. P. A.).**—A forecast centre was established six years ago at Karachi, its initial function being the issue of weather reports and forecasts for the flying sector Karachi to Chahbar. Later, on the request of the Air Ministry, its area of responsibility extended up the Persian Gulf to Bushire on the west, and, when regular flying began in India, to Jodhpur on the east. The closure of Delhi Meteorological Office extended the Karachi Office's area as far eastwards as Allahabad. On the newly started Karachi-Madras air route it is responsible for the supply of weather reports and forecasts for the section between Karachi and Ahmedabad.

The forecasting office is temporarily located in Karachi Cantonment and will be transferred to Drigh Road Civil Aerodrome when buildings

* In connection with the Bushire to Rangoon aviation schemes 10 new pilot balloon observatories, 36 new weather observatories and a change in the status of more than half the existing 3rd class observatories were sanctioned bringing the total number of observatories, to 13 first, 175 second, 67 third, 29 fourth and 22 fifth class observatories.

† Fuller details of the aviation organisation are contained in the departmental pamphlet entitled "Meteorological Organisation in India for the supply of weather information to aviators."

are provided there. Meanwhile, a first class weather observatory and pilot balloon station have been started at Drigh Road.

The Karachi Office administers all second, third, fourth and fifth class observatories in Persia* and Arabia, Baluchistan, the North-West Frontier Province, the Punjab, Sind, Rajputana and the west United Provinces. As the basis of the weather reports and forecasts issued to aviators, it prepares two weather charts daily, drawn up mainly from observations received from the observatories under its own control. A daily weather report is also being published, as an experimental measure.

(*c*) **Calcutta.**—On the opening of the main trans-India air-route, Calcutta was made responsible for weather reports and forecasts to aviators between Gaya and Akyab. On the closure of the Meteorological Offices at Delhi and Rangoon, the region of responsibility was extended to Allahabad on the west and to Victoria Point on the south-east. An afternoon weather chart was added to meet the needs of aviation, and the area of the long-established morning chart has been extended with each extension of the area of responsibility.

(*d*) **Poona.**—The new forecasting centres the increased status of most weather observatories and generally increased activities of the Department have added considerably to the administrative and executive responsibility of the headquarters office at Poona. This office is responsible for the issue of weather reports to aviators on routes in central and southern India. In connection with the newly opened Karachi-Madras air service, this office will be responsible for the issue of weather reports for the major section, *viz.*, Ahmedabad to Madras. On certain occasions early morning observations of cloud heights made at Bombay are received and notified, by visual signal on the roof of the office building, to the passing air mail on its flight from Bellary to Bombay.

The auxiliary centres (C) are situated at RANGOON, AKYAB, DUM DUM†, ALLAHABAD and JODHPUR. The Professional or Meteorological Assistant stationed at these centres is authorised to add to the weather report received from the forecasting centres his own conclusions about the LOCAL weather situation. The latest information available regarding the local surface conditions and upper winds can also be obtained from him.

Possible developments, as financial conditions permit.—Some of the main lines, along which developments are to be desired as soon as financial conditions allow, are indicated briefly below :—

(*a*) The extension of the current weather report scheme on the wireless chain along the Trans-India air-route, by including immediate reports of adverse weather, transmission of upper wind information, and transmission twice daily at regular times of weather forecasts for each part of the air-route.

(*b*) The institution of a second daily weather Chart at Poona and additional facilities at Madras and some of the intermediate stations along the Karachi-Madras route.

(*c*) The improvement of the skeleton weather services along all air-routes, up to the standards recommended by the International Air Convention.

(*d*) Exchange of synoptic weather data by wireless with neighbouring countries—Siam, Malaya, Indo-China, etc.

(*e*) Broadcasting of a "continental" bulletin of synoptic weather data for the region, Persia to Indo-China, to help towards completion of the series of "continental" weather broadcasting stations at Annapolis (U.S.A.), Rugby, Moscow, etc., in the northern hemisphere.

(*f*) Further development of marine meteorology, in accordance with the recommendations of the International Convention on the Safety of Life at Sea.

(*g*) Development of upper air research in South India, which was one of the reasons for the transfer of the headquarters Office from Simla to Poona.

(*h*) Improvement of staff conditions in the workshop attached to the Poona Headquarters Office.

* Surface observations at Persian stations are taken at 4 and 14 hours. Greenwich Mean Time. (Add 5½ hours to convert to Indian Standard Time.)

† At present the functions of this centre are being carried on by the Meteorological Office at Calcutta, for want of proper building accommodation at Dum Dum.

Average Monthly and Annual Mean of Air Temperature at Selected Stations in India.

Stations.	Elevation in feet.	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May.	June.	July.	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Annual Mean.
Hill Stations.		°	°	°	°	°	°	°	°	°	°	°	°	°
*Shillong	4,920	49.5	51.8	60.4	65.2	66.6	68.8	70.0	69.2	68.4	63.1	56.5	50.7	61.7
Darjeeling	7,376	40.1	41.6	49.7	56.2	58.3	59.9	61.5	60.9	59.4	55.2	47.8	41.8	52.7
Simla	7,224	38.8	40.6	51.5	59.3	66.0	66.9	64.3	62.8	60.9	56.7	50.1	43.4	55.1
Murree	6,333	40.5	41.1	51.1	61.2	68.3	72.3	69.4	67.2	65.9	61.3	52.8	45.0	58.0
Srinagar	5,204	30.7	33 0	45.1	55.7	63.9	69.9	73.0	70.8	64.0	53.2	44.0	36.3	53.3
Mount Abu	3,945	58.2	61.0	69.9	78.0	79.8	74.9	69.8	67.6	69.6	71.6	65.2	59.9	68.8
*Ootacamund	7,227	54.0	55.5	58.6	61.5	61.3	58.2	56.9	57.4	57.3	57.2	55.4	54.3	57.3
*Kodaikanal	7,688	55.0	56.7	59.6	61.5	61.9	59.4	57.6	57.8	57.6	56.9	54.9	55.0	57.8
Coast Stations.														
Karachi	49	65.3	68.4	75.0	80.6	84.7	86.8	84.3	82.4	82.0	80.0	74.0	67.4	77.6
Veraval	18	69.4	70.2	74.0	79.1	81.5	82.5	80.0	79.1	79.0	79.5	77.2	72.3	77.0
Bombay	37	74.5	74.8	78.0	82.1	84.6	82.4	79.5	79.4	79.4	80.7	79.3	76.4	79.3
Ratnagiri	110	76.2	76.0	78.5	82.8	84.3	80.7	78.3	78.4	78.2	79.8	79.5	77.6	79.2
Mangalore	65	78.2	79.3	81.1	83.9	83.5	78.8	77.1	77.3	77.6	78.9	79.8	79.0	79.6
Calicut	27	77.8	79.8	81.6	83.6	83.1	78.5	76.7	77.4	78.3	79.1	79.5	78.3	75.9
Negapatam	31	75.5	77.4	80.5	84.8	87.7	87.0	85.6	84.4	83.4	80.9	78.3	76.0	81.8
Madras	22	75.3	76.6	79.5	84.1	88.7	88.4	85.7	84.5	83.9	80.8	77.9	75.7	81.8
Masulipatam	15	73.6	76.7	80.3	85.2	89.8	87.8	83.9	83.4	83.0	81.2	77.4	74.0	81.4
Gopalpur	21	70.0	74.8	78.3	81.6	84.1	83.7	81.8	82.0	82.2	79.6	74.3	69.8	78.6
Rangoon	57	74.7	77.3	81.2	85.0	82.2	79.5	78.8	78.7	79.1	80.0	78.3	75.6	79.2

* As the average mean figures for Shillong, Ootacamund and Kodaikanal are not available, means of normal maximum and minimum temperatures uncorrected for diurnal variation are given.

Average Monthly and Annual Means of Air Temperature at Selected Stations in India.

Stations.	Elevation in feet.	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May.	June.	July.	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Annual Mean.
Stations on the Plains.		°	°	°	°	°	°	°	°	°	°	°	°	°
Toungoo	183	70.0	74.7	81.9	86.7	85.3	81.3	80.1	80.1	81.3	81.4	77.4	71.6	79.3
Mandalay	250	68.8	73.8	82.1	89.2	88.5	85.4	85.2	84.7	83.5	82.5	75.9	69.5	80.8
Silchar	104	63.8	67.0	73.9	78.0	80.1	81.4	82.6	82.4	81.7	79.7	73.1	66.1	75.9
Calcutta	21	65.2	70.3	79.3	85.0	85.7	84.5	83.0	82.4	82.6	80.0	72.4	65.3	77.9
Burdwan														
Patna	99	65.7	70.0	80.4	86.7	86.5	84.9	83.6	82.8	83.1	80.7	73.0	66.3	78.6
Benares	183	60.8	65.3	76.9	86.2	88.0	86.4	83.5	83.1	83.3	79.5	70.1	62.2	77.1
Allahabad	267	60.0	65.3	76.6	86.8	91.3	89 4	84.1	83.1	83.0	77.9	67.8	60.2	77.2
Lucknow	309	59.5	64.9	76.8	87.6	92.5	90.	84.5	83.2	83.0	77.6	67.5	59.8	77.3
Agra	368	58.7	63.7	75.2	86.4	90.6	90.2	85.3	83.4	83.2	77.1	66.3	58.9	76.6
Meerut	555	60.1	64.8	76.7	88.1	94.0	93.4	86.0	84.2	84.2	79.4	68.7	61.2	78.4
Delhi	738	56.0	60.1	71.1	82.7	88.4	89.4	85.0	83.2	81.7	74.7	63.5	56.7	74.4
Lahore	718	57.9	62.2	74.1	86.2	91.7	92.2	86.4	84.5	83.9	78.5	67.6	59.6	77.1
Multan	702	53.0	57.3	69.0	80.9	88.9	93.0	89.1	87.1	84.8	75.7	63.2	54.6	74.7
Jacobabad	420	55.6	59.8	71.6	82.9	91.4	94.9	92.7	90.4	88.0	78.6	67.1	57.7	77.5
Hyderabad (Sind)	186	57.3	62.4	74.5	85.5	94.2	97.7	95.0	91.6	88.8	79.2	67.5	58.9	79.3
Bikaner	96	63.6	67.1	77.6	86.2	91.6	91.7	88.6	86.0	86.0	82.7	73.4	65.0	79.9
Rajkote	771	59.2	63.6	76.6	88.4	94.1	94.7	90.4	87.3	87.4	82.4	70.5	61.4	79.6
Ahmedabad	429	66.8	70.0	77.4	85.1	89.2	87.5	81.7	80.6	80.8	80.4	74.1	68.4	78.5
	163	70.3	74.0	82.7	91.2	92.9	89.4	83.7	83.0	83.5	84.3	78.3	72.9	82.1
Plateau Stations.														
Akola	930	68.5	73.7	81.9	90.1	93.3	86.2	80.6	78.9	79.7	77.9	71.7	66.8	79.2
Jubbulpore	1,327	61.8	66.8	76.5	86.3	91.9	85.7	79.0	78.0	79.0	74.8	66.6	60.3	75.6
Nagpore	1,025	63.8	74.3	82.4	90.6	94.5	86.6	80.4	79.4	80.4	78.4	72.2	67.1	79.6
Raipur	970	67.7	73.6	81.9	90.3	93.6	86.0	79.6	79.0	80.3	78.1	71.5	66.0	79·0
Ahmednagar	2,152	67.1	71.3	77.5	82.5	83.8	79.2	76.2	74.9	74.5	75.1	70.5	67.1	75.0
Poona	1,840	69.8	73.9	80.1	83.9	83.8	78.7	74.9	73.7	74.4	76.2	72.5	68.9	75.9
Sholapur	1,590	72.7	77.7	84.2	88.4	88.9	81.8	78.9	77.7	77.3	77.7	74.6	71.3	79.3
Belgaum	2,539	69.8	73.0	77.5	79.2	78.0	72.8	70.1	69.7	70.4	72.9	70.9	69.3	72.8
Hyderabad (Deccan)	1,690	70.4	77.1	83.1	88.0	90.1	82.6	77.9	77.1	77.4	76.8	72.3	69.1	78.5
Bangalore	3,021	67.5	72.0	76.7	79.9	78.5	74.0	72.0	71.8	71.8	71.8	69.6	67.5	72.8
Bellary	1,475	73.2	79.6	85.6	89.2	89.0	83.4	80.9	80.6	80.2	79.1	75.3	72.5	80.8

Average Monthly and Annual Rainfall at Selected Stations in India.

Stations.	Elevation in feet.	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May.	June.	July.	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Annual Total.
Hill Stations.		in.	in.	in.	in.	in.	in.	in.	in.	in.	in.	in.	in.	in.
Shillong	4,920	0.49	0.81	1.85	4.29	10.06	16.46	13.48	12.79	14.75	6.23	0.98	0.25	82.44
Darjeeling	7,376	0.76	1.08	2.01	4.08	7.83	24.19	31.74	25.98	18.34	5.35	0.24	0.20	121.80
Simla	7,224	3.21	3.07	2.48	2.32	3.71	7.84	18.42	17.87	6.17	1.19	0.41	1.28	67.97
Murree	6,333	3.73	4.14	3.96	3.62	2.99	3.41	12.51	13.40	5.64	1.86	1.27	1.37	57.90
Srinagar	5,204	3.36	4.24	3.10	3.30	2.72	1.77	2.78	1.95	1.18	1.14	0.41	1.08	27.03
Mount Abu	3,945	0.27	0.31	0.15	0.08	0.97	5.59	22.05	21.51	9.58	1.46	0.28	0.24	62.49
Ootacamund	7,327	0.35	0.38	1.00	3.46	5.93	6.18	5.94	4.70	4.44	8.57	4.00	1.65	46.60
Kodaikanal	7,688	1.17	1.48	3.59	5.29	6.47	4.01	3.89	5.99	6.70	12.49	8.17	5.57	64.82
Coast Stations.														
Karachi	49	0.64	0.30	0.15	0.13	0.03	0.43	3.16	1.77	0.66	0.04	0.16	0.19	7.66
Veraval	18	0.01	0.03	0.00	0.00	0.02	5.31	8.92	7.27	2.40	0.81	0.66	0.10	25.53
Bombay	37	0.12	0.02	0.01	0.05	0.55	20.56	24.56	14.91	10.93	1.76	0.47	0.05	73.99
Ratnagiri	110	0.60	0.02	0.05	0.15	1.27	31.32	34.25	20.19	12.53	3.62	0.65	0.06	104.71
Mangalore	65	0.13	0.07	0.11	2.06	7.26	38.47	37.39	22.88	11.09	7.90	1.97	0.50	129.83
Calicut	27	0.17	0.16	0.79	3.70	9.04	36.46	29.36	14.89	7.39	9.12	3.80	1.32	116.20
Negapatam	31	1.15	0.72	0.32	1.02	1.81	1.30	1.74	3.29	3.55	10.08	15.02	11.23	51.23
Madras	22	0.89	0.28	0.37	0.65	1.96	2.06	3.80	4.66	4.84	10.93	13.30	5.25	48.93
Masulipatam	15	0.17	0.16	0.26	0.40	1.34	4.33	5.67	6.09	6.56	8.36	4.43	0.53	38.30
Gopalpur	21	0.23	0.43	0.56	0.73	2.01	5.76	6.11	7.20	6.86	9.84	3.50	0.72	43.95
Rangoon	57	0.11	0.23	0.16	1.74	11.73	18 30	21.37	19.65	15.89	7.12	2.52	0.07	98.89

Average Monthly and Annual Rainfall at Selected Stations in India.

Stations.	Elevation in feet.	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May.	June.	July.	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Annual Total.
STATIONS ON THE PLAINS.		in.	in.	in.	in.	in.	in.	in.	in.	in.	in.	in.	in.	in.
Toungoo	183	0.06	0.12	0.08	1.90	6.43	13.63	17.48	18.53	11.46	6.95	1.25	0.16	78.05
Mandalay	250	0.06	0.08	0 21	1.19	5.26	5.71	3.26	4.16	6.21	4.54	1.67	0.28	32.63
Silchar	104	0.64	2.32	7.93	13.56	15.72	20.39	19.98	18.69	13.95	6.40	1.31	0.54	121.43
Calcutta	21	0.29	1.02	1.14	1.54	5.60	11.04	12.31	12.69	10.40	3.87	0.62	0.31	60.83
Burdwan														
Patna	99	0.38	0.89	1.24	2.20	5.56	10.17	12.32	11.49	8.59	3.93	0.64	0.13	57.54
Benares	183	0.72	0.53	0.35	0.30	1.70	7.76	11.41	10.72	7.82	2.89	0.20	0.14	44.54
Allahabad	267	0.74	0.51	0.33	0.15	0.56	5.45	12.54	11.19	6.54	2.24	0.17	0.17	40.59
Lucknow	309	0.82	0.48	0.38	0.14	0.29	5.09	12.24	10.88	6.32	2.40	0.25	0.23	39.52
Agra	268	0.90	0.45	0.32	0.11	0.91	5.34	11.39	11.32	6.61	1.33	0.08	0.44	39.20
Meerut	555	0.55	0.33	0.25	0.16	0.64	2.84	9.67	7 11	4.41	0.39	0.06	0.29	26.70
Delhi	718	1.05	0.83	0.63	0.34	0.70	3.60	9.37	7.64	4.55	0.43	0.08	0.40	29.62
Lahore	702	0.87	1.13	0.89	0.51	0.80	1.86	6.65	4.88	2.10	0.43	0.11	0.47	20.70
Multan	420	0.39	0.36	0.42	0.27	0.39	0.43	2.19	1.66	0.60	0.07	0.06	0.27	7.11
Jacobabad	186	0.28	0.27	0.25	0.17	0.15	0.10	1.18	1.25	0.19	0.01	0.10	0.15	4.10
Hyderabad (Sind)	96	0.24	0.22	0.10	0.07	0.11	0.41	2.61	2.77	0.54	0.00	0.10	0.05	7.22
Bikaner														
Rajkote	771	0.38	0.24	0.18	0.14	0.84	1.65	3.29	3.14	1.08	0.09	0.06	0.18	11.27
Ahmedabad	429	0.05	0.10	0.01	0.01	0.31	5.21	10.89	6.41	3.75	0.67	0.33	0.06	27.80
	163	0.02	0.10	0.01	0.03	0.46	3.94	11.49	8.26	4.42	0.55	0.19	0.05	29.52
PLATEAU STATIONS.														
Akola	930	0.45	0.18	0.43	0.16	0.31	5.12	8.74	6.48	6.24	2.14	0.44	0.58	31.27
Jubbulpore	1,327	0.72	0.52	0.48	0.22	0.47	8.53	18.82	15.13	8.38	1.55	0.37	0.26	55.45
Nagpore	1,025	0.58	0.42	0.57	0.46	0.68	8.44	13.49	9.79	8.11	2.14	0.51	0.45	45.62
Raipur	970	0.30	0.33	0.59	0.59	0.76	9.38	14.94	12.72	7.75	2.09	0.62	0.20	50.27
Ahmednagar	2,152	0.27	0.12	0.15	0.40	1.16	4.73	3.03	3.60	6.75	3.12	0.89	0.44	24.66
Poona	1,840	0.18	0.05	0.13	0.58	1.45	5.35	6.90	4.03	4.43	4.11	0.85	0.20	28.26
Sholapur	1,590	0.06	0.08	0.29	0.63	1.09	4.41	4.19	5.42	7.77	3.63	0.87	0.30	28.74
Belgaum	2,539	0.06	0.03	0.49	2.05	2.73	9.32	15.37	9.15	4.05	5.09	1.33	0.24	49.91
Hyderabad (Deccan)	1,690	0.05	0.12	0.67	0.73	0.78	4.44	6.22	6.76	7.10	2.98	1.53	0.17	31.55
Bangalore	3,021	0.06	0 22	0.72	1.19	4.53	3.13	4.13	6.00	7.11	6.74	2.61	0.39	36.83
Bellary	1,475	0.10	0.08	0.42	0.83	1.93	1.84	1.41	2.18	4.12	4.04	1.20	0.20	18.30

MONSOON OF 1933.

The S. W. Monsoon of the year was markedly regular in its incidence and gave good rains well distributed in space and time over the whole country, and more or less in excess of the normal for each month throughout the season. All Divisions were well served as also the Sub-Divisions severally with the exception of East United Provinces and East Central India which returned small deficiences.

June.—The Arabian Sea current incident earlier than usual under the influence of a disturbance rising off the West coast of the Peninsula, was established on the Malabar coast on the 22nd May, and by the end of that month rapidly extended northwards over the Konkan coast and into the Bombay Deccan. Its activity, however, waned during the first week in June and the rainfall was confined to the West coast only upto Ratnagiri and to the Bombay Deccan. The current invigorated once again about the middle of the month under the influence of a low pressure wave moving northwards from Kanara-Konkan coast to Guzrat between the 18th and 21st June, carried the monsoon rains further northwards along the West coast and into Guzrat and Rajputana. By the 20th June it had extended into East and North Punjab, and by the 22nd into Kashmir and the North-West Frontier Province. Under the influence later of two low pressure areas over Bengal and West United Provinces the activity of the current over its own field was maintained to the end of the month.

The Bay monsoon current advancing in the wake of a storm in the Bay of Bengal was incident on the Burma coast during the last week in May. It extended into Assam by the 4th June and over the rest of North East India by the 9th. Under the stimulating action of a depression rising off the Circars-Orissa coast on the 12th June and moving north Westwards to Orissa, the activity of this branch was maintained upto the 20th, extending the rains also over the North Madras coast and into the East Central Provinces. In the last week of the month the formation of a depression over Bengal and of a low pressure area over the North West Provinces, influenced widespread rains practically over its whole field of activity, heavy in the neighbourhood of the depressions and causing severe floods in the West United Provinces. Notable heavy excesses were returned by the United Provinces, Punjab, Rajputana, Central India, and Hyderabad, respectively, of 76, 41, 164, 45, and 70 per cent. Averaged over the plains of India, the month's total rainfall was 10.06 inches, 16 per cent. in excess.

July.—Early in the month the monsoon was confined in the main to Malabar, Kanara, Hyderabad and Burma, and in the hills and sub-montane districts from Assam to Punjab. The current revived about the 12th July and its activity was fairly maintained to the end of the month under the influence of four depressions in the Bay which followed one after another traversing the country northwestwards. Fairly good rain was gathered generally over the country, specially along and around the tracks of the disturbances. The total rainfall for the month was 12.04 inches which was 2 per cent. in excess.

August.—For the first two weeks the activity of the currents on both sides was maintained under the influence and movements of two disturbances rising in the Bay, which taking the usual northwesterly course across the central parts of the country, gave widespread and heavy rains along and around their tracks. With the disappearance of these disturbances, the current weakened in the Peninsula, in the central parts of the country, and in lower Burma. The formation once again about the 18th August of a low pressure area this time off the West coast and moving northwards, invigorated the Arabian Sea branch keeping it active over the Peninsula to the end of the month. The Bay branch was strengthened after the 20th by a depression which formed over and moved from Bihar to South East Bengal between the 21st and 28th. It gave strong monsoon rains over the field of activity of this branch specially along the track of the disturbance. Notable excesses were returned by Punjab, North-West Frontier Province, Rajputana, Bombay, and Mysore, respectively, of 118, 66, 85, 80 and 117 per cent. The total fall for the month averaged over the plains of India was 12.33 inches, 14 per cent. in excess of the normal.

September.—Both branches continued to remain active during the month stimulated by four disturbances. The first rising off the West coast in the Arabian Sea about the 5th September and moving northwards to the Kathiawar coast by the 12th, strengthened that branch causing widespread rains in the western half of the Peninsula including Guzrat. The other three disturbances rising one after another in the Bay after the 7th kept that branch in active vigour to the end of the month, giving widespread rains practically over the whole country. Notable heavy excesses were returned by Punjab, North-West Frontier Province, Sind, Bombay, Cental, India, and Central Provinces, respectively, of 163, 134, 98, 64, 41 and 72 per cent. The total rainfall for the month was 8.85 inches, 20 per cent. in excess of the normal.

October.—During the month conditions determining the recession of the S. W. Monsoon current were evident. Early in the month thunderstorms prevailed in North East India and later upto the 11th over most of the Peninsula. A storm which formed in the Bay and a depression in the Arabian Sea about the 12th temporarily revived the currents upto the 22nd and determined widespread rains in the Peninsula, the central parts of the country, the United Provinces and North East India. For the rest of the month fairly good rains were gathered over the south of the Peninsula, and on the south Burma coast. The incursions of a Western disturbance about the middle of

the month and another about the 25th, which passing eastwards through Kashmir and giving widespread rains in Kashmir and the North-West Frontier Province heralded the retreat of the S. W. Monsoon and the establishment of the N. E. Monsoon. Notable excesses of rainfall were returned by the United Provinces, Central India, Hyderabad, and Mysore, respectively, of 131, 51, 45, and 53 per cent. Averaged over the plains of India the month was 3.61 inches whi in excess.

The total rainfall for the September—averaged over th was 43.7 inches which was 12 The following table gives det of the seasonal rainfall of the

DIVISIONS.	RAINFALL, JUNE TO SEPTEMBER		
	Actual.	Normal.	Departure from Normal.
	Inches.	Inches.	Inches.
Burma	81.7	83.9	—2.2
Assam	59.5	61.1	—1.6
Bengal	67.8	60.6	+7.2
Bihar and Orissa	47.9	45.1	+2.8
United Provinces	36.6	36.1	+0.5
Punjab	24.6	14.0	+10.6
North-West Frontier Province	6.7	5.0	+1.7
Sind	10.9	4.7	+6.2
Rajputana	27.3	18.1	+9.2
Bombay	43.8	33.9	+9.9
Central India	38.9	33.8	+5.1
Central Provinces	50.1	40.8	+9.3
Hyderabad	30.9	26.2	+4.7
Mysore	19.8	15.5	+4.3
Madras	28.1	26.0	+2.1
Mean of India	43.7	39.1	+4.6

Famine.

To the student of Indian administration nothing is more remarkable than the manner in which great problems arise, produce a corresponding outburst of official activity to meet them and then fall into the background. This general truth is illustrated by a study of the history of famine in India. For nearly forty years it was the bogey of the Indian administrator. The forecasts of the rains were studied with acute anxiety. The actual progress of the rains was followed with no less anxiety, and at the first signs of a bad or poor season the famine relief machinery was furnished up and prepared for any emergency. The reason for this is clear if we examine for a brief space the economic condition of the Indian peasantry. Nearly three-quarters of the people are directly dependent on agriculture for their daily bread. Very much of this agriculture is dependent on the seasonal rains for its existence. Immense areas in the Bombay Presidency, Madras, the United Provinces and Central India are in a region of erratic and uncertain rainfall. The rainy season is short and if for any natural reason there is a weakness, or absence, of the rain-bearing currents, then there is either a poor harvest or no harvest at all. In Western lands everyone is acquainted with the difference between a good and a poor season, but western countries offer no parallel to India, where in an exceptionally bad year wide tracts of thickly populated land may not produce even a blade of grass. In the old days there were no railways to distribute the surplus of one part of India to the districts where the crop had failed. There were often no roads. The irrigation works were few and were themselves generally dependent on the rainfall for their reserves. The people lived from hand to mouth and had no store of food to fall back upon. Nor had they any credit. In the old days then they died. Commencing with the Orissa famine in 1865-67 the Government of India assumed responsibility for the saving of human life in such crises. After the famine of 1899-1900 this responsibility was also shouldered by the Indian States. Stage by stage this responsibility was expressed in the evolution of a remarkable system of famine relief covering the whole field. But now that machinery has reached a remarkable degree of perfection, it is rusting in the official armouries, because the conditions have changed. The whole of India is covered with a network of railways, which distributes the produce of the soil to the centres where food is required. The extension of irrigation has enormously increased the product of the soil and rendered large areas much less dependent on the monsoon rainfall. At the same time the scientific study of the problems of Indian agriculture has raised the capacity of even the "dry" zones. The peasantry has accumulated a certain reserve against the rainless days from the prosperity which accompanied the period of high prices. The rapid spread of the co-operative credit movement has mobilised and strengthened rural credit. The spread of manufacturing enterprise has lightened the pressure on the soil. The relation of famine to the question of Indian administration has therefore changed. In an exceptionally bad year it may create administrative difficulties: it has ceased to be an administrative and social problem

Famine under Native Rule.

Famines were frequent under Native rule, and frightful when they came. "In 1630," says Sir William Hunter, in the History of British India, "a calamity fell upon Gujarat which enables us to realise the terrible meaning of the word famine in India under Native rule. Whole cities and districts were left bare of inhabitants." In 1631 a Dutch merchant reported that only eleven of the 260 families at Swally survived. He found the road thence to Surat covered with bodies decaying on the highway where they died, there being none to bury them. In Surat, that great and crowded city, he could hardly see any living persons; but "the corpses at the corner of the streets lie twenty together, nobody burying them. Thirty thousand had perished in the town alone. Pestilence followed famine." Further historical evidence was adduced by Sir Theodore Morrison in his volume on the Economic Transition of India. It has come to be seen that whilst railways have checked the old-fashioned practice of storing grain in the villages they have made the reserves, where they exist, available for the whole of India. In India there is now no such thing as a food famine; the country always produces enough food for the whole of the population; famine when it comes is a money famine and the task of the State is confined to providing the means for those affected by drought to earn enough to buy food. The machinery whereby this is done will be examined after we have seen the experiences through which it was evolved.

History of Recent Famines.

The Orissa famine of 1865-67 may be taken as the starting point because that induced to first great and organised effort to combat distress through State agency. It affected 180,000 square miles and 47,500,000 people. The Bengal Government was a little slow in appreciating the need for action, but late food was poured into the district in prodigious quantities. Thirty-five million units were relieved (a unit is one person supported for one day) at a cost 95 lakhs. The mortality was very heavy, and it is estimated that a million people or one-third of the population, died in Orissa alone. This was followed by the Madras famine of 1866, and the famine in Western India of 1868-70. The latter famine introduced India to the great migration from Marwar which was such a distinguishing feature of the famine of 1899-1900; it is estimated that out of a total population of a million and a half in Marwar, one million emigrated. There was famine in Behar in 1873-74, then came the great South Indian Famine of 1876-78. This affected Madras, Mysore, Hyderabad and Bombay for

two years and in the second year extended to parts of the Central and United Provinces and to a small tract in the Punjab. The total area affected was 257,000 square miles and the population 58,500,000. Warned by the excessive expenditure in Behar and actuated by the desire to secure economy the Government relief programme was not entirely successful. The excess mortality in this famine is said to have been 5,250,000 in British territory alone. Throughout British India 700,000,000 units were relieved at a cost of Rs. 8¾ crores. Charitable contributions from Great Britain and the Colonies aggregated Rs. 84 lakhs.

The Famine Codes.

The experiences of this famine showed the necessity of placing relief on an organised basis. The first great Famine Commission which sat under the presidency of Sir Richard Strachey, elaborated the Famine Codes, which amended to meet later experience, form the basis of the famine relief system to-day. They recommended (1) that employment should be given on the relief works to the able-bodied, at a wage sufficient for support, on the condition of performing a suitable task; and (2) that gratuitous relief should be given in their villages or in poor houses to those who are unable to work. They recommended that the food supply should be left to private agency, except where that was unequal to the demands upon it. They advised that the land-owning classes should be assisted by loans, and by general suspensions of revenue in proportion to the crop failure. In sending a Famine Code to the provincial governments, the Government of India laid down as the cardinal feature of their policy that the famine wage "is the lowest amount sufficient to maintain health under given circumstances. Whilst the duty of Government is to save life, it is not bound to maintain the labouring population at its normal level of comfort." Provincial codes were drawn up, and were tested by the famine of 1896-97. In that 307,000 square miles were affected, with a population of 69,500,000. The numbers relieved exceeded 4,000,000 at the time of greatest distress. The cost of famine relief was Rs. 7½ crores, revenue was remitted to the extent of Rs. 1½ crore, and loans given aggregating Rs. 1¾ crore. The charitable relief fund amounted to about Rs. 1¾ crore, of which Rs. 1½ crore was subscribed in the United Kingdom. The actual famine mortality in British India was estimated at 750,000. The experiences of this famine were examined by a Commission under Sir James Lyall, which reported that the success attained in saving life and the relief of distress was greater than had ever been recorded in famines, comparable with it in severity, and that the expense was moderate. But before the Local Governments had been given time to digest the proposals of this Commission or the people to recover from the stock, the great famine of 1899-1900 supervened.

The Famine of 1899-1900.

This famine affected 475,000 square miles with a population of 59,500,000. In the Central Provinces, Berar, Bombay, Ajmer, and the Hissar district of the Punjab famine was acute: it was intense in Rajputana, Baroda, Central India, Hyderabad and Kathiawar. It was marked by several distinctive features. The rainfall over the whole of India was in extreme defect, being eleven inches below the mean. In several localities there was practically no rain. There was in consequence a great fodder famine, with a terrible mortality amongst the cattle. The water supply was deficient, and brought a crop of difficulties in its train. Then districts like Gujarat, where famine had been unknown for so many years that the locality was thought to be famine immune, were affected; the people here being softened by prosperity, clung to their villages, in the hope of saving their cattle, and came within the scope of the relief works when it was too late to save life. A very large area in the Indian States was affected, and the Marwaris swept from their impoverished land right through Central India like a horde of locusts, leaving desolation in their train. For these reasons relief had to be given on an unprecedented scale. At the end of July 4,500,000 persons were supported by the State, Rs. 10 crores were spent on relief, and the total cost was estimated at Rs. 15 crores. The famine was also marked by a widespread acceptance by Indian States of the duty hitherto shouldered by the Government of India alone—the supreme responsibility of saving human life. Aided by loans to the extent of Rs. 3½ crores, the Indian States did a great deal to bring their administration into line with that in British India. Although actual deaths from starvation were insignificant, the extensive outbreaks of cholera, and the devastating epidemic of malaria which followed the advent of the rains induced a famine mortality of approximately a million. The experiences of this famine were collated by the Commission presided over by Sir Antony MacDonnell. This Commission reported that taking the famine period as a whole the relief given was excessive, and laid down certain modified lines. The cardinal feature of their policy was moral strategy. Pointing out that if the people were assisted at the start they would help themselves, whilst if their condition were allowed to deteriorate it proceeded on a declining scale, they placed in the forefront of their programme the necessity of "putting heart into the people." The machinery suggested for this purpose was the prompt and liberal distribution of taccavi loans, the early suspension of revenue, and a policy of prudent boldness, starting from the preparation of a large and expansive plan of relief and secured by liberal preparations, constant vigilance, and a full enlistment of non-official help. The wage scale was revised; the minimum wage was abolished in the case of able-bodied workers; payments by results were recommended; and proposals were made for saving cattle.

The modern system.

The Government of India are now in possession of complete machinery to combat the effects of drought. In ordinary times Government is kept informed of the meteorological conditions and the state of the crops; programmes of suitable relief works are kept up-to-date, the country is mapped into relief circles, reserves of tools and plant are stocked

If the rains fail, policy is at once declared, non-officials are enlisted, revenue suspended and loans for agricultural purposes made. Test works are then opened, and if labour in considerable quantities is attracted, they are converted into relief works on Code principles. Poor houses are opened and gratuitous relief given to the infirm. On the advent of the rains the people are moved from the large works to small works near their villages, liberal advances are made to agriculturists for the purchase of plough, cattle and seed. When the principal autumn crop is ripe, the few remaining works are gradually closed and gratuitous relief ceases. All this time the medical staff is kept in readiness to deal with cholera which so often accompanies famine, and malaria, which generally supervenes when the rains break.

Famine Protection.

Side by side with the perfection of the machinery for the relief of famine has gone the development of famine protection. The Famine Commission of 1880 stated that the best, and often the only means of securing protection from the extreme effects of famine and drought, are railways and irrigation. These are of two classes, productive and protective. Productive works being estimated to yield profits which will pay interest and sinking fund charges are met from loans; protective works, which do not pay, directly from revenue. In order to guarantee that there should be continuous progress with protective works, the Famine Insurance Grant was instituted in 1876. It was decided to set apart from the general revenues Rs. 1½ crores annually or one million sterling. The first charge on this grant is famine relief, the second protective works, the third the avoidance of debt. The chain of protective railways is now practically complete. Great progress is being made with protective irrigation. Acting on the advice of the Irrigation Commission an elaborate programme of protective irrigation works has been constructed, particularly in the Bombay Deccan—the most famine-susceptible district in India—and in the Central Provinces.

Under the Statutory Rules framed under the Government of India Act of 1919, Provincial Governments (except Burma and Assam) are required to contribute from their resources a fixed sum every year for expenditure on famine. These annual assignments can be expended on relief of famine only, the sum not required for this purpose is utilised in building up a Famine Relief Fund. The Fund provides, as its main and primary object, for expenditure on Famine Relief proper, the word "Famine" being held to cover famine due to drought or other natural calamities. The balance at the credit of the Fund is regarded as invested with the Governor-General in Council and is available for expenditure on famine, when necessary and, under certain restrictions, on protective and other works for relief of famine.

The Outlook.

Such in brief is the official programme and organisation which has been built up out of the experience and practice of the past. Yet everything goes to show that Government activity to save human life will never be wanted in the future on the colossal scale of former times, even so recently as 1899-1900. Each succeeding failure of the rains indicates that there has been in silent progress an economic revolution in India. In the year 1918 the rains failed more seriously and over a wider area than during any monsoon in the recent history of India. The deficiency in the rainfall was more marked than in the great famine of 1899. Yet such was the increased resisting power of the people that instead of a demand for State relief from over five millions, the maximum number at any time in receipt of public assistance was never so large as six hundred thousand. The shock to the social life of the community was insignificant; the effects of the drought completely disappeared with the good rains of the following year.

Increased Resisting Power.

The causes of this economic change in the conditions of India, whose influence is widespread are many. We can only briefly indicate them here. There is a much greater mobility in Indian labour. Formerly when the rains failed the ryot clung to his village until State relief in one form or another was brought almost to his doors. Now at the first sign of the failure of the rains he girds up his loins and goes in search of employment in one of the industrial centres, where the supply of labour is, when general economic conditions are normal, rarely equal to the demand, or on the constructional works which are always in progress either through State or private agency in the country. Then the ryot generally commands some store of value, often mistermed a hoard. The balance of exports in favour of India in normal times is approximately £50 millions a year. The gold and silver bullion in which this is largely liquidated is distributed all over the country, in small sums or in ornaments, which can be drawn upon in an emergency. The prodigious coining of rupees during the last two years of the war, and the continuous absorption of gold by India, represent small diffused savings, which take this form owing to the absence of banking institutions and lack of confidence in the banking system. There has been a large extension of irrigation. More than one-third of the land in the Punjab is now under irrigation, and in other Provinces, particularly in the famine-susceptible tracts of the Bombay Deccan, irrigation works have been constructed, which break the shock of a failure of the rains. The natural growth of the population was for some years reduced by plague and famine diseases, followed by the great influenza epidemic of 1918-19, which swept off five millions of people. This prevented the increase of congestion, but brought some areas particularly in the Indian States, below their former population-supporting capacity. (The 1931 census showed an increase of over 30 million in the population since 1921.) The increase of railways distributes the resources of the country with ease; the spread of the co-operative credit movement has improved rural credit. Finally, there is the considerable development of manufacturing industry, which is generally short of labour and helps to absorb the surplus of a famine year. Whilst the Government is completely equipped with a famine code, there is no reason to suppose that there will ever recur such an emergency as

that of 1899. Famine can now be efficiently met by the liberal distribution of tagavi, the suspension and remission of the land revenue demand, the relief of the aged and others who cannot work, the provision of cheap fodder for the cattle, with possibly some assistance in transporting the affected population of the famine-affected tract to the industrial centres.

The increased resisting power of the people was effectively demonstrated during the famine of 1920–21, which was due to the failure of the monsoon towards the end of the year 1920. The distress which appeared in the end of 1920 persisted during the early months of 1921 and regular famine was declared in parts of Madras, Bombay, Central Provinces and Baluchistan. Local distress prevailed also in Bengal, Punjab and Central India. The largest number of persons on relief of all kinds did not exceed 0·45 million which was considerably less than 3% of the total population of the area affected by the failure of the monsoon.

The Indian People's Famine Trust.

Outside the Government programme there is always scope for private philanthropy, especially in the provision of clothes, help for the superior class poor who cannot accept Government aid, and in assisting in the rehabilitation of the cultivators when the rains break. At every great famine large sums have been subscribed, particularly in the United Kingdom, for this purpose, and in 1899-1900 the people of the United States gave generous help. With the idea of providing a permanent famine fund, the Maharaja of Jaipur gave in 1900 a sum of Rs. 15 lakhs, in Government securities to be held in trust for the purposes of charitable relief in seasons of general distress.

This Trust in a few years became swollen to Rs. 28,10,000 and has ever since been maintained at that figure. It is officially called the Indian People's Famine Trust, and was constituted under the Charitable Endowment Act, 1890. The income of the Trust is administered by a board of management consisting of 13 members appointed from different provinces and Indian States, Sir Ernest Burdon, KT., C.S.I., C.I.E., I.C.S., Auditor-General in India, is the Secretary & Treasurer of the Trust. The original endowmennt of Rs. 28,10,000 above mentioned is permanently invested and the principal never taken for expenditure. The income from it is utilised for relief work as necessary and unexpended balances are temporarily invested, so as to make available in years of trouble savings accumulated when expenditure is not necessary. The temporary investments— in Government Securities—at the end of 1933 stood at Rs. 7,82,751-13-0 and the cash balance at the same time was Rs. 41,260-8-0, so that the total available for expenditure at the commencement of 1934 was Rs. 8,24,012-5-0.

The whole conditions to meet which the Trust was founded have changed in recent years. This is the result of the improved policy of Government in regard to famine relief and of the difference in the meaning of the word famine in consequence of the improvement of transport communications and other factors affected by modern progress. An area stricken by failure of seasonal rains now obtains supplies from other regions in a manner impossible before the development of railways and of modern marketing practice and Government help its people by loans given direct or through Co-operative Societies to tide them over the period of scarcity. The experience of successive visitations of scarcity in different parts of the country also proves that the general economic progress of the people makes them able to meet temporary periods of stress in a manner formerly unimaginable. Famine in the old terrible sense of the term has in fact ceased to occur. This was well illustrated by the events of 1919, when the land suffered from a failure of the rains more general throughout India and worse in degree than any previously recorded by the Meteorological Department but the crisis was borne with a minimum of suffering. The demands upon the Famine Trust have consequently so greatly diminished in their original sense that hardly any money is now distributed from it for the relief of famine in the proper sense of the word, resulting from rain failure and expenditure has mainly become grants of assistance to sufferers from floods. The total expenditure upon real famine in the old sense was only Rs. 50,000 during the year 1929, while expenditure on relief of distress caused by floods was Rs. 4,75,000 in the same year. The terms of the Trust fortunately, permit of management on lines according with modern needs.

The following statement shows the income and expenditure of the Trust during the past twenty-three years, the figures at the end of 1933 being the latest available for a complete year.

Year	Income.	Expenditure.											Total Expenditure.
		Madras.	Punjab.	Bombay.	Ajmere Merwara	Bihar and Orissa.	United Provinces.	Bengal.	Central Provinces.	Assam.	Khairpur State.	Delhi.	
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1911	1,17,652	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....				....
1912	(a) 1,45,537	....	....	1,36,000	....	....	....	....	....				1,36,000
1913	1,21,635	....	....	23,500	....	....	....	....	....				23,500
1914	1,22,695	....	....	....	....	....	1,00,000	....	....				1,00,000
1915	1,24,499	....	....	....	....	....	(c) —38,593	....	....				(c) —38,593
1916	1,29,206	....	....	....	....	....	(c) —3,305	25,000	....				21,695
1917	1,56,125	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....				....
1918	1,26,962	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....				....
1919	1,34,092	30,500	....	3,00,000	....	....	3,00,000	1,00,000	1,00,000				8,30,500
1920	1,16,917	....	....	....	....	50,000	(c) —21,480	....	....				28,520
1921	(b) 1,23,221	....	....	....	....	....	50,000	....	50,000				1,00,000
1922	1,19,825	25,000	....	....	....	....	....	....	....				25,000
1923	1,22,993	(c)—2,503	....	....	....	....	....	....	....				(c) —2,503
1924	1,33,518	1,50,000	45,000	....	....	....	....	....	....				1,95,000
1925	1,24,225	(c) —479	....	30,000	....	....	....	....	....				29,521
1926	1,28,600	....	....	....	11,000	....	....	....	....				11,000
1927	1,58,033	....	....	3,00,000	....	1,00,000	....	....	....				3,98,163
1928	1,27,442	....	1,00,000	(c) —1,837	....	....	....	....	....				1,00,000
1929	(d)1,52,303	....	1,75,000	(e)1,50,000	....	....	25,000	....	25,000	1,00,000	25,000		(e) 5,00,000
1930	1,35,239	....	....	(c)—25,000	....	....	....	....	....	....	....		—25,000
1931	1,87,643	....	....	(c)—69,000	....	....	....	....	....	....	....		—69,000
1932	1,26,125	....	....	(c) —1,079	....	....	....	....	....	....	....		—11,733
1933	(f)1,58,373	....	50,000	....	....	40,000	(c) 10,655	....	....	....	....	40,000	1,30,000
..	29,40,560	2,02,518	3,20,000	8,42,584	11,000	1,90,000	4,00,967	1,25 000	1,75,000	1,00,000	25,000	40,000	24,83,380

(a) Includes a bequest of Rs. 26,545.
(b) Includes Rs. 3,366 refunded from the grant made in 1900 for the maintenance of Rajputana Orphans.
(c) Represent refunds from grants made in previous years.
(d) Includes Rs. 182 and Rs. 25,000 refunded from the grants made in 1927 to Bihar and Orissa and Bombay respectively.
(e) In addition a sum of Rs. 25,000 being the surplus balance of the grant made in 1927 to the Bombay Central Flood Relief Fund was allowed to be transferred to the Bombay Government for relief of distress in Sind.
(f) Includes Rs. 37,691 transferred from United Provinces Orphan's Fund representing it cash balance at the end of 1932-33.

Hydro-Electric Development.

India promises to be one of the leading countries of the world in regard to the development of hydro-electric power and great strides in this direction have already been made. India not only specially lends itself to projects of the kind, but peremptorily demands them. Cheap motive power is one of the secrets of successful industrial development and the favourable initial conditions caused by the war, the enthusiasm for industrial development which has seized nearly all classes of educated Indians, and the special attention which the circumstances of the war have compelled Government to direct towards the scientific utilisation of Indian natural resources all point to a rapid growth of industrial enterprise in all parts of India within the next few years. Indeed, the process, for which sound foundations had been laid before the war, is now rapidly under way. India is severely handicapped compared with other lands as regards the generation of power by the consumption of fuel, coal or oil. These commodities are all difficult to obtain, and costly in India except in a few favoured areas. Coal supplies, for example, are chiefly centred in Bengal and Chota Nagpur and the cost of transport is heavy. Water power and its transmission by electricity offer, on the other hand, immense possibilities, both as regards the quantity available and the cheapness at which the power can be rendered, in all parts of India.

Water power schemes, pure and simple, are generally difficult in India, because the power needs to be continuous, while the rainfall is only during a small portion of the year. Perennial rivers with sufficient water throughout the year are practically non-existent in India. Water, therefore, must be stored for use during the dry season. Favourable sites for this exist in many parts in the mountainous and hilly regions where the heaviest rainfalls occur and the progress already made in utilising such opportunities by the electrical transmission of power affords high encouragement for the future. Further, hydro-electric schemes can frequently be associated with important irrigation projects, the water being first used to drive the turbines at the generating stations, and then distributed over the fields.

The Industrial Commission emphasized the necessity for a Hydrographic Survey of India. On this recommendation the Government of India in 1918 appointed the late Mr. G. T. Barlow, C.I.E., then Chief Engineer, Irrigation Branch, United Provinces, to undertake the work, associating with him Mr. J. W. Meares, M.I.C.E., Electrical Adviser to the Government of India. Mr. Barlow died, but Mr. Meares issued a preliminary report in September, 1919, summarising the state of knowledge of the problem in India and outlining a programme of investigation to be undertaken in the course of the inquiry. Mr. Meares showed that industries in India absorbed over a million horse power, of which only some 285,000 h.p. is supplied by electricity from steam, oil or water; the water power so far actually in sight amounts to 1¾ million horse-power, but this excludes practically all the great rivers, which are at present uninvestigated. Thus the minimum flow of the seven great rivers eastward from the Indus is stated to be capable of giving not less than three million horse-power for every thousand feet of fall from the Himalayas, while similar considerations apply to rivers in other parts. Some doubt is expressed as to the estimate of seven million horse-power in the Irrawaddy and Chindwin rivers, given in the report of the London Conjoint Board of Scientific Studies.

The Report points out that the Bombay Presidency holds a unique position owing to its great existing and projected schemes at Lonavla, the Andhra Valley, the Nila Mula and the Koyna Valley and has the still greater advantage of possessing a firm ready to develop its resources.

Bombay Hydro-Electric Works.

The greatest water-power undertakings in India—and in some respects the greatest in the world—are the Tata hydro-electric schemes recently brought to fruition, and constantly undergoing expansion, for the supply of power in the city of Bombay. Bombay is after London the most populous city in the British Empire and it is the largest manufacturing town in Asia. Its cotton mills and other factories use over 100,000 horse power of mechanical energy and until a year or two ago this was almost entirely provided by steam, generated by coal coming from a distance—mostly Bengal. The Tata Hydro-Electric Power Scheme, now an accomplished fact, marked one of the big steps forward made by India in the history of its Industrial development. It was the product of the fertile brain of Mr. David Gostling, one of the well known characters of Bombay, nearly a generation ago. The exceptional position of the Western Ghats, which rise 2,000 feet from sea-level which is a very short distance of the Arabian Sea, and force the monsoon as it sweeps to land, to break into torrential rain at the mountain passes was taken full advantage of and the table lands behind the Ghats form a magnificent catchment area to conserve this heavy rainfall in. Mr. Gostling pressed the scheme on the attention of Mr. Jamsetji Tata for years, and with perseverance collected data which he laid before that pioneer of the larger industries in India. He summoned the aid of experts from England to investigate the plan. The scheme was fully considered for six long years. Meanwhile both Mr. J. N. Tata and Mr. David Gostling passed away, but the sons of the former continued the work of their father and on Mr. Gostling's death, Mr. R. B. Joyner's aid was sought to work out the Hydraulic side of the undertaking.

The scheme completed, a syndicate secured the license from Government and an endeavour was made to enlist the support of financiers of England who tried to impose terms which were not acceptable. Meanwhile, the attention of Sir George Clarke (now Lord Sydenham), then Governor of Bombay, and an engineer of distinction himself, was drawn to the scheme. The interest shown by him drew the attention of Indian Chiefs in the Presidency of Bombay and outside it to its possibilities, funds flowed in and a company was started.

The hydro-electric engineering works in connection with the project are situated at and about Lonavla above the Bhor Ghat. The rainfall is stored in three lakes at Lonavla, Walwhan and Shirawta, whence it is conveyed in masonry canals to the forebay or receiving reservoir. The power-house is at Khopoli, at the foot of the Ghats, whither the stored water is conveyed through pipes, the fall being one of 1,725 feet. In falling from this height the water develops a pressure of 750 lbs. per square inch and with this force drives the turbines or water wheels. The scheme was originally restricted to 30,000 electrical horse power, but the Company, in view of the increasing demand for power from the Bombay mills, decided to extend the works by building the Shirawta Dam, the capacity of the scheme being increased to more than 40,000 electrical horse power. The works were formally opened by H. E. the Governor of Bombay on the 8th February 1915. At present there are about 44 mills with motors of the aggregate b. h. p. of 55,000 h. p. in service. In addition to the cotton and flour mills which have contracted to take supply from the Company for a period of ten years, an agreement has been completed whereby the Tata Hydro-Electric Company, the Andhra Valley Power Supply Company and the Tata Power Company between them supply the whole of the electric power required by the Bombay Electric Supply and Tramways Company, Limited, and also the power for the electrification of the Harbour Branch and Bombay-Kalyan section of the G. I. P. Railway. There remain many prospective buyers of electrical energy and the completion of the Company's full scheme will not suffice for all such demands. Besides the Bombay cotton mills, which alone would require about 100,000 horse power, there are, for instance, tramways, with possibilities of suburban extensions. The probable future demand is roughly estimated at about 160,000 h. p. Recently the Company has embarked upon a considerable scheme of extensions, these involving the impounding of a fourth lake at Kundley, near Lonavla, the duplication of the pipe line and the installation of additional machinery at the power house at Khopoli.

Investigations undertaken by Mr. H. P. Gibbs, with a view to further developing the electrical supply led to the discovery of a highly promising water storage site in the valley of the Andhra river, situated near the present lakes previously overlooked, as altogether different treatment and design were required. In this instance the draw off point is 11 miles upstream from the dam and at a level 112 ft. above the lowest river bed level at the dam. The water is taken through a tunnel 8,700 ft. long driven in solid trap rock through the scarp of the ghauts of which the pressure pipes are an extension. Seventy feet of the upper water in the lake can be drawn off comprising 75 per cent. of the total amount of water stored both above and below draw off level. A scheme was prepared to be carried out by a separate company and providing for holding up the Andhra river by a dam, about a third of a mile long and 192 feet high, at Tokerwadi. This dam holds up a lake nearly twelve miles long, the further end of which approaches the brink of the Ghats at Khand. Here, a tunnel, a mile and a quarter long, carries the water to the surge chamber, whence it enters the pipes for a vertical drop of about 1,750 feet to the generating station at Bhivpuri, about 17 miles from the generating station at Khopoli. The scheme is designed to yield 100,000 horse power in its full development. Power is being supplied to some thirty factories in Bombay absorbing roughly 40,000 electrical horse-power, as well as to the Bombay Electric Supply and Tramways Company and to the G. I. P. Railway for the first stage of their electrification scheme.

Just as the Andhra project has been developed as a northward extension of the original scheme, so a southward development also originated by Mr. Gibbs and developable on lines similar to those of the Andhra project is now practically completed under the name of the Nila-Mula scheme, the name arising from the fact that the valleys of the Nila and Mula rivers are being dammed for the conservation of water for it. A company entitled The Tata Power Co., Ltd., was floated in the autumn of 1919.

A lake having an area of sixteen square miles and a catchment area of 112 square miles has been formed at Mulshi by the erection of a masonry dam 4,100 feet in length and 158 feet in height. At the end of the lake opposite to the site of the dam, a tunnel has been cut through the Western Ghats to a total length of 14,500 feet, at the further end of which the water enters the pipe line and descends to the turbine power house at Bhira, 1,750 feet below. The head of water is sufficient to generate 150,000 electrical horse-power at 11,000 volts, and after being transformed up to 110,000 volts the current is transmitted to the receiving station at Dharavi, Bombay, through an overhead line approximately 80 miles in length. Five generating units each of 30,000 electrical horse-power are being erected, and of these two are already in commercial operation. The power will be absorbed by mills, factories and local area not yet electrified in Bombay and suburbs as well as by the B. B. & C. I. Railway's suburban service, the G. I. P. Railway's electrified service within thirty miles of Bombay and the evergrowing needs of the B. E. S. & T. Company.

Nearly 100 miles southward of this Messrs. Tata propose to erect two dams in the huge valley of the Koyna river, proposed by Mr. A. T. Arnall and developable on lines similar to the two projects by Mr. Gibbs above mentioned, partly to supply power to Bombay and partly to develop a great assembly of electro-chemical industries near the power installation. The prelimi-

nary investigations for this scheme are still proceeding. The catchment area for the lake will be 346 square miles and there will be a total storage after the rains of 112,600 million cubic feet, which will be sufficient to supply a normal load of 350,000 horse power for 8,000 hours per year. The preliminary estimates provided for a capital of Rs. 810 lakhs to carry out the scheme.

Mysore Installation.

The first hydro-electric scheme undertaken in India or, indeed, in the East, was that on the River Cauvery, in Mysore State, which was inaugurated, with generating works at Sivasamudram, in 1902. The Cauvery rises in the British district of Coorg, and flows right across Mysore. The first object with which the installation was undertaken was the supply of power to the goldfields at Kolar. These are 92 miles distant from Sivasamudram and for a long time this was the longest electrical power transmission line in the world. Current is also sent to Bangalore, 59 miles away, where it is used for both industrial and lighting purposes.

The initial undertaking has constantly been expanded since its inauguration, so that its total capacity, which was at first 6,000 horse power, is now approximately 25,000 h.p. This is the maximum obtainable with the water which the Cauvery affords and, therefore, with the number of consumers, large and small, rapidly increasing, the necessity of a completely new installation elsewhere, to be operated in parallel with or separately from that at Sivasamudram, has been recognised. Two projects offer themselves. The first would involve the use of the River Shimsha, a tributary of the Cauvery which has natural falls, and the second, known as the Mekadatu project, would have its power house on the Cauvery, 25 miles down-river from Sivasamudram and just within the borders of Mysore State, adjacent to the Madras Presidency. The head of water available at Sivasamudram is 400 feet, that on the Shimsha 618 feet net, which would generate 39,500 e. h. p. At Mekadatu the Cauvery runs in rapids and a dam and a channel 20,000 feet long with a 22½ feet bed would be necessary. There would be three generating units, each giving an output of 4,000 e.h.p. Future extensions yielding an additional 8,000 h.p. could be made. The progressive spirit which has marked the management of the works since their inception now characterises the manner in which the problem of further extensions are being considered.

Works in Kashmir.

A scheme of much importance from its size, but more interesting because of the developments that may be expected from it than for the part which its current supply already plays in the life of the countryside, is one installed a few years ago by the Kashmir Durbar, utilising the River Jhelum, near Baramulla, which lies thirty-four miles north-west of Srinagar. The head works of the Jhelum power installation are situated six and a half miles from the power house and the main connection between the two is a great timber flume. These works and the forebay at the delivery end of the flume have a capacity for carrying water sufficient for the generation of 20,000 electrical horse power. Four pipes 600 feet long lead from the forebay to the power house, and from forebay to waterwheel there is an effective head of 395 feet. There are four vertical waterwheels, each coupled on the same shaft to a 1,000 k.w., 3-phase, 2,300 volt, 25-period generator running at 500 r.p.m., and each unit is capable of taking a 25 per cent. overload, which the generator end is guaranteed to maintain with safety for two hours. The power house is of sufficient capacity to allow of 15,000 k.w. generating plant being installed within it. Two transmission lines run side by side as far as Baramulla, 21 miles distant, at which point one terminates. The other continues to Srinagar, a further 34 miles. The installation at Baramulla was originally utilised for three floating dredgers and two floating derricks, for dredging the river and draining the swampy countryside and rendering it available for cultivation, but these operations have temporarily been curtailed, so that only one dredger is now in operation. The lighting of Baramulla has been taken in hand with satisfactory results and it is expected that the lighting demand will rapidly increase and that a small demand for power will soon spring up. At Srinagar, the line terminates at the State silk factory, where current is supplied not only for driving machinery and for lighting, but for heating. The greater part of Srinagar city is now electrically lighted and during the past year a motor load of over 100 k.w. has been connected with the mains, motors being hired out to consumers by the Electrical Department. This step was taken with a view to educating the people in the use of electric power and it has been entirely successful.

Recent Progress.

Apart from the development of the three projects in the Bombay Presidency the past few years have witnessed comparatively little progress in hydro-electric works. The Mandi Project in the Punjab, which utilises the water of the Uhl river for the generation of power with which a large number of towns in that province will be electrified came into operation in 1933. The scheme has been formulated in three stages. The first is to develop 48,000 horse-power from the ordinary discharge of the river; the second involves the formation of a storage reservoir by the construction of a dam and would double the electrical output; whilst the third would utilize the same water several miles down-stream and provide an additional 64,000 horse-power. Only the first stage is at present constructed. Another interesting project is the hydro-electric grid scheme in the United Provinces which will carry electric power to a large number of towns and villages and will, it is anticipated, assist greatly in the development of rural areas.

A small plant was completed and put into operation at Naini Tal during 1923, and the erection of another small plant was commenced

at Shillong, but otherwise there is nothing to record. It is interesting to note, however, that preliminary investigations are proceeding with a view to the erection of hydro-electric plants in various parts of India. In the tea districts of Kalimpong and Kurseong, for example, it is proposed to harness a promising water-power site and to supply current to an important area in which are situated more than two hundred tea factories.

The Sutlej Hydro-Electric Project, at one time appeared to be one of the most promising propositions in the country, but owing to financial considerations it has now been indefinitely shelved. In Southern India a large number of sites have been investigated, and of these one on the Pykara river in the Nilgiris and another on the Kallar river on the borders of Travancore have been selected for development if and when the financial considerations can be satisfactorily settled. The Pykara river scheme is of some magnitude, and it is estimated that upwards of 50,000 horse-power will be available for electro-chemical industries which it is proposed to establish at Calicut on the West Coast. The Kallar river project is very much smaller, but it is interesting in being a scheme in which the Government of Madras and the Travancore Darbar will be jointly responsible, for the power house will be located on the British side of the river and the current transmitted to and distributed in Travancore State. Finally, there is a big combined project of hydro-electrification and irrigation in Hyderabad State. This scheme is still very much in the air, but the fact that it is under consideration is worthy of being placed on record in view of the somewhat unusual circumstance in India, that the tail water from the turbines will be made available for agricultural purposes and not allowed to run to waste.

The fact that the Bombay Electric Supply and Tramways Company has shut down its steam-driven generating plant and now takes its supply in bulk from the various Tata companies has been recorded above, and it is of more than passing interest to note that the Poona Electric Supply Company has recently adopted a similar course. This is a phase of hydro-electric distribution which is quite in its infancy in India, but it is possible to foresee the time when every village within a couple of hundred miles of a hydro-electric power station will receive its supply of electric current in bulk, thus greatly reducing capital and administrative charges and minimising the price of current to the consumer. It is a system which has become something of a fine art in California, where current is transmitted by overhead wires for many hundreds of miles at a pressure of 200,000 volts, or double the pressure commonly employed in India for overhead long-distance transmission.

INTEREST TABLE.

From 5 to 12 per cent; on Rupees 100

Calculated for 1 *Year*, 1 *Month* (*Calendar*), 1 *Week, and* 1 *Day* (365 *Days to a Year*), *the Decimal Fraction of a Pie for the Day being shown for the Day.*

Per cent.	1 *Day.*	1 *Week.*	1 *Month.*	1 *Year.*
	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.
5	0 0 2·630	0 1 6	0 6 8	5 0 0
6	0 0 3·156	0 1 10	0 8 0	6 0 0
7	0 0 3·682	0 2 1	0 9 4	7 0 0
8	0 0 4·208	0 2 5	0 10 8	8 0 0
9	0 0 4·734	0 2 9	0 12 0	9 0 0
10	0 0 5·260	0 3 0	0 13 4	10 0 0
11	0 0 5·786	0 3 4	0 14 8	11 0 0
12	0 0 6·312	0 3 8	1 0 0	12 0 0

Local Self-Government.

A field of the administration of India profoundly affected by the Reforms of 1919 is that of local government. This is one of the subjects transferred to Indian ministers, and under their leadership considerable developments have been essayed. On the whole, the progress of local government in India for the past quarter of a century has been disappointing. The greatest successes have been won in the Presidency towns, and particularly by the Municipality of Bombay. The difficulties in the way of progress were manifest. Local government had to be a creation —the devolution of authority from the Government to the local body, and that to a people who for centuries had been accustomed to autocratic administration. Again, the powers entrusted to local bodies were insignificant and the financial support was small. There are however many indications that the dry bones of the mofussil are stirring.

Throughout the greater part of India, the village constitutes the primary territorial unit of Government organisation, and from the villages are built up the larger administrative titles—tahsils, sub-divisions, and districts.

"The typical Indian village has its central residential site, with an open space for a pond and a cattle stand. Stretching around this nucleus lie the village lands, consisting of a cultivated area and (very often) grounds for grazing and wood-cutting.... The inhabitants of such a village pass their life in the midst of these simple surroundings, welded together in a little community with its own organisation and government, which differ in character in the various types of villages, its body of detailed customary rules and its little staff of functionaries, artisans and traders. It should be noted, however, that in certain portions of India, *e.g.*, in the greater part of Assam, in Eastern Bengal, and on the west coast of the Madras Presidency, the village as here described does not exist, the people living in small collections of houses or in separate homesteads."—(*Gazetteer of India.*)

The villages above described fall under two main classes, *viz.*—

Types of Villages.—"(1) The 'severalty' or raiyatwari village which is the prevalent form outside Northern India. Here the revenue is assessed on individual cultivators. There is no joint responsibility among the villagers, though some of the non-cultivated lands may be set apart for a common purpose, such as grazing, and waste land may be brought under the plough only with the permission of the Revenue authorities, and on payment of assessment. The village government vests in a hereditary headman, known by an old vernacular name, such as *patel* or *reddi*, who is responsible for law and order, and for the collection of the Government revenue. He represents the primitive headship of the tribe or clan by which the village was originally settled."

"(2) The joint or landlord village, the type prevalent in the United Provinces, the Punjab and the Frontier Province. Here the revenue was formerly assessed on the village as a whole, its incidence being distributed by the body of superior proprietors, and a certain amount of collective responsibility still, as a rule, remains. The village site is owned by the proprietary body who allow residences to the tenantry, artisans, traders and others. The waste land is allotted to the village, and, if wanted for cultivation, is partitioned among the shareholders. The village government was originally by the *punchayet* or group of heads of superior families. In later times one or more headmen have been added to the organisation to represent the village in its dealings with the local authorities; but the artificial character of this appointment, as compared with that which obtains in a raiyatwari village is evidenced by the title of its holder, which is generally *lambardar*, a vernacular derivative from the English word 'number.' It is this type of village to which the well-known description in Sir H. Maine's *Village Communities* is alone applicable, and here the co-proprietors are in general a local oligarchy with the bulk of the village population as tenants of labourers under them."

Village Autonomy.—The Indian villages formerly possessed a large degree of local autonomy, since the native dynasties and their local representatives did not, as a rule, concern themselves with the individual cultivators, but regarded the village as a whole, or some large landholder as responsible for the payment of the Government revenues, and the maintenance of local order. This autonomy has now disappeared owing to the establishment of local, civil and criminal courts, the present revenue and police organisation, the increase of communications, the growth of individualism, and the operation of the individual *raiyatwari* system, which is extending even in the north of India. Nevertheless, the village remains the first unit of administration; the principal village functionaries—the headman, the accountant, and the village watchman—are largely utilised and paid by Government, and there is still a certain amount of common village feeling and interests.

Punchayets.—For some years there was an active propaganda in favour of reviving the village council-tribunal, or *Punchayet* and the Decentralisation Commission of 1908 made the following special recommendations:—

"While, therefore, we desire the development of a *punchayet* system, and consider that the objections urged thereto are far from insurmountable we recognise that such a system can only be gradually and tentatively applied, and that it is impossible to suggest any uniform and definite method of procedure. We think that a commencement should be made by giving certain limited powers to *Punchayets* in those villages in which circumstances are most favourable by reason of homogeneity, natural intelligence, and freedom from internal feuds. These powers might be increased gradually as results warrant, and with success here, it will become easier to apply the system in other villages. Such a policy, which must be the work of many years, will require great care and discretion, much patience, and judicious discrimination between the circumstances of different villages; and there is a considerable consensus of opinion that this new departure should be made under the special guidance of sympathetic officers."

This is, however, still mainly a question of future possibilities, and for present purposes it is unnecessary to refer at greater length to the subject of village self-government. Various measures have been passed, but it is too early to say what life they have. The Punjab Government has passed a Village Punchayat Act, which enables Government to establish in a village, a system of councillors to whom certain local matters, including judicial power, both civil and criminal of a minor character, may be assigned. In Bihar a Village Administration Act has been passed for the administration of village affairs by villagers themselves, including minor civil and criminal cases. Other Governments are taking steps in the same direction.

Municipalities.—The Presidency towns had some form of Municipal administration, first under Royal Charters and later under statute, from comparatively early times, but outside of them there was practically no attempt at municipal legislation before 1842. An Act passed in that year for Bengal, which was practically inoperative, was followed in 1850 by an Act applying to the whole of India. Under this Act and subsequent Provincial Acts a large number of municipalities was formed in all provinces. The Acts provided for the appointment of commissioners to manage municipal affairs, and authorised the levy of various taxes, but in most Provinces the commissioners were all nominated, and from the point of view of self-government, these Acts did not proceed far. It was not until after 1870 that much progress was made. Lord Mayo's Government, in their Resolution of that year introducing the system of provincial finance, referred to the necessity of taking further steps to bring local interest and supervision to bear on the management of funds devoted to education, sanitation, medical, charity, and local public works. New Municipal Acts were passed for the various Provinces between 1871 and 1874, which, among other things, extended to the elective principle, but only in the Central Provinces was popular representation generally and successfully introduced. In 1881-2 Lord Ripon's Government issued orders which had the effect of greatly extending the principle of local self-government. Acts were passed in 1883-4 that greatly altered the constitution, powers, and functions of municipal bodies, a wide extension being given to the elective system, while independence and responsibility were conferred on the committees of many towns by permitting them to elect a private citizen as chairman. Arrangements were made also to increase municipal resources and financial responsibility, some items of provincial revenue [illegible] ited to and capable of development under [illegible] al management being transferred, with a proportionate amount of provincial expenditure, for [illegible] al objects. The general principles thus laid down have continued to govern the administration of municipalities down to the present day.

The Present Position.—There are some 781 municipalities in British India, with something over 21 million people resident within their limits. Of these municipalities, roughly 710 have a population of less than 50,000 persons and the remainder a population of 50,000 and over. As compared with the total population of particular provinces, the proportion resident within municipal limits is largest in Bombay, where it amounts to 20 per cent., and is smallest in Assam where it amounts to only 2 per cent. In other provinces it varies from 4 to 9 per cent. of the total population. Turning to the composition of the municipalities, considerably more than half of the total members are elected and there is a steady tendency to increase this proportion. Ex-officio members are only 7 per cent. and nominated 25 per cent. Elected members are almost everywhere in a majority. Taking all municipalities together, the non-officials outnumber the officials by nearly six to one. The functions of municipalities are classed under the heads of Public Safety, Health, Convenience and Instruction. For the discharge of these responsibilities, there is a municipal income of Rs. 14·03 crores derived principally from taxation, just over one-third coming from municipal property, contributions from provincial revenues and miscellaneous sources. Generally speaking, the income of municipalities is small, the four cities of Calcutta, Bombay, Madras and Rangoon together providing over 40 per cent. of the total. The heaviest items of this expenditure come under the heads of "Conservancy" and "Public Works" which amount to 14 per cent. and 13 per cent. respectively, "Water-supply" comes to 13 per cent., "Drainage" to 4 per cent. and "Education" to over 11 per cent. In some localities the expenditure on education is considerably in excess of the average. In the Bombay Presidency, excluding Bombay City, for example, the expenditure on education amounts to more than 21 per cent. of the total funds, while in the Central Provinces and Berar is is over 17 per cent.

District Boards.—The duties and functions assigned to the municipalities in urban areas are in rural areas entrusted to district and local Boards. In almost every district of British India save in the province of Assam, there is a board subordinate to which are two or more sub-district boards; while in Bengal, Madras and Bihar and Orissa, there are also Union Committees. Throughout India at large there are some 207 district boards with 584 sub-district boards besides 455 Union Panchayats in Madras. This machinery has jurisdiction over a population which was over 221 millions in 1930-31. Leaving aside the Union Committees and Union Boards or Panchayats the members of the Boards numbered over 16,000 in 1930-31, of whom 73 per cent. were elected. As in the case of municipalities the tendency has been throughout India to increase the elected members at the expense of the nominated and the official members. The Boards are practically manned by Indians, who constitute 96 per cent. of the whole membership. Only 11 per cent. of the total members of all boards are officials of any kind. The total income of the Boards in 1930-31 amounted to Rs. 16·57 crores, the average income of each board being Rs. 2,00,000. The most important item of revenue is provincial rates, which represent a proportion of the total income varying from 25 per cent. in Bombay and in the N. W. F. Province to 63 per cent. in Bihar and Orissa. The principal objects of expenditure are education which has come re-

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A field of the administration of India profoundly affected by the Reforms of 1919 is that of local government. This is one of the subjects transferred to Indian ministers, and under their leadership considerable developments have been essayed. On the whole, the progress of local government in India for the past quarter of a century has been disappointing. The greatest successes have been won in the Presidency towns, and particularly by the Municipality of Bombay. The difficulties in the way of progress were manifest. Local government had to be a creation —the devolution of authority from the Government to the local body, and that to a people who for centuries had been accustomed to autocratic administration. Again, the powers entrusted to local bodies were insignificant and the financial support was small. There are however many indications that the dry bones of the mofussil are stirring.

Throughout the greater part of India, the village constitutes the primary territorial unit of Government organisation, and from the villages are built up the larger administrative titles—tahsils, sub-divisions, and districts.

"The typical Indian village has its central residential site, with an open space for a pond and a cattle stand. Stretching around this nucleus lie the village lands, consisting of a cultivated area and (very often) grounds for grazing and wood-cutting.... The inhabitants of such a village pass their life in the midst of these simple surroundings, welded together in a little community with its own organisation and government, which differ in character in the various types of villages, its body of detailed customary rules and its little staff of functionaries, artisans and traders. It should be noted, however, that in certain portions of India, *e.g.*, in the greater part of Assam, in Eastern Bengal, and on the west coast of the Madras Presidency, the village as here described does not exist, the people living in small collections of houses or in separate homesteads."—(*Gazetteer of India.*)

The villages above described fall under two main classes, *viz.*—

Types of Villages.—"(1) The 'severalty' or raiyatwari village which is the prevalent form outside Northern India. Here the revenue is assessed on individual cultivators. There is no joint responsibility among the villagers, though some of the non-cultivated lands may be set apart for a common purpose, such as grazing, and waste land may be brought under the plough only with the permission of the Revenue authorities, and on payment of assessment. The village government vests in a hereditary headman, known by an old vernacular name, such as *patel* or *reddi*, who is responsible for law and order, and for the collection of the Government revenue. He represents the primitive headship of the tribe or clan by which the village was originally settled."

"(2) The joint or landlord village, the type prevalent in the United Provinces, the Punjab and the Frontier Province. Here the revenue was formerly assessed on the village as a whole, its incidence being distributed by the body of superior proprietors, and a certain amount of collective responsibility still, as a rule, remains. The village site is owned by the proprietary body who allow residences to the tenantry, artisans, traders and others. The waste land is allotted to the village, and, if wanted for cultivation, is partitioned among the shareholders. The village government was originally by the *punchayet* or group of heads of superior families. In later times one or more headmen have been added to the organisation to represent the village in its dealings with the local authorities; but the artificial character of this appointment, as compared with that which obtains in a raiyatwari village is evidenced by the title of its holder, which is generally *lambardar*, a vernacular derivative from the English word 'number.' It is this type of village to which the well-known description in Sir H. Maine's *Village Communities* is alone applicable, and here the co-proprietors are in general a local oligarchy with the bulk of the village population as tenants of labourers under them."

Village Autonomy.—The Indian villages formerly possessed a large degree of local autonomy, since the native dynasties and their local representatives did not, as a rule, concern themselves with the individual cultivators, but regarded the village as a whole, or some large landholder as responsible for the payment of the Government revenues, and the maintenance of local order. This autonomy has now disappeared owing to the establishment of local, civil and criminal courts, the present revenue and police organisation, the increase of communications, the growth of individualism, and the operation of the individual *raiyatwari* system, which is extending even in the north of India. Nevertheless, the village remains the first unit of administration; the principal village functionaries—the headman, the accountant, and the village watchman—are largely utilised and paid by Government, and there is still a certain amount of common village feeling and interests.

Punchayets.—For some years there was an active propaganda in favour of reviving the village council-tribunal, or *Punchayet* and the Decentralisation Commission of 1908 made the following special recommendations:—

"While, therefore, we desire the development of a *punchayet* system, and consider that the objections urged thereto are far from insurmountable we recognise that such a system can only be gradually and tentatively applied, and that it is impossible to suggest any uniform and definite method of procedure. We think that a commencement should be made by giving certain limited powers to *Punchayets* in those villages in which circumstances are most favourable by reason of homogeneity, natural intelligence, and freedom from internal feuds. These powers might be increased gradually as results warrant, and with success here, it will become easier to apply the system in other villages. Such a policy, which must be the work of many years, will require great care and discretion, much patience, and judicious discrimination between the circumstances of different villages: and there is a considerable consensus of opinion that this new departure should be made under the special guidance of sympathetic officers."

This is, however, still mainly a question of future possibilities, and for present purposes it is unnecessary to refer at greater length to the subject of village self-government. Various measures have been passed, but it is too early to say what life they have. The Punjab Government has passed a Village Punchayat Act, which enables Government to establish in a village, a system of councillors to whom certain local matters, including judicial power, both civil and criminal of a minor character, may be assigned. In Bihar a Village Administration Act has been passed for the administration of village affairs by villagers themselves, including minor civil and criminal cases. Other Governments are taking steps in the same direction.

Municipalities.—The Presidency towns had some form of Municipal administration, first under Royal Charters and later under statute, from comparatively early times, but outside of them there was practically no attempt at municipal legislation before 1842. An Act passed in that year for Bengal, which was practically inoperative, was followed in 1850 by an Act applying to the whole of India. Under this Act and subsequent Provincial Acts a large number of municipalities was formed in all provinces. The Acts provided for the appointment of commissioners to manage municipal affairs, and authorised the levy of various taxes, but in most Provinces the commissioners were all nominated, and from the point of view of self-government, these Acts did not proceed far. It was not until after 1870 that much progress was made. Lord Mayo's Government, in their Resolution of that year introducing the system of provincial finance, referred to the necessity of taking further steps to bring local interest and supervision to bear on the management of funds devoted to education, sanitation, medical, charity, and local public works. New Municipal Acts were passed for the various Provinces between 1871 and 1874, which, among other things, extended to the elective principle, but only in the Central Provinces was popular representation generally and successfully introduced. In 1881-2 Lord Ripon's Government issued orders which had the effect of greatly extending the principle of local self-government. Acts were passed in 1883-4 that greatly altered the constitution, powers, and functions of municipal bodies, a wide extension being given to the elective system, while independence and responsibility were conferred on the committees of many towns by permitting them to elect a private citizen as chairman. Arrangements were made also to increase municipal resources and financial responsibility, some items of provincial revenue suited to and capable of development under local management being transferred, with a proportionate amount of provincial expenditure, for local objects. The general principles thus laid down have continued to govern the administration of municipalities down to the present day.

The Present Position.—There are some 781 municipalities in British India, with something over 21 million people resident within their limits. Of these municipalities, roughly 710 have a population of less than 50,000 persons and the remainder a population of 50,000 and over. As compared with the total population of particular provinces, the proportion resident within municipal limits is largest in Bombay, where it amounts to 20 per cent., and is smallest in Assam where it amounts to only 2 per cent. In other provinces it varies from 4 to 9 per cent. of the total population. Turning to the composition of the municipalities, considerably more than half of the total members are elected and there is a steady tendency to increase this proportion. Ex-officio members are only 7 per cent. and nominated 25 per cent. Elected members are almost everywhere in a majority. Taking all municipalities together, the non-officials outnumber the officials by nearly six to one. The functions of municipalities are classed under the heads of Public Safety, Health, Convenience and Instruction. For the discharge of these responsibilities, there is a municipal income of Rs. 14·03 crores derived principally from taxation, just over one-third coming from municipal property, contributions from provincial revenues and miscellaneous sources. Generally speaking, the income of municipalities is small, the four cities of Calcutta, Bombay, Madras and Rangoon together providing over 40 per cent. of the total. The heaviest items of this expenditure come under the heads of "Conservancy" and "Public Works" which amount to 14 per cent. and 13 per cent. respectively, "Water-supply" comes to 13 per cent., "Drainage" to 4 per cent. and "Education" to over 11 per cent. In some localities the expenditure on education is considerably in excess of the average. In the Bombay Presidency, excluding Bombay City, for example, the expenditure on education amounts to more than 21 per cent. of the total funds, while in the Central Provinces and Berar is is over 17 per cent.

District Boards.—The duties and functions assigned to the municipalities in urban areas are in rural areas entrusted to district and local Boards. In almost every district of British India save in the province of Assam, there is a board subordinate to which are two or more sub-district boards; while in Bengal, Madras and Bihar and Orissa, there are also Union Committees. Throughout India at large there are some 207 district boards with 584 sub-district boards besides 455 Union Panchayats in Madras. This machinery has jurisdiction over a population which was over 221 millions in 1930-31. Leaving aside the Union Committees and Union Boards or Panchayats the members of the Boards numbered over 16,000 in 1930-31, of whom 73 per cent. were elected. As in the case of municipalities the tendency has been throughout India to increase the elected members at the expense of the nominated and the official members. The Boards are practically manned by Indians, who constitute 96 per cent. of the whole membership. Only 11 per cent. of the total members of all boards are officials of any kind. The total income of the Boards in 1930-31 amounted to Rs. 16·57 crores, the average income of each board being Rs. 2,00,000. The most important item of revenue is provincial rates, which represent a proportion of the total income varying from 25 per cent. in Bombay and in the N. W. F. Province to 63 per cent. in Bihar and Orissa. The principal objects of expenditure are education which has come re-

markably to the front within the last three years and civil works such as roads and bridges. Medical relief is also sharing with education though in a less degree the lion's share of the available revenue.

Improvement Trust.—A notable feature in the recent sanitary history of India is the activity played by the great cities in the direction of social improvements. In Bombay and Calcutta the Improvement Trusts are continuing their activities which are described in a separate chapter (q.v.). In Bombay the work of the Improvement Trust is being developed by the Bombay Development Directorate. Other cities are beginning to follow the examples of these great cities and Improvement Trusts have been constituted in Cawnpore, Lucknow and Allahabad in the United Provinces and in several of the larger cities of the Provinces of India. Their activities have, however, been severely curtailed by the financial stress.

Provincial Progress.—There was passed in *Bengal* in 1919 a Village Self-Government Act embodying the policy of constituting Union Boards at the earliest possible date for groups of villages throughout the province. The number of these boards continues to increase, rising from 1,500 to more than 2,000. In 1930-31 the number of Union Boards rose to 4,510. There are also 12 Union Committees. Though they are in their infancy as yet, many of them show a remarkable aptitude for managing their own affairs.

In *Bombay* the development of village self-government is also proceeding, as the result of an Act for constituting, or increasing the power of village committees which was passed in 1920 by the Legislative Council. In this presidency, some 145 out of 155 municipalities had a two-thirds elected majority of councillors in the year 1930-31; and a distinct step forward has been projected by the administration in the direction of liberalizing the constitution of all municipal bodies. The policy of appointing a non-official president has been extended both to district and sub-district boards, and a large number of non-officials have also been appointed presidents of sub-districts (taluka) boards. In *Madras* also the institutions of local self-government continued to progress in an encouraging manner. The number of district boards in the Presidency in 1931 was 25 with 1,005 members. The number of sub-district boards was 130. The total number of Municipal Councils during the year 1930-31 continued to be 81 and the proportion of Indian to European and Anglo-Indian members further increased. In 1930-31 there were 54 municipal councils, consisting entirely of Indian members, as against 51 in the previous year. The average imposition of taxation per head of population is still very low, being only about Rs. 2-8.

In the *United Provinces* the new District Boards, which consist of non-official members only with elected non-official Chairman, were plunged straight-way into financial difficulties. In some cases the necessity for retrenchment was immediate, resulting in the curtailment of medical relief and of allotments for the ordinary repairs of roads. Additional taxation has so far not been generally imposed and the Boards are still suffering from inexperience in husbanding public money and obtaining the full value for their expenditure. In the case of Municipal Finances, there has been some change for the better. The new municipalities have shown a great interest in all forms of civic activity but they are still hampered in their work by political and communal obsessions. They are reluctant to impose new taxation but a considerable programme of expenditure lies before them.

In the *Punjab* municipal administration continued to show improvement, the general attitude of the members in regard to their responsibilities being promising for progress in the future. Generally speaking the finances are in a more satisfactory position than was the case in previous years. Expenditure on water-supply schemes is steadily increasing.

In the *Central Provinces*, the year 1920 witnessed the passing of a Local Self-Government Act intended to guide into proper channels the undoubtedly growing interest in public matters. The continued reduction of official members and chairman, and the wider powers of control given to local bodies have been an incentive to the development of local self-government, leading to an increased sense of public duty and responsibility. Another very important measure regulating municipalities was passed into law in 1922. Its chief features are the extension of the Municipal franchise, the reduction of official and nominated members, the extension of the powers of Municipal Committees and the relaxation of official control.

In the *North-West Frontier Province*, the institution of local self-government is somewhat of a foreign growth. Certain of the municipal committees are still lax in the discharge of their responsibilities, and meetings are reported to be infrequent, but the attendance of non-official members is gradually increasing. Concerning Municipal administration the Local Government reports that the members continue to take a very great interest in their duties and that their attitude towards the responsibility is imposed upon them is on the whole satisfactory. Communal feeling shows itself in certain localities; but is in many instances off-set by the public spirit and initiative of individual members and there are considerable symptoms of advance in independence of action and in the smooth working of the Committees. An important-extension of the elective principle has recently been made and it is hoped that this is proving a success.

District and Local Boards.

The following table gives the membership, Income and Expenditure of District and Local Boards in the same financial year:—

Province.	No. of Boards	No. of Members.		Income (excluding Balances).					Expenditure.				
		Elected.	*Ex-officio* and Nominated.	Provincial Rates.	Civil Works.	Other Sources.	Total.	Incidence per Head.	Education.	Civil Works.	Sanitation, Hospital, etc.	Debt and Miscellaneous.	Total.
				Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs. a. p.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Madras ..	(*a*) 610	6,529	2,069	1,18,43,618	1,48,65,545	3,28,15,767	5,95,24,930	1 3 5	1,20,99,469	2,60,28,844	37,31,763	1,88,87,373	6,07,47,449
Bombay ..	249	3,320	995	50,42,264	27,22,918	1,55,06,644	2,32,71,826	1 3 6	1,24,43,777	49,87,845	13,33,532	47,51,397	2,35,16,561
Bengal ..	109	1,303	765	76,05,985	16,24,288	55,67,842	1,47,98,115	0 4 11	37,69,581	50,96,442	34,49,095	25,33,236	1,48,48,354
United Provinces ..	48	1,407	95	77,06,514	14,75,385	1,01,90,350	1,93,72,249	0 6 8	1,14,69,466	35,82,893	46,45,708	2,95,927	1,99,93,994
Punjab ..	29	832	347	63,45,046	18,46,906	1,29,04,507	2,10,96,459	1 0 0	1,11,59,252	14,31,223	27,43,473	61,21,774	2,14,55,722
Bihar and Orissa ..	66	887	311	71,08,854	9,52,498	55,90,696	1,36,52,048	0 7 3	48,00,449	45,89,942	23,75,174	23,44,699	1,41,10,264
C. P. & Berar..	108	1,404	495	25,18,533	3,48,107	53,96,698	82,63,338	0 6 2	31,44,413	9,54,422	5,10,061	36,13,609	82,22,505
Assam ..	19	360	104	11,06,730	9,78,553	15,18,974	36,04,257	0 7 3	13,91,834	12,38,600	6,18,676	5,43,935	37,93,045
N. W. Frontier Province ..	5	..	221	2,44,992	2,06,478	10,50,042	15,01,512	1 2 9	10,27,276	1,64,977	1,34,147	1,81,350	15,07,750
Ajmer-Merwara	1	16	27	31,329	1,33,390	64,535	2,29,263	0 6 7	55,669	47,122	33,070	1,01,211	2,37,072
Coorg ..	1	13	7	57,669	44,306	43,675	1,45,650	0 14 3	67,708	31,261	29,421	30,686	1,59,076
Delhi	1	12	8	49,855	19,014	1,76,426	2,45,295	1 4 4	1,30,837	41,491	34,920	42,705	2,49,953
Total 1930-31..	1,246	16,083	5,444	4,96,61,389	2,52,17,397	9,08,26,156	16,57,04,942	0 10 5	6,15,59,731	4,81,95,062	1,96,39,040	3,94,47,902	16,88,41,735

(*a*) Includes 455 Union Panchayets with 4,043 elected and 1,071 ex-officio and nominated members.

Local Government Statistics.

Municipalities.—With this general introduction we can now turn to the statistical results of the working of Local Self-Government. The following table gives information as to the constitution of municipal committees, taxation, &c., in the chief provinces in 1930-31 :—

Province.	Population within Municipal Limits.	Number of Municipalities.	Number of Members of Committees.	Classification of Members.		Income.	Incidence per Head of Population.		Expenditure.
				Official.	Non-official.		Rates and Taxes.	Total Income (excluding Extraordinary and Debt.)	
Presidency Towns.						Rs.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs.
Calcutta	1,077,264	1	90	1	89	4,64,73,418	16 9 3	19 14 5	4,25,15,073
Bombay City	1,168,383	1	108	4	104	16,63,24,539	23 14 4	27 10 0	16,59,91,737
Madras City	647,228	1	49	1	48	1,07,93,586	6 15 11	10 15 9	93,34,378
Rangoon	398,971	1	34	4	30	1,33,42,806	19 6 3	26 2 4	1,31,55,443
District Municipalities.									
Bengal (excluding Calcutta) ..	2,113,907	117	1,661	120	1,541	94,99,831	3 3 9	4 0 4	96,75,593
Bihar and Orissa	1,337,345	61	1,031	117	914	52,32,982	2 3 8	2 15 9	44,66,171
Assam	214,650	25	283	7	276	13,16,719	3 3 2	5 6 11	13,55,257
Bombay (excluding Bombay City)..	3,045,994	154	3,051	199	2,852	3,84,02,690	5 4 4	7 6 0	3,89,92,357
Madras (excluding Madras City) ..	2,725,190	81	1,689	6	1,683	2,09,31,578	2 7 5	5 12 4	2,18,01,802
United Provinces	2,917,150	85	1,142	13	1,129	1,69,52,904	3 13 2	5 7 11	1,68,73,932
Punjab	2,476,945	107	1,256	103	1,153	1,36,69,870	3 1 1	5 7 0	1,40,15,220
N. W. F. Province	248,101	7	135	38	97	15,41,347	3 14 7	8 11 5	16,34,299
Central Provinces and Berar ..	1,361,537	71	1,248	51	1,197	81,64,733	3 5 8	5 0 10	87,15,730
Burma (excluding Rangoon) ..	909,199	57	775	91	684	78,28,061	3 10 6	8 1 9	80,84,408
British Baluchistan	34,881	1	38	5	33	7,61,600	14 8 4	19 7 0	7,58,473
Ajmer-Merwara	157,751	4	60	7	53	6,34,961	2 6 6	3 12 3	6,24,884
Coorg	13,916	5	61	19	42	48,919	2 1 9	3 8 0	51,212
Delhi	247,935	1	37	3	34	29,92,435	5 9 9	11 15 10	33,60,257
Bangalore	134,123	1	28	8	20	10,57,871	4 5 8	7 4 4	10,53,350
Total 1930-31 ..	21,230,470	781	12,776	797	11,979	36,59,70,350	5 15 7	8 4 6	36,24,59,576

Calcutta Improvement Trust.

The Calcutta Improvement Trust was instituted by Government in January, 1912, with a view to making provision for the improvement and expansion of Calcutta by opening up congested areas, laying out or altering streets, providing open spaces for purposes of ventilation or recreation, demolishing or constructing buildings and re-housing the poorer and working classes displaced by the execution of improvement schemes.

The origin of the Calcutta Improvement Trust must, as in the case of the corresponding Bombay body, upon which the Calcutta Trust was to a large extent modelled, be looked for in a medical enquiry which was instituted into the sanitary condition of the town in 1896, owing to the outbreak of plague. It was estimated that the Trust might in the ensuing 30 years have to provide for the housing of 225,000 persons. The population of Calcutta proper, which includes all the most crowded areas, was 649,995 in 1891, and increased to 801,251, or by 25 per cent., by 1901. The corresponding figure according to the 1921 Census was 993,508 and this had increased by 1931 to 1,196,734.

The problem of expansion was difficult, because of the peculiar situation of Calcutta, which is shut in on one side by the Hooghly and on the other by the Salt Lakes.

Preliminary investigations continued for several years, so that it was only in 1910 that legislation was eventually introduced in the provincial legislature and the Trust instituted by it. The Bill provided for a large expenditure on improvement schemes and the provision of open spaces and for special local taxation to this end. It also provided for the appointment of a wholetime chairman of the Board of Trustees and the membership of the Trust was fixed at eleven.

The following constituted the Board of Trustees at 31st March 1933 :—Mr. C. W. Gurner, (Offg.) I.C.S., Chairman; Mr. J. C. Mukherjea, Bar-at-Law, Chief Executive Officer, Calcutta Corporation (*ex-officio*); Mr. S. C. Ghosh, elected by the Corporation of Calcutta under Section 7 (1) (*a*) of the Calcutta Improvement Act, 1911; Mr. Prabhudayal Himatsinghka elected by the elected Councillors, Corporation of Calcutta, under Section 7 (1) (*b*) of the Calcutta Improvement Act, 1911, as modified by the Amendment Act of 1926; Mr. Charu Chandra Biswas, C.I.E., elected by Councillors other than elected Councillors of the Corporation of Calcutta, under Section 7 (1) (*c*) of the Calcutta Improvement Act, 1911, as modified by the Amendment Act of 1926; Mr. W. H. Thompson, elected by the Bengal Chamber of Commerce; Sir Hari Sankar Paul, Kt., elected by the Bengal National Chamber of Commerce; Mr. Unsud Dowla Rai Badridas Goenka Bahadur, C.I.E., Rai Bahadur Dr. Haridhan Dut, Mr. A. J. Thompson, A.R.I.B.A., appointed by the Local Government.

During the 21 years that it has now been at work, the Trust have decided, and partly or entirely carried through, several improvement schemes for opening up congested areas, laying out or widening streets and providing open spaces.

In Central Calcutta many highly insanitary *bustees* have been done away with and several roads of an improved type laid out, the most important of which is the Chittaranjan Avenue, 100 ft. wide, which at present extends from Beadon Street to Chowringhee, and will shortly be extended to Shambazar Street on the north. It is intended ultimately to extend it up to the Chitpur bridge. But at present there is the direct connexion between Chitpur bridge and the Barrackpore Trunk Road, as Lockgate Road has been severed by the sidings of the Eastern Bengal Railway. In these circumstances the Board considered that traffic would be better served by postponing the extension to Chitpur Bridge and constructing a road to Shambazar which is the terminus of the Barrackpore Trunk Road and of the Dum-Dum-Jessore Road. A scheme known as Scheme No. XXXVII has been sanctioned by Government under Section 48 of the Calcutta Improvement Act which provides *inter alia* for the extension of Chittaranjan Avenue up to Raja Rajballab Street and for the construction of a new 84 feet new road connecting it with Cornwallis Street. The Section of Chittaranjan Avenue near the Chowringhee end is well placed for commerce and trade and is likely before long to gain increased importance by being linked up with Dalhousie Square by means of a new road 84 feet wide which the Trust proposes to construct between Mission Row and Mangoe Lane.

In the north of the City, two large and thirteen small parks have been constructed in different quarters. Of the two large parks one is named Deshabandhu Park and the other Cossipore-Chitpore open space measuring 53 bighas and 156 bighas respectively. The Cossipore-Chitpore Park has a small artificial lake and the layout of the areas surrounding the lake has been taken in hand. Four football grounds have been provided for schools and clubs of North Calcutta. Some tennis courts are also being made. The Deshabandhu Park has also been provided with play-grounds. Several wide roads have been driven through this highly congested area. The approaches to the City have also been adequately widened.

Some progress has also been made with that highly congested area to the west of the City by opening up new roads and widening the existing ones. This Scheme is known as Maydapati, Scheme No. XXVII.

The new 84 ft. road connecting Chittaranjan Avenue with Strand Road slightly to the north of Jagannath Ghat has been completed so that there is now a continuous main traffic route with the same width of roadway as Chittaranjan Avenue, extending right across Calcutta from Strand Road on the west to Upper Circular Road on the east. The widening of Maniktala Road between Upper Circular Road and Maniktala Bridge which has been completed forms a further extension of this main roadway which will eventually continue at a width of 100 ft. to the extreme eastern limit of Maniktala. Another important scheme which is now complete is the new 60 ft. road between Derpanarayan Tagore Street and Pathuriaghat Street which, with its side roads, opens up a very congested area and forms a portion of a main projected north and south road through Bara Bazar from Harrison Road to a new main east-and-west diagonal road through Ahiritollah.

The passing of the Calcutta Improvement (Amendment) Act, 1931, which empowers the Board of Trustees in certain cases to levy betterment fees on properties which abut on to a new or widened street instead of acquiring the properties has made it financially possible for the Trust to proceed with some portion of its original programme for the improvement of Barabazaar. The Kalakar Street scheme in Barabazaar which forms the southern section of the aforesaid road is one of the schemes to which the new Act is to be applied. It has been published under Section 43 of the Calcutta Improvement Act, and sanctioned by Government Another scheme which has received the sanction of Government and to which the new Act is to be applied is the widening of a short length of Darmahatta Street and it will be interesting to see how the methods of assessment provided for in the Act will work out in practice.

The Suburban Areas to the south and south-east of Calcutta required greater attention and extensive development schemes were undertaken. Several open spaces and squares have been made in various parts. Insanitary tanks requiring approximately 2 crores c.ft. of earth have been filled up. Russa Road which forms the southern approach to the town has been widened to 150 ft. for a length of one mile and 100 ft. for a length of another mile. It now gives a most pleasant drive from Chowringhee to Tollygunge. To improve the drainage of this area a 100 ft. wide East to West road, from Ballygunge Railway Station to Chetla Bridge, and for recreation an artificial lake of 167 bighas with adequate grounds has been completed.

Another small lake has also been completed and a road is being constructed round it to link up with the road surrounding the main lake. The road round the main lake has been surfaced with asphalt and lighted with electricity and is much frequented in the evenings. Sites for Club houses adjoining the main lake have been allotted to several clubs. Excavation has been continued in a new section of the lake which is to be attractively laid out with an island to which the public will have access by means of a footbridge. The Calcutta Tramways Co., Ltd., have now extended tram tracks from Russa Road along New Sewer Road to Ballygunge Station.

The Board of Trustees have framed a scheme for the extension southwards of Lansdowne Road which has received Government sanction; acquisition of land was completed and all the new and widened roads have been completed and opened to traffic; surplus lands are now ready for sale; the Board in pursuance of its policy of "carrying out schemes in the centre of the town and in the suburbs simultaneously, so as to have an adequate supply of suburban sites for residential buildings to meet the needs of those displaced from overcrowded areas in the centre of the town has also framed a scheme known as Scheme No. XXXIII for the improvement of another section of the undeveloped area between Russa Road and the Lake District. This too has received sanction of Government and land acquisition is in progress.

To the east of the city, several new roads have been constructed in Scheme No. VIIIC (New Ballygunge Road—Park Circus to Old Ballygunge Road). They are now open to traffic, and the majority of them are surfaced with asphalt. Arrangements have been made for lighting the roads with electricity. The development of Calcutta east of Lower Circular Road, between Park Circus and Middle Road Entally, is a pressing need, but the work can only proceed slowly in small sections. The Trust in the execution of this scheme cannot ignore the bustee dwellers, who are pushed further east, as the development from bustee conditions to blocks of masonry buildings proceeds. The utilisation of highly-improved lands for bustee purposes is not an economic proposition, but at the same time, it is necessary to provide the essentials of sanitation for the working classes.

The linking up of Amherst Street with Loudon Street by a broad thoroughfare has commenced. The Trust is constructing a large park near Park Circus, Scheme No. VIII, known as Eastern Park, measuring 65 bighas. It will have a large playing field for football and tennis. The Gorachand Road Scheme provides for the completion of the northern portion of this park and the commencement of a wide avenue running parallel to Lower Circular Road through the outer fringe of Entally. As the scheme involved the demolition of a large number of bustees, investigations were made to ascertain the best means of reducing the displaced bustee population as a result of which a Rehousing Scheme at Christopher Road which will cost the Trust Rs. 2,70,000 for land acquisition and Rs. 1,97,000 for engineering works has been framed and has received the sanction of Government.

The public squares vested in the Calcutta Corporation in 1911 had a total area of about 96 acres. In 1912, Mr. Bompas, the first Chairman of the Trust, pointed out that in the ratio, *viz.*, about 9 per cent. of its public open spaces which measured about 1,250 acres (including the Maidan, the Horticultural and the Zoological Gardens) to its total acreage, Calcutta was almost on a par at that time with London possessing 6,675 acres of public parks or gardens, while its percentage exceeded that of New York, Berlin and Birmingham. But about 1,000 acres of Calcutta's 1,250 was accounted for in

the Maidan and new open spaces in other parts of Calcutta were an urgent need. Up to date the Trust had added (including the new lake at Dhakuria)—another 250 acres.

Lastly for the housing of the displaced population the Trust has undertaken on a large scale the following schemes :—

In the early stages three blocks of three storied tenement buildings containing 252 lettable rooms were built in Wards Institution Street for persons of the poorer classes. It was found, however, that the persons displaced preferred to take their compensation and migrate to some place where they could erect *bastis* of their own, the class of structures they were accustomed to live in. These chawls were then filled with persons of limited means, *e.g.*, school masters, poor students, clerks and persons of the artisan class. As many as 1,200 people are housed in these chawls, these buildings, including land, cost Rs. 2,44,368 and are let at very low rents—ground floor rooms at Rs. 5 per mensem and top floor rooms on Rs. 6 per mensem, each room measuring 12′×12′ with a 4 ft. verandah in front opening on to a central passage 7 ft. wide. The total collection of rent during the year 1932-33 including previous year arrear was Rs. 14,601.

As these chawls failed to attract the people for whom they were meant, the Board next tried an experiment in providing sites for bustees. Two sites with a lettable area of 16 bighas were acquired within the area of Maniktola Municipality, but they failed to attract because they were out of the way and were expensive.

Kerbala Tank Lane Re-Housing Scheme.—In this scheme 4 detached and 35 semi-detached houses were built. The detached houses were sold as this scheme never became popular with the class of tenants for whom they were originally intended. Owing to this unpopularity the Board further decided to throw open to tenants of all classes 18 out of the remaining 35 semi-detached houses. This change of policy, however, produced no effect on the letting.

Owing to want of suitable tenants the entire dwellings in Kerbala Tank Re-housing scheme had been sold by private sale shortly after the 31st March 1927.

Bow Street Re-Housing Scheme.—Seven blocks of buildings containing one-roomed, two-roomed and three-roomed suites have been constructed to re-house Anglo-Indians displaced by the operations of the Trust. This scheme has proved a striking success. There are 132 suites for letting and the rent received from these suites during the year 1932-33, amounted to Rs. 30,574.

Paikpara Re-Housing Scheme.—This scheme has an area of 36 bighas well laid out in 96 building sites. A new re-housing scheme has been undertaken by the Board, as already stated, at Christopher Road for the Bustee population to be displaced by the execution of scheme No. XXXV (Eastern Park, to Gorachand Road). A special feature of the new scheme is that the land is to be developed as a model bustee for displaced bustee dwellers. Special facilities are offered to dishoused persons for securing land in various improved areas for reinstatement purposes.

Bridges.—Some progress has been made in replacing the old bridges of Calcutta, which is hemmed in by canals and railway lines inadequately bridged, by modern and up-to-date bridges to suit the growing traffic requirements. The opportunity is being taken of widening the Maniktala, Narikeldanga and Beliaghata Bridge approaches on both sides—on the west (in the case of Maniktala and Narkeldanga Bridges) right up to Circular Road. The new bridges of the city will in their traffic capacity compare favourably with those of London. The new Bridges at Maniktala, Beliaghata and at Shambazar have roadways of 37 feet, with two footpaths each 10 feet in width. The Chitpore Bridge reconstruction of which has been taken in hand has been redesigned as a reinforced Concrete bridge capable of accommodating four lines of fast traffic and two lines of slow traffic and should be completed in 1933-34. The Alipore Bridge, the reconstruction of which has been Completed, is to have a roadway of 30 feet (3 traffic widths) and 2 footpaths of 6 feet each, and these are also to be the probable widths of the Tollygunge and Hastings Bridges which need re-building. The Chelsea, Hammersmith and Waterloo Bridges have all-over widths of 45, 39 and 42 feet, respectively, the roadways being 29, 27 and 28 feet, that is 3 traffic widths. Even London Bridge with an all-over width of 65 feet has only a 37-foot roadway (4 traffic widths) and Westminster Bridge which is 84 feet in width spares only 54 feet (*i.e.*, 6 traffic widths, like the 60 feet of Kidderpore Bridges for wheeled traffic.

Financial.—Capital charges during the year 1932-33 amounted to Rs. 60.67 lakhs which included Rs. 51.02 lakhs spent on land acquisition and Rs. 7.59 lakhs on engineering works. The gross expenditure of the Trust on Capital Works up to the end of the year 1932-33 was Rs. 13,59,35,000. To meet this large expenditure, the Trust has borrowed Rs. 2,48,50,000; other Capital receipts (mainly from the sale of land and buildings) have yielded Rs. 6,64,89,000 and the revenue fund from its annual surplus (after providing for the service of loans has contributed Rs. 4.46 crores to Capital Works.

The Indian Ports.

The administration of the affairs of the larger ports (*Calcutta, Bombay, Madras, Karachi, Rangoon and Chittagong*) is vested by law in bodies specially constituted for the purpose. They have wide powers, but their proceedings are subject in a greater degree than those of municipal bodies to the control of Government. At all the ports the European members constitute the majority and the Board for Rangoon consists mainly of European members.

Figures for 1931-32 relating to income, expenditure and capital debt of the six principal ports managed by Trusts (Aden is excluded from the tables) as obtainable from the Department of Commercial Intelligence and Statistics (India) are shown in the following table:—

	Income.	Expenditure.	Capital Debt.
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Calcutta	2,67,01,863	3,13,44,345	24,57,49,754
Bombay	2,65,35,984	2,88,04,964	21,84,76,466
Madras	33,69,109	32,67,262	1,63,88,439
Karachi	67,60,868	73,64,590	4,25,09,000
Rangoon	75,67,473	78,53,757	5,68,43,517
Chittagong	7,55,762	7,52,293	* 24,25,961

* Includes the first instalment of Rs. 15 lakhs, the second instalment of Rs. 5 lakhs, and the third instalment of Rs. 2 lakhs, of a loan of Rs. 50 lakhs from the Government of Bengal.

CALCUTTA.

The Commissioners for the Port of Calcutta are as follows:—

Mr. T. H. Elderton, Chairman.

Mr. W. A. Burns, Deputy Chairman and Traffic Manager.

Elected by the Bengal Chamber of Commerce.—Mr. J. S. Henderson; Mr. A. L. B. Tucker; Mr. M. A. Hughes; Mr. K. J. Nicolson; Mr. S. D. Gladstone; Mr. J. Reid Kay.

Elected by the Calcutta Trades Association.—Mr. C. H. Pratt.

Elected by the Bengal National Chamber of Commerce.—Rai Bahadur, A. C. Banerjee C.I.E.; Mr. Nalini Ranjan Sarkar; Mr. J. C. Banerjee.

Elected by the Indian Chamber of Commerce.—Mr. G. L. Mehta.

Elected by the Municipal Corporation of Calcutta.—Mr. D. J. Cohen.

Nominated by Government.—Commander R. H. Garstin, O.B.E., R.I.M.; Sir Hugh Hannay; Rai Bahadur B. R. Singh; Mr. V. E. D. Jarard; Mr. G. N. Bower.

The principal officers of the Trust are—

Traffic Manager.—Mr. W. A. Burns.

Chief Accountant.—Mr. J. Dand, C.A.

Chief Engineer.—Mr. J. R. Rowley, A.K.C., M. Inst. C.E.

Deputy Conservator.—Commander C. V. L. Norcock, O.B.E., R.N.

Medical Officer.—Lt.-Col. W. L. Harnet, M.B., F.R.C.S., I.M.S.

Consulting Engineer and London Agent.—Mr. J. Angus, M. Inst. C.E.

The traffic figures and the income of the Trust for the last fifteen years are as follows:—

Year.	Docks.			Jetties.	Stream.		Nett tonnage of shipping entering the Port.	Income.
	General Exports	Coal Exports	Imports.	Imports.	Exports.	Imports.		
	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Rs.
1914-15	920,659	2,633,805	700,133	917,978			3,714,344	1,44,50,349
1915-16	1,054,985	1,610,645	570,997	788,431			2,967,798	1,59,35,456
1916-17	1,185,159	1,994,528	444,210	686,010			2,804,380	1,57,23,432
1917-18	995,112	1,014,993	363,383	633,693			2,094,011	1,58,39,175
1918-19	1,097,562	1,333,285	482,403	574,833			2,292,462	1,90,58,513
1919-20	1,146,479	2,264,976	653,066	713,740			2,941,846	2,23,55,614
1920-21	1,133,719	3,046,400	413,357	685,080			4,017,514	2,66,08,032
1921-22	974,783	1,687,222	697,361	622,411			3,446,021	2,19,17,042
1922-23	1,414,166	1,174,041	304,109	680,053			3,336,722	2,64,75,522
1923-24	1,722,305	1,325,801	221,035	761,920			3,621,243	2,60,89,027
1924-25	1,779,054	1,495,915	290,412	874,714			3,845,788	2,78,23,364
1925-26	1,494,442	1,796,409	352,714	951,442	2,231,637	1,601,941	3,887,592	3,21,27,748
1926-27	1,465,854	2,476,794	455,577	963,297	2,344,800	1,513,885	4,177,118	3,12,02,183
1927-28	1,837,371	2,817,443	480,367	1,007,917	2,689,186	1,606,728	4,638,569	3,38,82,124
1928-29	1,750,969	2,644,256	1,164,631	1,049,668	2,524,201	1,706,559	4,818,831	3,41,82,729
1929-30	1,985,042	3,016,185	853,452	829,902	2,539,653	1,646,932	4,985,999	3,43,98,110
1930-31	1,440,371	2,389,393	646,844	553,317	2,145,837	1,552,502	4,381,953	2,83,73,490
1931-32	1,251,060	2,595,012	586,902	380,324	1,748,950	1,365,076	4,189,742	2,67,01,863
1932-33	1,123,420	2,559,136	362,023	469,513	1,665,432	1,332,672	3,828,983	2,46,36,681

BOMBAY.

BOARD OF TRUSTEES.—*Nominated by Government.*—Mr. W. R. S. Sharpe, M. INST. T (Chairman); Vice-Admiral Sir Humphrey Walwyn, K.C.S.I., C.B., D.S.O., R.N.; Mr. Syed Munawar; Mr. C. W. E. Arbuthnot, C.I.E.; Mr. H. K. Kirpalani, I.C.S.; Mr. M. Slade, I.C.S., Major-General H. Needham, C.B., C.M.G., D.S.O.; Mr. M. W. Brayshay and Mr. A. E. Tyldenpattenson. *Elected by the Bombay Chamber of Commerce.*—Mr. T. E. Cunningham; Mr. E. C. Reid; Mr G. H. Cooke; Mr. W. G. Lely and Mr. W. M. Petrie. *Elected by the Indian Merchants' Chamber.*—Sir Purshotamdas Thakurdas, Kt., C.I.E., M.B.E.; Mr. Lakhmidas Rowjee Tairsee; Mr. Gordhandas Goculdas Morarji; Mr. Ratilal M. Gandhi and Mr. A. D. Shroff. *Elected by the Bombay Municipal Corporation.*—Mr. Meyer Nissim and Mr. Hoosenally M. Rahimtoola. *Elected by the Millowners' Association.*—Mr. A. Geddis.

The following are the principal officers of the Trust:—

Secretary, N. M. Morris, *Deputy Secretary*, A. S. Bakre, M.A., Bar-at-Law.

ACCOUNTS DEPARTMENT.

Chief Accts., C. P. Gay; *Deputy Accts.*, J. F. Pereira, B.A.; *Sr. Asstt. Accts.*, W. E. McDonnell; *Asstt. Accts.*, H. W. Scott; A. N. Moos; *Junior Asstt. Accts.*, O. Hyde, R. Cour-Palais, A. R. Javeri; *Cashier*, V. D. Jog; *Ry. Audit Inspectors*, M. J. Merzello, J. P. D'Souza; *Supdt. Establishment Branch*, H. N. Baria.

ENGINEERING DEPARTMENT.

Chief Engineer, G. E. Bennett, M.SC., M. Inst. C.E., M.I. Mech. E.; *Deputy Chief Engineer*, A. Hale-White, M.A., M.Inst.C.E. *Executive Engineers*, G. E. Terrey, A.M.I.C.E., J. A. Rolfe; *Senior*

Asstt. Engineers, P. E. Vazifdar, L.C.E., F. M. Surveyor, B.Sc. (Glas.), A.M.I.C.E., E. L. Everatt, A.M.I.C.E., H. N. Baria, L.C.E.; *Chief Draftsman*, L. B. Andrew, M.I. Struct. E.; *Personal Asst. to the Chief Engineer*, T. B. Hawkins; *Mechanical Superintendent*, R. B. Mc Gregor, A.M.I.M.E.; *Asstt. Mechanical Superintendents*, B. C. Sharpe, A.M.I.M.E., S. J. Watt, M.I.L.E., D. V. Kohli, B.Sc., and A. C. Strelley. M.I. Mar. E., A.M.I.M.E., *Chief Foreman*, B. Shaw.

Docks Department.

Docks Manager, C. N. Rich, B.A.; *Deputy Docks Managers*, F. A. Borissow, W. G. H. Templeton and F. Seymour Williams, D.S.O.; *Deputy Manager (Office)*, P. A. Davies; *Asstt. Docks Managers, 1st and 2nd Grade*, E. C. Jolley, A. Mattos, L. E. Walsh, F. J. Warder, E. J. Kail, D. L. Lynn, C. O. A. Martinez, P. B. Fenner, Nanabhoy Framji, Ardeshir Maneckji and J. M. Duarte; *Cash Supervisor*, T. D'Silva; *Cashier*, Robert Fernandez.

Railway Department.

Railway Manager, D. G. M. Mearns; *Deputy Railway Managers*, A. F. Watts and H. A. Gaydon; *Asstt. Railway Manager*, S. G. N. Shaw, P. M. Boyce and M. E. A. Kizilbash; *Asstt. Traffic Supdt.*, W. H. Brady; *Office Supdt.*, Subrahmanya Raghunathan.

Port Department.

Deputy Conservator, Captain A. G. Kinch, D.S.O., R.I.M. (Retd.); *Senior Dock Master, Alexandra Dock*, E. G. Worthington; *Dock Master, Alexandra Dock*, J. L. Williams; *Dock Master, Victoria Dock*, N. E. Davidson; *Dock Master, Prince's Dock*, C. T. Willson; *Port Department. Inspector and Supdt. of Police, Bombay Port Trust Harbour Patrol*, W. P. Bigg; *Office Supdt.*, Moses Samuel.

Pilot Establishment.

Harbour Master, R. Walker; *Master Pilots*, G. England and C. B. M. Thomas.

Pilots, J. S. Nicholson, R. C. Vint, A. M. Thomson, H. W. L. T. Davies, H. H. Church, W. E. Brown, W. L. Friend, R. H. Friedlander, W. Sutherland, H. Lloyd Jones, J. Cook, G. E. Firth; *Probationary Pilot*, S. T. Elliot.

Land and Bunders Department.

Manager, F. H. Taylor, F.S.I., M.R.S.I.; *Deputy Manager*, B. C. Durant; *Personal Asstt.*, R. G. Deshmukh, B.A., LL.B.; *Office Supdt.*, W. O'Brien; *Asstt. Managers*, W. H. Cummings and C. P. Watson; *Chief Inspector*, G. C. Battenberg; *Head Clerk*, D. A. Pereira.

Stores Department.

Controller of Stores, H. E. Lees; *1st Assistant*, W. J. Wilson; *2nd Assistant*, B. F. Davidson; *Statistical Supdt.*, H. L. Barrett.

Medical Department.

Administrative Medical Officer, Dr. W. Nunan, B.A., M.D., B. Ch.; *Medical Officers*, Dr. F. D. Bana, M.B., M.R.C.S. (South District), Dr. A. D. Karkhanawalla, M.B.B.S. (North District); *Superintendent, Antop Village*, Dr. M. Vijayakar, L.M. & S.

The revenue of the Trust in 1932-33 amounted to Rs. 2,30,78,445 and the expenditure to Rs. 2,46,02,916. The result of the year's working was a deficit of Rs. 15,81,682 under General Account which has been met from the Revenue Reserve Fund, and a surplus of Rs. 57,210 under Pilotage Account, which has been transferred to the Vessels Replacement Fund. The balance of the Revenue Reserve Fund at the close of the year amounted to Rs. 56,56,906. The aggregate capital expenditure during the year was Rs. 6,20,926. The total debt of the Trust at the end of the year amounted to Rs. 21,72,50,504, repayment of which is provided for by annual sinking fund contributions from revenue; the accumulation of the sinking fund as at 31st March 1933 was Rs. 554·42 lakhs., in addition to this apart from property appreciation, the Reserve and other funds total Rs. 91·46 lakhs.

The trade of the Port of Bombay during the last official year aggregated Rs. 189 crores in value.

The number of steam and square-rigged vessels which during recent years have entered the docks or been berthed at the harbour walls and paid dues, excluding those which have unloaded and loaded in the stream:—

Year.	Number.	Tonnage nett.
1911 to 1916 (average)	1,668	3,437,354
1916 to 1921 ,,	2,086	4,758,888
1921 to 1926 ,,	1,962	4,574,817
1926-27	1,842	4,386,312
1927-28	2,027	4,864,344
1928-29	1,966	4,828,376
1929-30	1,965	4,895,326
1930-31	1,970	4,773,492
1931-32	1,866	4,588,577
1932-33	1,836	4,691,183

The two dry docks were occupied during the year 1932-33 by 134 vessels, the total tonnage amounting to 496,985 which was less than the previous year by 10,737 tons.

KARACHI.

The members of the Board of Trustees of the Port of Karachi are as follows:—

Chairman.—E. M. Duggan, B.SC., M. Inst. C.E.; Tikamdas Wadhumal, M.A. (Oxon), Bar.-at-Law, (*Vice Chairman*, elected by the Board), elected by the Karachi Municipal Corporation.

Appointed by Government.—F. Buckney, B.A., (Collector of Customs); T. C. Hales, V.D., (Divisional Superintendent, North Western Railway); Major A.G. Armstrong, (D. A. A. & Q. M. G., Sind Independent Brigade Area); Mir Ayub Khan, Bar.-at-law.

Elected by the Karachi Chamber of Commerce.—W. D. Young, (Cooper & Young); J. W. Anderson, (Grahams Trading Co., (India), Ltd.); G. H. Raschen, (Forbes, Forbes Campbell & Co., Ltd.); H. S. Bigg-Wither, O.B.E., (Burma-Shell Oil Storage & Distributing Co. of India, Ltd.).

Elected by the Karachi Indian Merchants' Association.—Lala Jagannath Ralaram, Tandon, B.SC., (R. B. Brijlal Jagannath); Chellaram Shewaram, (Shewaram Rewachand).

Elected by the Buyers' and Shippers' Chamber.—Jamshed Nusserwanji, (Karachi Steam Roller Flour Mills, Ltd.); Mohamedali A. K. Alavi, (Yusafali Alibhoy Karimji & Co.).

The Principal Officers of the Port Trust:—

Chief Engineer.—W. P. Shepherd-Barron, M.C., M. Inst. C.E.

Deputy Chief Engineer.—H. A. L. French, M. Inst. C.E.

Chief Accountant.—B. A. Inglet, B.A., C.A.

Traffic Manager.—A. A. L. Flynn, V.D., C.M.Z.S.

Deputy Conservator.—J. A. Scarr.

Chief Storekeeper.—R. A. Donde.

Secretary.—L. J. Mascarenhas.

Revenue receipts and expenditure of the Port of Karachi for the year 1932-33:—

Revenue receipts Rs. 59,22,000. Special Receipts Rs. 82,800. Revenue Expenditure Rs. 62,91,000. Deficit Rs. 2,86,000. Reserve Fund Rs. 43,28,000.

SHIPPING.

Number of vessels which entered the Port during the year 1932-33 exclusive of vessels put back and fishing boats was 3,234 with a tonnage of 2,268,236 as against 3,314 with a tonnage of 2,411,610 in 1931-32. 841 steamer of all kinds entered the Port with a tonnage of 2,134,689 against 912 and 2,278,390, respectively in the previous year. Of the 841 steamers 671 were of British Nationality.

The imports during the year totalled 745,000 tons against 788,000 tons in the previous year. The shipments were 914,000 tons in 1932-33 against 963,000 in 1931-32.

The total volume of imports and exports was 1,659,000 tons against 1,751,000 tons in the previous year.

MADRAS.

The following gentlemen are the Trustees of the Port of Madras:—

Officials.—G. G. Armstrong, O.B.E., M.C., V.D., M. Inst. T., (Chairman and Traffic Manager), C. R. Watkins, C.I.E. (Collector of Customs), Capt. B. Gordon, R.I.M. (Presidency Port Officer).

Non-Officials—(1) Nominated by Government H. N. Colam; Sir Percy Rothera, Kt., O.B.E., M.Inst. C.E., I.M.I.E.

Representing Chamber of Commerce, Madras—R. D. Denniston, A. S. Todd.

Representing Southern India Chamber of Commerce, Madras.—M. R. Ry. M. Ct. M. Chidambaram Chettiyar Avergal, The Hon'ble Diwan Bahadur G. Narayanaswamy Chetty Garu, C.I.E.

Representing Madras Trades Association.—W. W. Ladden, A. A. Hayles.

Representing Southern India Skin & Hide Merchants' Association.—Yakub Hasan Sait.

Representing Madras Piece-Goods Merchants' Association.—Abdus Subhan Sahib, B.A.

Principal Officers are:—Port Engineer—G. P. Alexander, A.M., Inst. C.E.

Deputy Coservator of the Port of Madras—Lt.-Commander A. D. Berrington, K.N.R., (Retd.)

Deputy Traffic Manager.—J. G Lord.

Chief Accountant.—M. R. Ry. G. Venkatraya Pai Avergal, M.A.

Mechanical and Electrical Engineer.—Major E. G. Bowers, M.C., M.I.E.E., A.I.R.O.

Assistant Mechanical Engineer.—S. W. White, M.I. Mar. E., A.M.N.I.A.

1st Engineer and Dreadging Master—J. E. Burke.

Assistant Engineers.—M. R. Ry. V. Dayananda Kamath Avergal, B.A., B.E., M. R. Ry. S. Nagabushanam Avergal, B.A., M.E., A..I.E.E.

Assistant Engineer (Electrical.)—M. R. Ry. K. Subramania Aiyar Avergal, M.E., I.E.E.

Harbour Master—A. Mackenzie.

Assistant Harbour Masters—Mr. S. Prytherch, Mr. L. T. Lewis, Mr. L. J. Whitlock.

Assistant Traffic Manager.—M. R. Ry. M. S. Venkataraman Avergal, B.A., L. A. Abraham, B.A., F.C.I.

Deputy Chief Accountant.—M. R. Ry. R. Rangaswami Aiyar Avergal, B.A.

Deputy Chief Accountant (Engineering).—M. R. Ry. V. Mathuswami Aiyar Avergal, B.A.

Office Manager.—M. R. Ry. G. M. Ganapathi Aiyar Avergal.

The receipts of the Trust during 1932-33 on Revenue Account from all sources were Rs. 29,86,394 as against Rs. 33,60,109 in 1931-32 and the gross expenditure out of revenue was Rs. 32,12,510 as against Rs. 32,67,262 in 1931-32. No contribution to Reserve funds was made during 1932-33. 694 vessels with an aggregate net registered tonnage of 23,33,140 tons called at the port during the year against last year's figure of 774 vessels with a net registered tonnage of 2,690,008 tons.

RANGOON.

The personnel of the Commissioners for the Port of Rangoon is comprised of seventeen members—

Appointed by Government.—J. A. Cherry, C.I.E., M.L.C., (Chairman); T. Cormack, C.A.; Captain H. W. B. Livesay, O.B.E., R.I.M. and A. O. Deas.

Ex-officio.—Messrs. C. F. Grant, M.A. I.C.S., (Chairman), Rangoon Development Trust); M. Slade, I.C.S. (Collector of Customs); and B. M. Crosthwaite, V.D. (Agent, Burma Railways).

Elected by the Burma Chamber of Commerce.—Messrs. M. L. Burnet; C. G. Wodehouse, M.L.C.; R. B. Howison, M.L.C.; and K. B. Harper.

Elected by the Rangoon Trades Association.—W. C. Penn, M.L.C.

Elected by the Chinese Chamber of Commerce.—Tan Po Aye, B.A., Bar-at-Law.

Elected by the Burma Indian Chamber of Commerce—S. N. Haji and M. D. Dadabhoy.

Elected by the Burmese Chamber of Commerce.—U. Thein Maung, B.A., M.M.F. (Vice-Chairman).

Elected by the Corporation of Rangoon.—U. Thein Maung, M.L.C.

Principal Officers are:—

Secretary.—C. Witcher.

Chief Accountant.—S. A. Wetherfield, B.A. A.C.A.

Chief Engineer.—W. D. Beatty, B.A., B.A.I., M. Inst. C.E.

Deputy Conservator.—H. N. Gilbert.

Traffic Manager.—E. J. B. Jeffery.

Port Surveyor.—Commander C. M. L. Scott, R.N. (Retd.)

The income and expenditure on revenue account for the Port of Rangoon in 1932-33 were:—

	Rs.
Income	68,82,554
Expenditure	70,76,097

The capital debt of the Port at the end of the year was Rs. 6,42,20,695-14-3. The balance (including investments at cost) at the credit of the different sinking funds on 31st March 1933 was Rs. 2,34,91,048-13-11.

The total sea-borne trade of Rangoon during the year 1932-33 was 4,623,286 tons of which 1,222,070 tons were imports, 3,378,672 tons exports and 22,544 tons transhipment. The total number of vessels (excluding Government vessels) entering the port was 1,580 with a total net registered tonnage of 4,109,215 showing a decrease in the number of vessels and of 4,69,272 tons in the net tonnage as compared with the previous year.

CHITTAGONG.

Chittagong in Eastern Bengal, lying on the right bank of the river Karnafuli at a distance of 12 miles from the sea, was already an important Port in the sixteenth century, when the Portuguese gave it the name of Porto Grande.

The construction of the Assam-Bengal Railway has facilitated the transport of trade with Assam and Eastern Bengal for which the Port of Chittagong is the natural outlet.

Chittagong, Bengal, Lat. 22° 21'N; Long. 91° 50'E, 1933 Pop. 53,156.

TRADE

Imports—Salt, mineral oil, machinery, tea estate, stores, rice, coal and railway material.

Exports—Wax, jute, tea, hides, cotton, capas, rice, paddy eggs, poultry and livestock.

Accommodation—Vessels of any size can proceed 9 miles up the Karnafuli to Chittagong at H.W.O.S. draught of 23 ft. to 26 ft.

There are 5 berths for ocean-going vessels at the Assam-Bengal Railway jetties, also two sets of fixed moorings.

Jetties are 2,100 ft. long, provided with hydraulic cranes 17 to lift 35 cwts and 4 to lift 10 tons, ample shed accommodation, and jetties are in direct rail communication with the Assam-Bengal Railway system, cargo in bulk being dealt with direct into wagons. Depth at jetties about 32 feet.

Provisions.—Fresh provisions, good drinking water and coal obtainable.

There are three river bars affecting navigation controlled by large suction dredger.

Night pilotage is in force except during the S.W. monsoon.

Charges.—Port dues 4 annas 6 pies, per reg. ton. Hospital dues 2 pies per reg ton. Harbour Master's fee Rs 32. Mooring and unmooring in fixed berths Rs. 32, swinging berths Rs. 16. Berth alongside jetties Rs. 40, per day, night work and holidays extra.

Pilotage not exceeding—	Rs. a.		Rs. a.
10 ft. to 20 ft. from ..	67 8	to	304 4
21 ft.	337 8		
22 ft.	384 4		
23 ft.	439 4		
24 ft.	486 0		
25 ft.	553 8		
26 ft.	634 8		

Towage by Port Commissioners' Tug.

Port Authority: Port Commissioners, Chittagong.

Officials.—Deputy Conservator, Lieut.-Commander, F. W. Angell, R.I.M.; Port Engineer, F. J. Green, B.Sc., M.I.C.E., &c.; Lloyds Agents, James Finlay & Co.

VIZAGAPATAM HARBOUR PROJECT.

The question of creating a harbour at Vizagapatam to supply an outlet for a large area of fertile country adjacent to the east coast of India, hitherto undeveloped, with considerable mineral resources and without suitable access to the outside world, was first formulated by the Bengal-Nagpur Railway Company. That the creation of such a port would have beneficial influence on this area was unquestioned, for it is pointed out that Vizagapatam, lying as it does in front ofthe only practicable gap in the barrierr of the Eastern Ghats, is formed by nature to be the outlet of the Central Provinces, from which a considerable amount of trade has taken this route in the past, even with the imperfect communications, hitherto available. A necessary complement of the scheme is the construction of the proposed railway from Parvatipuram to Raipur which, with the existing coastline of the Bengal Nagpur Railway would make a large and rich area tributary to the proposed port, and obviate the long and expensive circuit by Calcutta. A link would also be supplied in the most direct route to Rangoon from Europe by way of Bombay, while, from an imperial point of view, the possible provision of a fortified port on the long and almost unprotected stretch of coast between Colombo and Calcutta is held to be a consideration of great importance. The lofty projecting headland of the Dolphin's Nose would offer facilities for this purpose.

The Government of India with the approval of the Secretary of State and the Legislative Assembly, have sanctioned the construction of the new railway line from Raipur to Parvatipuram. The work is completed and the line opened to Traffic. They have also decided to develop the port of Vizagapatam under their direct control and the port has accordingly been declared to be a Major Port.

The work is being carried out by a staff of Engineers under direct charge of an Engineer-in-Chief who comes under the administrative charge of an Administrative Officer for the development scheme, a post which is held ex-officio by the Agent of the B. N. Railway. An Advisory Committee consisting of the above mentioned officers and representatives of the Local Government, the Vizagapatam Port Administration and the commercial interest concerned, has also been constituted to advise in the development of the harbour.

The scheme for the construction and development of the Harbour will be carried out in stages according to the demand of trade. The first stage has been completed sufficiently to enable the Harbour to be opened. Ships started using the Harbour in October 1933 and the official opening by His Excellency the Viceroy took place on 19th December 1933.

The present provision includes a 1000 ft. diameter Turning Basin together with access to the three quay Berths and an Entrance Channel dredged out to afford a passage 300 ft. wide at the bottom. Vessels of 26 ft. draft are admitted at present and deepening is in progress to allow vessels of 28'-6" maximum draft enter in the near future.

A quay wall comprising three 500 ft. Berths has been completed and equipped with 3-ton electric cranes. Storage accommodation aggregating 140,000 sq. ft. of covered area, in three single storied sheds has been provided in the vicinity of the quay, equipped with full railway and road facilities. Special facilities have been provided for the storage and shipment of manganese ore. In addition to the quays, four Mooring Berths have been installed, around the Basin and additional facilities provided for dealing with lightered cargo.

A large area of land has been reclaimed in the course of the dredging operations and it has been laid out in blocks served by broad roadways. Plots are available for office sites and for industrial concerns. Water supply and electric lighting have been arranged for.

The floating equipment of the Harbour comprises three tugs of 1500, 600 and 150 H. P. respectively.

A graving dock with an entrance 60 ft. 6 in. broad has been provided; but though adapted for future extension and for use by vessels larger than the dredging craft which now use it; length of ships is at present restricted to 300 feet.

The port is at present capable of dealing with lifts of 15 tons.

The sea entrance channel is protected on the South Side by the provision of a sand trap and protecting Breakwater.

At present ships enter and leave the Harbour at day time only and pilotage is compulsory.

The future administration of the Port is still under consideration by the Government of India. At present, the Agent of the Bengal Nagpur Railway holds Administrative charge of the Port. He is represented at Vizagapatam by a Deputy Conservator, which office is held *ex officio* by the Engineer-in-Chief. All matters in connection with port traffic and land are under the charge of the Traffic Manager. The Port Railways are being worked by the B. N. Railway Company.

The principal officers are :—

Administrative Officer.—V. E. D. Jarrad.

Engineer-in-Chief and Deputy Conservator—O. B. Rattenbury, B. Sc., M.I.C.E., M.I.E.

Traffic Manager.—E. G. Lilley, B.A.

Education.

Indian education is unintelligible except through its history. Seen thus, it affords the spectacle of a growth which, while to one it will appear as a blunder based on an initial error easily avoided, to another it stands out as a symbol of sincerity and honest endeavour on the part of a far-sighted race of rulers whose aim has been to guide a people alien in sentiments and prejudices into the channels of thought and attitude best calculated to fit them for the needs of modern life and western ideals. There is to-day no subject in the whole area of administrative activity in India which presents greater complexities and differences of opinion than education. Government, local bodies and private persons of learning have in the past devoted their limited funds to meeting the demands of those who perceived the benefits of education, rather than to cultivating a desire for education where it did not exist. The result is that the structure has become top-heavy. The lower classes are largely illiterate, while the middle classes who constitute the bulk of the *intelligentsia* are in point of numbers at least educated to a pitch equal to that of countries whose economic conditions are more highly developed. As might be expected from this abnormal distribution of education, the form which it has eventually assumed contains corresponding defects. There have, however, in recent years been strong movements, leading to the passing of Primary Education Acts in several Provinces, in favour of the expansion of primary education among the masses.

The Introduction of Western Learning—In the early days of its dominion in India, the East India Company had little inclination for the doubtful experiment of introducing western learning into India. Warren Hastings, the dominating figure of the time, was a genuine admirer of the laws and literature of the East. His policy was to enable the ancient learning to revive and flourish under the protection of a stable government, and to interfere as little as possible with the habits and customs of the people. Even the Act of 1813 which set apart a lakh of rupees for the introduction and promotion of a knowledge of the sciences was interpreted as a scheme for the encouragement of Sanskrit and Arabic. In the following year the Court of Directors instructed the Governor-General to leave the Hindus "to the practice of usage, long established among them, of giving instruction in their own homes, and to encourage them in the exercise and cultivation of their talents by the stimulus of honorary marks of distinction and in some cases by grants of pecuniary assistance."

It was from sources other than Government that the **desire for western knowledge** arose in India. In 1816, David Hare, an English watchmaker in Calcutta, joined hands with the enlightened Brahmin, Mohan Roy, to institute the Hindu College for the promotion of western secular learning. The new institution was distrusted both by Christian missionaries and by orthodox Hindus, but its influence grow apace. Fifteen years later, the Committee of Public Instruction in Bengal reported that a taste for English had been widely disseminated and that independent schools, conducted by young men reared in the Hindu College, were springing up in every direction. In Bombay, the Elphinstone Institution was founded in memory of the great ruler who left India in 1827. A still more remarkable innovation was made in 1835 by the establishment of the Calcutta Medical College, whose object was to teach "the principles and practice of medical science in strict accordance with the mode adopted in Europe." Many pronounced the failure of the undertaking to be inevitable; for, under the Hindu custom the higher castes were forbidden to touch the dead. This obstacle was surmounted by Madusudan Gupta who, with a few courageous pupils, began the dissection of a human body. From that time onward Indians of the highest castes have devoted themselves with enthusiasm and with success to the study of medicine in all its branches.

Another impetus to the introduction of western learning was the devotion of **Christian missionaries.** The humanitarian spirit, which had been kindled in England by Wesley, Burke and Wilberforce, influenced action also in India. Carey, Marshman and Ward opened the first missionary College at Serampore in 1818; and twelve years later, Alexander Duff reversed the whole trend of missionary policy in India by his insistence on teaching rather than on preaching, and by the foundation of his school and College in Calcutta. In Madras, the missionaries had been still earlier in the field; for as early as in 1787 a small group of missionary schools were being directed by Mr. Schwarz. The Madras Christian College was opened in 1837. In Bombay, the Wilson School (afterwards College) was founded in 1834.

Lord William Bentinck's minute of 1835 (based upon Macaulay's famous minute) marks of somewhat tardy acceptance by Government of the new policy. Government then determined, while observing a neutrality in religious matters to devote its available funds to the maintenance of secondary schools and colleges of western learning to be taught through the medium of English. But this decision did not entail that Oriental learning should be neglected; still less that the development of the vernaculars should be discouraged. Other changes powerfully contributed to the success of the new system. The freedom of the press was established in 1835; English was substituted for Persian as the language of the Courts in 1837; and in 1844 Sir Henry Hardinge ordained that preference in Government appointments should be given to those who had received a western education. In the following decade the new learning took firm root in India: and, though the Muhammadans still held aloof, the demand for English schools outstripped the means of Government for providing them. Fortunately there has been of late a marked appreciation among Muslim leaders of the need of improving the instructional level of their co-religionists; and in many of the provinces of India a great impulse towards educational advance among the Muhammadan community is now noticeable.

GROWTH AND ORGANISATION OF ENGLISH EDUCATION.

An epoch in Indian educational history is marked by Sir Charles Wood's despatch in 1854. Perhaps its most notable feature was the emphasis which it laid on the importance of primary education. The old idea that the education imparted to the higher classes of society would filter down to the lower classes was discarded. The new policy was boldly "to combat the ignorance of the people which may be considered the greatest curse of the country." For this purpose Departments of Public Instructions were created on lines which do not differ very materially from the Departments of the present day. The despatch also broke away from the practice followed since 1835 whereby most of the available public funds had been expended upon a few Government schools and colleges, and instituted a policy of grants-in-aid to private institutions. "Such a system as this, placed in all its degrees under efficient inspection, beginning from the humblest elementary institution and ending with the university test of a liberal education would impart life and energy to education in India, and lead to a gradual but steady extension of its benefits to all classes of people." Another feature of the despatch was an outline of a university system which resulted in the foundation of the Universities of Calcutta, Madras and Bombay three years later. The affiliating type of university then became the pivot of the Indian education system. It has undoubtedly been of value in several ways. It enabled Government to select recruits for its service on an impartial basis ; it did much, through the agency of its Colleges to develop backward places ; it accelerated the conversion of Indians to a zeal for western education ; and it cost little at a time when money was scarce. On the other hand, the new universities were not corporations of scholars, but corporations of administrators ; they did not deal directly with the training of men, but with the examination of candidates; they were not concerned with learning, except in so far as learning can be tested by examination. The colleges were fettered by examination requirements and by uniform courses; their teachers were denied that freedom which teachers should enjoy : and their students were encouraged not to value training for its own sake but as a means for obtaining marketable qualifications. In certain important respects the recommendations in the despatch were not followed. The Directors did not intend that university tests, as such, should become the sole tests qualifying for public posts; they also recommended the institution of civil service examinations. They did not desire the universities to be deprived of all teaching functions; they recommended the establishment of university chairs for advanced study. They were aware of the dangers of a too literary course of instruction ; they hoped that the system of education would rouse the people of India to develop the vast resources of their country ...and gradually, but certainly, confer upon them all the advantages which accompany the healthy increase of wealth and commerce. The encouragement of the grant-in-aid system was advocated to an even greater extent by the Education Commission of 1882, which favoured the policy of withdrawing higher education from the control of Government within certain limits and of stimulating private effort. In theory the decision was correct, but in practice it was irretrievably wrong. In its fatal desire to save money, Government deliberately accepted the mistaken belief that schools and colleges could be maintained on the low fees which the Indian parent could be expected to pay. And, in the course of time, an unworkable system of dual control grew up, whereby the Universities with no funds at their disposal were entrusted with the duty of granting recognition to schools and the Departments of Public Instruction were encouraged to cast a blind eye on the private institutions and to be content with the development of a few favoured Government institutions. There can be little wonder that, under such a system of neglect and short-sightedness, evils crept in which are now being removed gradually by the establishment of independent Boards of Intermediate Education charged with the administration of the high school and intermediate stages of education.

The Reforms of 1902-4.

In 1902, the Universities Commission was appointed by Lord Curzon's Government, and its investigation was followed by the Universities Act of 1904. The main object of the Act was to tighten up control, on the part of Government over the universities, and on the part of the universites over the schools and colleges. The Chancellors of the Universities were empowered to nominate 80 *per cent.* of the ordinary members of the Senates and to approve the election of the remainder : the Government retained the power of cancelling any appointment, and all university resolutions and proposals for the affiliation or disaffiliation of colleges were to be subject to Government sanction. The universities were given the responsibility of granting recognition to schools and of inspecting all schools and colleges, the inspection of schools being ordinarily conducted by the officers of the Department of Public Instruction. Permission was also given to the universities to undertake direct teaching functions and to make appointments, subject to Government sanction, for these objects: but their scope was in practice limited to post graduate work and research. The territorial limits of each university were defined, so that universities were precluded from any connexion with institutions lying outside those boundaries. Neither the Commission nor the Government discussed the fundamental problems of university organisation, but dealt only with the immediate difficulties of the Indian system. They did not inquire whether the affiliating system could be replaced by any other mode of organisation, nor whether all schools might be placed under some public authority which would be representative of the universities and of the departments. They assumed the permanent validity of the existing system, in its main features, and set themselves only to improve and to strengthen it.

Statement of Educational Progress in British INDIA.

	1926-27.	1927-28.	1928-29.	1929-30.	1930-31.	1931-32.
Area in square miles	1,091,333	1,091,333*	1,091,335	1,091,359	1,093,422	1,094,152
Population .. .. { Male	127,044,953	127,042,963	127,042,463	127,043,304	140,077,750	140,075,258
{ Female	120,288,470	120,285,483	120,285,483	120,287,304	131,710,632	131,704,893
Total Population	247,333,423	247,327,946	247,327,946	247,330,413	271,788,382	271,780,151
Recognised Institutions for Males.						
Number of arts colleges	213	217	223	222	224	223
Number of high schools*	2,444	2,497	2,556	2,642	2,724	2,801
Middle Schools .. .. .. { English	3,201	3,394	3,524	3,663	3,798	3,875
{ Vernacular	4,728	5,134	5,486	5,766	5,927	5,894
Number of primary schools	162,666	168,648	171,386	172,686	172,230	168,835
Male Scholars in Recognised Institutions.						
In arts colleges (*a*)	70,035	71,051	73,936	76,383	71,895	78,044
In high schools *	739,375	766,078	803,616	843,745	844,307	862,513
Middle Schools .. .. .. { English	347,483	380,880	406,087	422,721	412,432	410,459
{ Vernacular	582,062	656,589	690,647	743,235	772,896	754,521
In primary schools	6,707,479	7,031,554	7,213,518	7,332,678	7,381,199	7,377,257
Percentage of male scholars in Recognised Institutions to male population.	6·9	7·29	7·49	7·67	6·99	6·96
Recognised Institutions for Females.						
Number of arts colleges §	19	19	19	19	20	20
Number of high schools*	211	262	278	302	312	324
Middle Schools .. .. .. { English	290	295	314	318	339	357
{ Vernacular	432	417	429	461	481	490
Number of primary schools	26,682	28,651	30,302	31,408	32,154	32,635

* High Schools include vernacular high schools also in some provinces.

§ Includes Intermediate and Second Grade Colleges of the new type.

(*a*) Includes scholars in University Departments and the Intermediate and second Grade Colleges (including Intermediate colleges of the new type).

Statement of Educational Progress in British INDIA—*contd.*

	1926-27.	1927-28.	1928-29.	1929-30.	1930-31.	1931-32.
Female Scholars in Recognised Institutions						
In arts colleges (*a*)	1,933	2,099	2,280	2,702	2,744	2 966
In high schools*	54,826	62,776	69,549	79,605	85,879	92,538
Middle Schools { English	36,905	36,867	40,565	44,184	48,272	51,345
Middle Schools { Vernacular	93,416	29,365	101,509	113,188	122,625	126,143
In primary schools	1,549,281	1,681,414	1,800,073	1,891,403	1,981,549	2,077,103
Percentage of female scholars in recognised institutions to female population.	1·46	1·58	1·69	1·79	1·72	1·80
TOTAL SCHOLARS in recognised institutions. { Male	8,777,739	9,260,266	9,515,109	9,748,749	9,796,683	9,752,937
TOTAL SCHOLARS in recognised institutions. { Female	1,751,611	1,899,890	2,032,388	2,149,853	2,260,154	2,369,529
TOTAL SCHOLARS in recognised institutions. Total	10,529,350	11,160,156	11,547,497	11,898,602	12,056,837	12,122,466
TOTAL SCHOLARS (both male and female) in all institutions	11,157,496	11,775,222	12,165,839	12,515,126	12,689,086	12,766,537
Percentage of total scholars to population. { Male	7·33	7·70	7·89	8·07	7·36	7·33
Percentage of total scholars to population. { Female	1·53	1·66	1·78	1·88	1·80	1·89
Percentage of total scholars to population. Total	4.51	4·76	4·92	5·06	4·67	4·70
Number of Pupils in Class IV.. { Male	..	717,683	764,175	793,954	877,633	882,653
Number of Pupils in Class IV.. { Female	..	285,522	93,234	105,665	120,464	133,783
Number of Pupils in Class IV.. Total	767,921	803,155	857,409	899,619	998,097	1,016,436
Expenditure (in thousands of rupees).						
From provincial revenues	Rs. 11,93,33	Rs. 12,66,92	Rs. 13,18,10	Rs. 13,25,38	Rs. 13,60,97	Rs. 12,46,01
From local funds	2,42,70	2,52,71	2,59,25	2,75,09	2,84,17	2,80,01
From municipal funds	1,23,21	1,26,17	1,34,89	1,49,56	1,54,12	1,58,17
Total Expenditure from public funds	15,59,24	16,45,80	17,12,24	17,50,03	17,99,26	16,84,19
From fees	5,21,27	5,44,72	5,78,18	6,04,61	6,14,59	6,22,70
From other sources	3,77,97	3,92,26	4,16,90	3,88,17	4,17,76	4,11,68
GRAND TOTAL OF EXPENDITURE	24,58,48	25,82,78	27,07,32	27,42,82	28,31,61	27,18,57

* High Schools include vernacular high schools also in some provinces.

(*a*) Includes scholars in University Departments and in the Intermediate and Second Grade Colleges (including Intermediate colleges of the new type.)

N.B.—In the educational tables of most provinces the new census figures of 1931 have been used; hence the percentages for 1913 are not strictly comparable with those for 1930.

Recent Developments.

Government of India Resolutions on Indian Educational Policy.—The Indian Universities Act of 1904 was followed by two important resolutions of the Government of India on Indian Educational Policy—one in 1904 and the other in 1913. The resolution of 1904 was comprehensive in character and reviewed the state of education in all its departments. The following passage from it summarises the intentions of Government:—"The progressive devolution of primary, secondary and collegiate education upon private enterprise and the continuous withdrawal of Government from competition therewith was recommended by the Educational Commission in 1883 and the advice has generally been acted upon. But while accepting this policy, the Government of India at the same time recognise the extreme importance of the principle that in each branch of education Government should maintain a limited number of institutions, both as models for private enterprise to follow and in order to uphold a high standard of education. In withdrawing from direct management it is further essential that Government should retain a general control, by means of efficient inspection, over all public educational institutions." The comprehensive instructions contained in this resolution were followed in the next few years by the assignment to the provinces of large Imperial grants, mainly for University, technical and elementary education. The resolution of 1913 advocated, *inter alia*, the establishment of additional but smaller Universities of the teaching type; it reaffirmed the policy of reliance on private effort in secondary education; it recommended an increase in the salaries of teachers and an improvement in the amounts of grants-in-aid; and it insisted on proper attention being paid to the formation of character in the education given to scholars of all grades. It further discussed the desirability of imparting manual instructions and instruction in hygiene; the necessity for medical inspection; the provision of facilities for research; the need for the staffing of the girls' schools by women teachers and the expansion of facilities for the training of teachers. The policy outlined in 1913 materially accelerated progress in the provinces, but the educational developments foreshadowed were in many cases delayed owing to the effects of the Great War.

Department of Education, Health and Lands of the Government of India.—In 1910 a **Department of Education** was established in the Government of India with an office of its own and a Member to represent it in the Executive Council. The first Member was Sir Harcourt Butler. In 1923, the activities of the Department were widened, in the interests of economy, by absorption in it of the Department of Revenue and Agriculture. The enlarged Department has been designated the Department of Education, Health and Lands. Sir Fazl-i-Husain and Mr. G. S. Bajpai are the present Member and Secretary, respectively. The Department possesses an educational adviser styled Educational Commissioner. The present Educational Commissioner is Sir George Anderson, Kt., C.S.I., C.I.E., M.A.

Calcutta University Commission.—The Report of the Calcutta University Commission was published in August 1919 and in the following January the Government of India issued a Resolution summarising the main features of the Report and the recommendations of the Commissioners.

The Government of India drew special attention to the following points in the Report:—

(*i*) High schools fail to give that breadth of training which the developments of the country and new avenues of employment demand.

(*ii*) The intermediate section of University education should be recognized as part of school education and should be separated from the University organisation.

(*iii*) The defects of the present system of affiliated colleges may be mitigated by the establishment of a strong central teaching body, the incorporation of unitary universities (as occasion arises), a modification of the administrative machinery which will admit of fuller representation of local interests, and supervision of different classes of institutions by several appropriately constituted bodies.

The Commission gave detailed suggestions for the reorganisation of the Calcuttta University, for the control of secondary and intermediate education in Bengal and for the establishment of a unitary teaching University in Dacca. These measures concerned only Bengal: but it was generally recognised that some of the criticism made by the Commissioners admit of a wider application. Committees were consequently appointed by the Universities of Madras, Bombay, Patna and the Punjab to consider the findings of the Commission. In the United Provinces two committees were appointed, one to prepare a scheme for a unitary teaching University at Lucknow, the second to consider measures for the reorganisation of the Allahabad University and the creation of a Board to control secondary and intermediate education.

In Bengal the first outcome of the Commission's Report was the passing of the Dacca University Act in the Imperial Legislative Council in March 1920 mentioned in detail elsewhere. It is remarkable that the University which appears to have been least affected by the recommendations of the Calcutta University Commission has been the Calcutta University itself. In spite of many discussions and draft proposals by both the University and the Government the organisation of the Calcutta University has remained unaffected.

The Reforms Act.—The Reforms Act of 1919 has altered the conditions of educational administration in India. Education is now a 'transferred' subject in the Governors' provinces and is, in each such Province, under the charge of a Minister. There are, however, some exceptions to this new order of things. The education of Europeans is a 'Provincial reserved' subject, i.e., it is not within the charge

of the Minister of Education; and to the Government of India are still reserved matters relating to Universities like Aligarh, Benares and Delhi and all such new universities as may be declared by the Governor-General in Council to be central subjects. The Government of India are also in charge of the Chiefs' Colleges and of all institutions maintained by the Governor-General in Council for the benefit of members of His Majesty's Forces or of other public servants or of the children of such members or servants.

Hartog Committee on Education.—The most notable event in recent years has been the appointment of the Auxiliary Committee of the Indian Statutory Commission, under the Chairmanship of Sir Philip Hartog, to report on the growth of education in India. The report of the Committee, which was published in 1929, constitutes a valuable document on the present state of education in India.

Lindsay Commission.—Another Commission, which deserves mention, was appointed in 1929 by the International Missionary Council to investigate the various problems connected with the higher education provided by the various Missionary bodies working in India. It was presided overby Dr. A. D. Lindsay, Master of Balliol College, Oxford. The Commission visited India in 1930-31 and its report was published in 1931.

The Punjab University Enquiry Committee was appointed in 1932 and submitted its report in the following year. The committee reported that "the University is overburdened by the immense area of its jurisdiction and by the ever-increasing number of its students many of whom are ill-fitted for such education." The main recommendation was that the school system should be re-adjusted so that many pupils would be diverted at an earlier age to vocational and other forms of education.

Administration.—The transfer of Indian education to the charge of a Minister responsible to the Provincial Legislative Council, of which he himself is an elected member, has brought the subject directly under popular control in the ten major provinces. Generally speaking, education, excluding European education, is not, however, under the charge of a single Minister in all the provinces of India. Generally speaking education, excluding European education, is not, however, under the charge of a single Minister; certain forms of education have been transferred to the technical departments concerned and come within the purview of the Minister in charge of those departments. In each province, the Director of Public Instruction is the administrative head of the Department of Education and acts as adviser to the Education Minister. He controls the inspecting staff and the teaching staff of Government institutions and is generally responsible to the local government for the administration of education. The authority of Government, in controlling the system of public instruction, is in part shared with and in part delegated to Universities as regards higher education and to local bodies as regards elementary and vernacular education. In some provinces, boards of secondary, or of secondary and intermediate, education have also been set up and have to some extent relieved the Universities in those provinces of their responsibilities in connection with intermediate education and with entrance to a University course of studies. Institutions under private management are controlled by Government and by local bodies by "recognition" and by the payment of grants-in-aid, with the assistance of the inspecting staffs employed by Government and in rarer cases by local bodies.

Educational Services.—Until recently, the educational organisation in India consisted mainly of three services—(*i*) the Indian Educational Service, (*ii*) the Provincial Educational Service, and (*iii*) the Subordinate Educational Service. The Indian Educational Service came into existence as a result of the recommendations made by the Public Services Commission of 1886, and in 1896 the Superior Educational Service in India was constituted with two divisions—the Indian Educational Service staffed by persons recruited in England and the Provincial Educational Service staffed by persons recruited in India. These two divisions were originally considered to be collateral and equal in status, though the pay of the European recruit was higher by approximately 50 per cent. than the pay of the Indian recruit. Gradually, however, status came to be considered identical with pay and the Provincial Educational Service came to be regarded of inferior status to the Indian Educational Service. Later as a result of the recommendations of the Islington Commission of 1912-16, the Indian Educational Service was formed into a superior educational service and all posts were thrown open to Indian recruitment. The Provincial Educational Service was simultaneously reorganised and a number of posts, generally with their Indian incumbents, were transferred to the superior service. This reorganisation resulted in a considerable Indianisation of the superior educational services in India. It was then laid down that the proportion of Indians in this service should on an average be 50 per cent. of the total strength, excluding the posts in Burma.

In 1924, all recruitment to the Indian Educational Service was stopped as a result of the recommendations of the Royal Commission on the superior services in India. The Commission recommended that "for the purposes of local Governments no further recruitment should be made to the all-India services which operate in transferred fields. The personnel required for these branches of administration should in future be recruited by local Governments". The Commission further recommended in regard to the question of the future recruitment of Europeans that "it will rest entirely with the local Governments to determine the number of Europeans who may in future be recruited. In this matter the discretion of local Government must be unfettered but we express the hope that Ministers on the one hand will still seek to obtain the co-operation of Europeans in these technical departments and that qualified Europeans on the other hand may be no less willing to take service under local Governments than they were in the past to take service under the Secretary of State". As a result of the acceptance of these recommendations, the Indian Educational Service is dying out and with the gradual retirement of its existing

members, the history of the service which has had a brief but fine record will be brought to an end. The present organisation of education in the provinces is largely the work of members of this service; while in the sphere of higher education, it has trained many men of more than ordinary attainments.

The new Provincial Educational Services, which function under provincial control as the superior educational services, have been constituted in most provinces. These schemes vary from province to province, but it may be generally remarked that, while the rates of pay are not uniform, they consist of two main classes—class I into which the existing Indian Educational Services have been merged for the time being, and class II which may be said to represent the old Provincial Educational Service.

The existing Provincial and Subordinate Educational Services in the provinces have been affected, more in some provinces than others, by the changes which have taken place since 1919. Communal interests have influenced recruitment, and in some places they have influenced promotions also, in a direction which has not always tended towards service contentment. But these results are the natural consequences of the devolution of control of education and power of recruitment to provincial and local authorities and will for some time continue to affect the efficiency of the Education Departments in the provinces.

Statistical Progress.

The two tables given below afford useful comparisons with previous years and serve to illustrate the growth and expansion of education in India.

(*a*) STUDENTS.

Year.	In Recognised Institutions.			In All Institutions (Recognised and Unrecognised).		
	Males.	Females.	Total.	Males.	Females.	Total.
1911–12	5,253,065	875,660	6,128,725	5,828,182	952,539	6,780,721
1916–17	6,050,840	1,156,468	7,207,308	6,621,527	1,230,419	7,851,946
1921–22	6,401,434	1,340,842	7,742,275	6,962,979	1,418,422	8,381,401
1926–27	8,777,739	1,751,611	10,529,350	9,315,140	1,842,356	11,157,496
1927–28	9,260,266	1,899,890	11,160,156	9,778,737	1,996,445	11,775,222
1928–29	9 515,109	2,032,388	11,547,497	10,028,086	2,137,753	12,165,839
1929–30	9,748,749	2,149,853	11,898,602	10,256,914	2,258,212	12,515,126
1930–31	9,796,683	2,260,154	12,056,837	10,313,493	2,375,593	12,689,086
1931–32	9,752,937	2,359,529	12,122,466	10,273,888	2,492,649	12,766,537

(*b*) EXPENDITURE.

Year	Total expenditure on education in British India.	
	Public Funds.	Total.
	Rs.	Rs.
1911–12	4,05,23,072	7,85,92,605
1916–17	6,14,80,471	11,28,83,068
1921–22	11,49,61,178	18,37,52,969
1926–27	15,59,23,968	24,58,47,572
1927–28	16,45,80,915	25,82,78,819
1928–29	17,12,24,514	27,07,32,258
1929–30	17,50,03,644	27,42,82,018
1930–31	17,99,26,248	28,31,61,446
1931–32	16,84,19,016	27,18,56,622

In 1931–32 the total expenditure on education in British India amounted to Rs. 27,18,56,622 of which 45·1 per cent. came from Government funds, 16·1 per cent. from District Board and Municipal funds, 22·9 per cent. from fees and 15·2 per cent. from all other sources.

The average annual cost per scholar amounted to Rs. 22-6-9 as follows: to Government funds Rs. 10-4-5, to local funds Rs. 3-9-10, to fees Rs. 5-2-2 and to other sources Rs. 3-6-4.

The following table provides an interesting and valuable comment on the state of education in India in 1931-32. Although the statistical returns show 12 millions of pupils at school, it will be seen that over 76 per cent. of these are in the lower primary stage; and it may safely be deducted that over 80 per cent. of those at school never become literate. Of course, the total number of pupils at school is not a safe criterion of the state of education, and a sounder standard of comparison would be that number multiplied by the average period spent at school.

SCHOLARS BY CLASSES AND AGES, 1931-32. *

(i)—*Schools for General Education.*

Class.	Primary.			Middle.					High.				Totals.
	I.	II.	III.	IV.	V.	VI.	VII.	VIII.	IX.	X.	XI.	XII.	
Ages—													
Below 5..	134,882	2,319	358	37	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	137,597
5 to 6 ..	1,159,779	68,629	6,339	613	18	1	..	..	..	..	..	..	1,235,379
6 to 7 ..	1,433,785	271,443	45,174	6,823	671	45	1	..	..	..	..	..	1,757,942
7 to 8 ..	1,108,490	435,082	159,906	38,234	7,195	755	32	10	1	..	..	..	1,749,705
8 to 9 ..	669,882	480,491	271,499	97,382	29,829	5,335	507	31	6	..	..	..	1,554,962
9 to 10..	389,253	367,196	328,510	161,358	67,198	18,007	3,931	768	367	4	..	..	1,336,592
10 to 11..	188,440	227,574	276,831	207,699	109,746	42,688	14,642	3,104	356	23	2	..	1,071,105
11 to 12..	88,009	127,461	189,877	195,411	132,221	67,448	33,933	11,024	2,078	263	13	3	847,741
12 to 13..	41,431	60,237	107,873	142,507	112,325	77,732	52,916	27,558	8,048	1,451	180	14	632,272
13 to 14..	20,837	27,143	53,153	81,773	78,692	65,212	59,392	38,278	18,603	6,698	1,181	80	451,042
14 to 15..	11,288	13,492	25,419	41,779	47,214	46,364	52,082	43,082	24,999	15,413	5,982	321	327,385
15 to 16..	7,898	7,760	11,635	19,877	23,201	28,049	38,578	41,091	26,709	22,186	13,699	982	241,665
16 to 17..	6,360	5,145	5,896	9,654	10,764	13,837	23,209	28,763	19,834	21,410	16,530	1,918	163,320
17 to 18..	5,322	4,226	3,733	4,783	4,495	6,476	12,131	17,821	12,421	15,709	14,403	2,582	104,102
18 to 19..	4,663	3,997	2,824	2,820	2,057	2,858	5,772	9,348	6,482	9,949	9,771	2,296	62,837
19 to 20..	3,876	3,145	2,541	2,155	985	1,190	2,534	4,431	2,702	5,716	6,160	1,965	37,400
Over 20..	7,240	5,486	4,502	3,531	1,029	380	1,654	3,680	1,631	3,660	5,924	2,986	42,206
TOTAL ..	5,281,385	2,110,826	1,496,070	1,016,436	627,641	376,877	301,314	228,989	124,240	102,482	73,845	13,147	11,753,252

Note:—The classification of primary, middle and high departments of schools is not uniform in all the Provinces.

* This table is prepared every five years. The last table, given in the previous Year Book, related to the year 1926-27.

SCHOLARS BY CLASSES AND AGES, 1931-32.

(ii)—*Arts Colleges.*

Classes.	Intermediate classes.		Degree classes.			Post Graduate classes.		Total of Arts Colleges.	Grand Total of Scholars in Schools and Colleges.
	1st year.	2nd year.	1st year.	2nd year.	3rd year.	1st year.	2nd year. (c)		
Ages—									
Below 5	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	137,597
5 to 6	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1,235,379
6 to 7	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1,757,942
7 to 8	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1,749,705
8 to 9	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1,554,962
9 to 10	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1,336,592
10 to 11	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	1,071,105
11 to 12	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	847,741
12 to 13	6	..	..	..	..	..	..	6	632,278
13 to 14	34	..	..	..	..	..	..	34	451,076
14 to 15	309	30	1	..	..	..	..	340	327,725
15 to 16	2,222	333	12	1	..	..	..	2,568	242,233
16 to 17	5,134	2,187	151	7	..	..	..	7,479	170,799
17 to 18	6,905	4,381	877	223	4	2	..	11,392	115,494
18 to 19	4,964	5,270	2,157	963	26	19	3	13,402	76,239
19 to 20	3,744	4,500	2,624	2,268	71	87	21	13,315	50,715
Over 20	4,030	6,694	5,482	8,780	(a) 465	(b) 2,187	1,811	29,449	71,655
TOTAL ..	26,348	23,395	11,304	12,242	(a) 566	(b) 2,295	(d) 1,835	(e) 77,985	11,831,237

(a) Includes two students in the 4th year class in N. W. F. Province.

(b) Includes 44 Research Students in Bombay.

(c) Includes Research Students.

(d) Excludes 65 and 44 Research Students in the United Provinces and Punjab respectively.

(e) Excludes 1,045 Students of Oriental Colleges.

The different types of institutions with the scholars in attendance at them are shown in the following table:—

Types of Institutions.	Number of Institutions.		Number of Scholars.	
	1931.	1932.	1931.	1932.
Recognised Institutions.				
Universities	16	16	8,189	9,091
Arts Colleges	244	243	66,837	72,354
Professional Colleges	73	74	17,002	18,048
High Schools	3,036	3,125	930,186	955,051
Middle Schools	10,545	10,616	1,356,225	1,342,468
Primary Schools	204,384	201,470	9,362,748	9,454,360
Special Schools	8,891	7,260	315,650	271,094
Total of Recognised Institutions	227,189	222,804	12,056,837	12,122,466
Unrecognised Institutions ..	34,879	34,988	632,249	644,071
Grand total of all Institutions	262,068	257,792	12,689,086	12,766,537

Primary Education.—The primary schools are mainly under the direction of the local boards and municipalities. In 1911, the late Mr. G. K. Gokhale pleaded in the Imperial Legislative Council for a modified system of compulsory primary education, but Government was unable to accept the proposal mainly for financial reasons. In recent years, eight provincial legislatures have passed Primary Education Acts authorising the introduction of compulsory education by local option. Bombay led the way in this matter by a private Bill which was passed into law in February 1918. The other private Bills which followed were those of Bihar and Orissa passed in February 1919, of Bengal passed in May 1919 and of the United Provinces, passed in June 1919. Of the Government measures, the Punjab Act was passed in April 1919, the Central Provinces Act in May 1920, the Madras Act in December 1920 and the Assam Act in 1925. The City of Bombay Primary Education Act of 1920 extends generally the provisions of the 1918 Act to the Bombay Corporation also enabling it to introduce free compulsory education ward by ward. Not content with this, the Bombay legislature passed a new Act in 1923 to provide for compulsory elementary education and to make better provision for the management and control of primary education in the Bombay Presidency. The Bombay and the United Provinces Acts apply only to municipalities, the Bengal Primary Education Act applies, in the first instance, to municipalities, but is capable of extension to rural areas. Boys only are included within the scope of the Punjab, Bihar and Orissa and Bengal Acts, while the Central Provinces Act is capable of extension to girls, and the remaining Acts are applicable to both sexes. The United Provinces legislature passed a second Primary Education Act in 1926, *viz.*, the United Provinces District Boards Primary Education Act. It allows the District Boards to introduce compulsion within their areas. All the Acts are drafted on very similar lines. If a local body at a special meeting convened for the purpose decides by a two-thirds majority in favour of the introduction of compulsion in any part of the area under its control, it may then submit to Government, for approval, a scheme to give effect to its decision. The scheme must be within the means of the local body to carry out with reasonable financial assistance from Government. Ordinarily the age limits of compulsion are from six to ten years though provision is made for prolonging the period. Provision is also made in all the Acts for the exemption of particular classes and communities and for special exemption from attendance in cases of bodily infirmity. Walking distance to a school is generally defined as one mile from the child's home. The employment of children who should be at school, is strictly forbidden and a small fine is imposed for non-compliance with an attendance order. The Acts generally provide that, subject to the sanction of the local Government, education where compulsory shall be free. The Madras Elementary Education Act of 1920 contained such provision, but it has recently been amended so as to allow fees to be charged in schools under private management situated in areas where education is compulsory, reserving however a number of free places for poor pupils in such schools in areas where there are no free schools. Such in brief are the ordinary provisions of the various provincial Education Acts. Local bodies have not however shewn as yet any great alacrity in availing themselves of the opportunity afforded them by these Acts.

Compulsory Primary Education.—The following table shows the urban and rural areas in which compulsion had been introduced by the year 1931-32 :—

Province.	Acts.	Areas under "Compulsion."	
		Urban areas.	Rural areas.
Madras	Elementary Education Act, 1920	25	7 (*a*)
Bombay ..	Primary Education (District Municipalities Act, 1918).	4	..
	City of Bombay Primary Education Act, 1920	1(*b*)	..
	Primary Education Act, 1923	5	2
Bengal	Primary Education Act, 1919 & 1930 ..	1	..
United Provinces.	Primary Education Act, 1919	37	..
	District Boards Primary Education Act, 1926.	..	24 (*c*)
Punjab	Primary Education Act, 1919	54	2,924 (*d*)
Bihar and Orissa.	Primary Education Act, 1919	1	3
Central Provinces and Berar.	Primary Education Act, 1920	24	422 (*e*)
Assam	Primary Education Act, 1926	..	..
Delhi	(Punjab Act extended to Delhi, 1925) ..	1	10
	Total ..	153	3,392

(*a*) Taluk Boards (the number of villages in 1930-31 was 206).
(*b*) For Bombay City only.
(*c*) Excludes *Banda Board* in whose area compulsory education was abolished in February 1931.
(*d*) Individual School arreas.
(*e*) Villages.

N.B.—This table does not include areas for which schemes of compulsory primary education are under consideration or have been sanctioned but not yet introduced. It includes, on the other hand, areas in which such schemes have been partially introduced.

The poverty of local bodies is usually the cause assigned to their diffidence to introduce compulsory education to any appreciable extent.

On the 31st March 1932, there were 201,470 recognised primary schools in British India containing 9,454,360 scholars. (The latter figure does not include scholars reading in the primary classes of secondary schools). The total direct expenditure on primary schools, during the year 1931-32, amounted to Rs. 8,12,60,290.

Secondary and High School Education.—In 1911-12 there were 1,219 high schools in India and in 1930-31 the number had risen to 3,036 the number of scholars in the former year being 390,881, and in the latter year 930,186. Some attempts have been made to give a greater bias towards a more practical form of instruction in these schools. The Commission of 1882 suggested that there should be two sides in secondary schools," one leading to the entrance examination of the universities, the other of a more practical character, intended to fit youths for commercial and other non-literary pursuits." Some years later, what were called B and C classes were started in some schools in Bengal but, as they did not lead to a university course, they have not been successful. In more recent years the Government of India have advocated the institution of a school *final* examination in which the more practical subjects may be included. Efforts have also been made to improve the conduct of the matriculation and to emphasise the importance of oral tests and of school records. In Madras, this examination, which was placed under the direction of a Board representative of the University and of Government, proved somewhat cumbrous and certain modifications were made. In the United Provinces and the Central Provinces the control of secondary education has been made over to special Boards created for this purpose. Similarly, the Administration of Delhi has established a Board of Secondary Education for that province and the Government of India have established a Board of Intermediate and High School Education, with headquarters at Ajmer, for Rajputana, Central India and Gwalior. In the Punjab the school leaving examination is conducted by a Board. But the main difficulty

has not yet been touched. The University which recognises the schools has no money wherewith to improve them: and the Department of Public Instruction, which allots the Government grants, has no responsibility for the recognition of schools, and no connexion whatever with the private unaided schools. This dual authority and this division of responsibility have had unhappy effects. The standard of the schools also is very low so that the matriculates are often unable to benefit by the college courses. In some provinces an endeavour has been made to raise the standard of the schools by withdrawing from the University the Intermediate classes and by placing them in a number of the better schools in the State.

There are schools for Europeans and Anglo-Indians which are placed under the control of special inspectors for European Schools. The education of the domiciled community has proved to be a perplexing problem, and in 1912 a conference was summoned at Simla to consider the matter. The difficulty is that European Schools are very remote from the general system of education in India. But efforts are being made to bring these schools more into line with the ordinary schools, and Indian Universities generally are affording special facilities for Anglo-Indian boys who may proceed for higher education in Indian colleges.

Medium of instruction in public schools.—The position of English as a foreign language and as a medium of instruction in public schools was discussed by a representative conference which met at Simla in 1917 under the Chairmanship of Sir Sankaran Nair, the then Education Member. Although it was generally conceded that the teaching of school subjects through a medium which was imperfectly understood led to cramming and memorising of text-books, the use of English medium was defended by some on the ground that it improved the knowledge of English. The result of the conference was therefore inconclusive. Some local authorities have since then approved of schemes providing for the recognition of local vernaculars as media of instruction and examination in certain subjects. There seems to be no doubt that the use of the vernacular as the medium of instruction and examination is gradually increasing all over India.

Boy Scout Movement.—A happy development in recent years has been the spread of the boy scout movement which has had an excellent effect in all provinces in creating amongst boys an active sense of good discipline.

The following statistics show the wide extent of the movement:—

Boy Scouts, 1932.

Province.	No. of groups.	Total of all ranks.
Madras	389	11,282
Bombay	1,008	36,642
Bengal	..	8,526
United Provinces	245	6,291
Punjab	1,140	37,462
Burma	205	5,904
Bihar and Orissa	234	8,241
Central Provinces	1,328	36,167
Assam	96	2,425
North-West Frontier Province	91	4,116
Coorg	..	..
Delhi	9	791
Ajmer-Merwara	..	..
Baluchistan	14	551
Bangalore	21	865
Other Administered Areas	49	2,494
Indian States	760	27,994
Total ..	5,589	189,751

Girl Guide Movement.—This movement is making steady progress. There is, however, a lack of those competent and willing to give instruction.

Medical Inspection.—Arrangements have been made for medical inspection of scholars but progress has been hampered by the shortage of funds and the continued indifference of parents. In the United Provinces, schools are now inspected by officers of the Public Health Department. In Madras, the scheme of medical inspection of schools has been made compulsory in all Government institutions, and it has been made a condition of recognition that all secondary schools should introduce the scheme. As a measure of economy, however, the payment of grants for medical inspection has been suspended, but the question of reorganising the system on an improved basis is under consideration. Owing to lack of funds, it has not been possible for the Bombay Government to set up an agency to direct and organise medical inspection work in schools on a satisfactory basis. In Burma, the work of medical inspection has been temporarily suspended on account of retrenchment. In Bihar and Orissa, certain posts of school medical officers were abolished in 1932, for the same reason, but it has since been found possible to revive them. There is, however, still need for adequate facilities for the treatment of children suffering from diseases. The experimental measure introduced in five districts of the Punjab, however, appears to be working well in the Gurgoan district alone. The number of diseased boys who were treated successfully has risen from 46 to 69 per cent. in the district.

The activities of Junior Red Cross and St. John Ambulance Societies have been particularly beneficial in improving the health of school children and in interesting them in the health of others.

Intermediate Colleges.—One important part of the Calcutta University Commission's recommendations has been accepted by the Government of the United Provinces and the Government of India and incorporated in the Acts establishing the Lucknow and Dacca and reconstituting that of Allahabad, namely, the separation of the intermediate classes from the sphere of university work and of the two top classes of night schools from the rest of the school classes. The separated classes have been combined together and the control over them has been transferred from the University to a Board of Secondary and Intermediate Education. Such a Board was constituted for the Dacca University area by a notification of the Government of Bengal in 1921. It contains twenty-the members of whom seven are elected by the University. The United Provinces Board was constituted by an Act passed in the same year. It consists of some forty members of whom approximately one-quarter represent the Universities in the Province. The Aligarh Muslim University has, however, reverted to the old system under which the Intermediate classes form part of the University, and the separate Intermediate College has been abolished. In Ajmer-Merwara, the Intermediate classes are under a separate Board which operates in Rajputana, Central India and Gwalior. Intermediate Colleges of the new type have also been established in the Punjab, but they are affiliated to the Punjab University.

Professional and Technical Education.—A research institute in agriculture was started by Lord Curzon at Pusa in Bihar, which has done valuable work. Conferences have been held at Pusa, Simla and Poona, with the object of providing a suitable training in agriculture. A Royal Commission on Agriculture has submitted its report and as a result of its recommendations an Imperial Council of Agricultural Research has been established by the Government of India at their headquarters. Among commercial colleges, the most important is the Sydenham College of Commerce in Bombay. Industrial institutions are dotted about India, some maintained by Government, others by municipalities or local boards, and others by private bodies. The most important are the Victoria Jubilee Technical Institute in Bombay. The Indian Institute of Science at Bangalore, the product of generous donations by the Tata family. The tendency in recent years has been to place these institutions under the control of the Departments of Industries. In addition to a number of engineering schools, there are Engineering Colleges at Roorkee, Sibpur, Poona, Madras, Rangoon, Patna and Benares each of which except that at Roorkee is affiliated to a university. The engineering colleges maintain a high standard and great pressure for admission is reported from several provinces. There are schools of art in the larger towns where not only architecture and the fine arts are studied, but also practical crafts like pottery and iron work. There are two forest colleges at Dehra Dun and Coimbatore and a Technical Institute is in existence at Cawnpore and a Mining School at Dhanbad. Mining and metallurgy are also taught by the Mining and Metallurgical College at Benares which provides a 4-year course leading to a B.Sc. degree in each subject. Provision has been made by the Government of India for the training of cadets for the Mercantile Marine Service and a ship "I.M.M.T.S. Dufferin" has been stationed for this purpose in Bombay waters.

The majority of these institutions are not under the control of provincial department of education. The following table shows in summary form the number of such institutions and of students attending them :—

Type of Institution.	1931.		1932.	
	Institutions.	Students.	Institutions.	Students.
Training colleges and normal schools for teachers.	762	33,623	656	30,350
Law colleges and schools ..	14	6,631	14	7,278
Medical colleges and schools ..	41	10,225	42	10,920
Engineering colleges and schools.	18	4,221	18	4 233
Agricultural colleges and schools.	23	1,594	21	1,406
Commercial colleges and schools.	143	8,246	142	8,106
Forest colleges	2	104	2	87
Veterinary colleges	4	473	4	489
Technical and Industrial schools.	480	27,209	483	26,711
Schools of Art	16	2,284	16	2,454
Total (British India) ..	1,503	94,610	1,398	92,034

Universities.

The first University in India, that of Calcutta, was founded in 1857. Between 1857 and 1887 four new Universities, at Bombay, Madras, Lahore and Allahabad were added. These five universities were all of the affiliating type. They consisted of groups of colleges, situated sometimes several hundred miles apart, and bound together by a legally constituted central organisation, which determined the qualifications for admission, prescribed the courses of study, conducted the examinations and exercised a mild form of control over the affiliated colleges. There was nothing under the system to limit the number of institutions affiliated to a University; and for thirty years, *i.e.*, from 1887 to 1917, the growing demand for university education was met, not by the creation of new universities, but by enlarging the size of the constituent colleges and by increasing their number. By 1917 this inflation had been carried on so far that the composition of the original five universities stood as follows:—

University.	Colleges.	Scholars.
Calcutta	58	28,618
Bombay	17	8,001
Madras	53	10,216
Punjab	24	6,558
Allahabad	33	7,807

It had become obvious that further expansion on the same lines was no longer possible without a serious loss of efficiency and the Government of India had recognised in their resolution of 1913 the necessity of creating new local teaching and residential universities in addition to the existing affiliating universities. The development of this policy was accelerated by the strength of communal feeling and the growth of local and provincial patriotism, leading to the establishment of a number of teaching universities. The new type of universities has since been strongly advocated by the Calcutta University Commission which has offered constructive proposals as to the lines to be followed in university reform.

There are now 18 Universities in India, of which two are situated in Indian States. The following table gives the latest available figures and certain other particulars about these Universities :—

Statistics of Universities—1933.

University.	Type.†	Original Date of Foundation.	Faculties.‡	No. of Members of Teaching Staff in 1932.		No. of Students in 1932.		No. of Students who graduated in Arts and Science in 1932.	Remarks.
				In University Departments.	In Affiliated Colleges.§	In University Departments.	In Affiliated Colleges.§		
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. Calcutta ..	Affiliating and Teaching.	1857	A., Sc., L., M., Eng.	239	1,320	1,257	25,303	2,044	Degrees in *Commerce* and *Education* are also awarded.
2. Bombay ..	Affiliating and Teaching.	1857	A., Sc., L., M.	4	773	87	14,412	1,016	Degrees in *Commerce, Education, Agriculture and Engineering* are also awarded.
3. Madras ..	Affiliating and Teaching.	1857	A., Sc., Ed, L., M., Eng., Ag., Com, O., F.A.	28	1,346	70	16,540	1,527	Degrees and Diplomas in *Oriental Learning and Economics* are also awarded.
4. Punjab ..	Affiliating and Teaching.	1882	O., A., Sc., M., L., Ag., Com. Eng.	85	927	736	16,232	1,923	Faculty of *Arts* includes *Education*.
5. Allahabad .	Unitary ..	1887	A., Sc., L., Com.	105	..	1,746	..	465	Reconstituted in 1921.
6. Benares Hindu.	Unitary ..	1916	A., Sc., O., Th., L., M.	190	..	2,993	..	195	....
7. Mysore* ..	Teaching .	1916	A., Sc., M., Eng. & Teach.	302	..	2,833	..	353	Degrees in *Commerce* and *Education* are also awarded.
8. Patna ..	Affiliating	1917	A., Sc., L., Edn., M., Eng.	..	336	..	4,739	252	....

* Situated in an Indian State outside British India.

† An "*Affiliating*" University is a University which recognises external colleges offering instruction in its courses of studies ; a "*Teaching*" University is one in which some or all of the teaching is controlled and conducted by teachers appointed by the University ; a "*Unitary*" University is one, usually localised in a single centre, in which the whole of the teaching is conducted by teachers appointed by and under the control of the University.

‡ *Faculties* :—A. = *Arts* ; Ag. = *Agriculture* ; Com. = *Commerce* ; Ed. = *Education (Teaching)* ; Eng. = *Engineering* ; F. = *Forestry* ; F.A. = *Fine Arts* ; L. = *Law* ; M. = *Medicine* ; O. = *Oriental Learning* ; Sc. = *Science* : Tech. = *Technology* ; Th. = *Theology*.

§ The term "*Affiliated Colleges*" here includes all colleges affiliated to, associated with or recognised by a University of any type.

University.	Type.†	Original Date of Foundation.	Faculties.‡	No. of Members of Teaching Staff.		No. of Students.		No. of Students who graduated in Arts and Science.	Remarks.
				In University Departments.	In Affiliated Colleges.§	In University Departments.	In Affiliated Colleges.§		
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
9. Osmania*	Teaching .	1918	A., Th., Sc., M., Eng., Ed., L.	165	..	856	..	64	....
10. Aligarh Muslim.	Unitary ..	1920	A., Sc., L., Ed., Th.	105	..	1,150	..	132	There are Departments of Studies in various subjects instead of Faculties.
11. Rangoon .	Teaching .	1920	A., Sc., M., Eng., F., Ed.	168	10	1,551	123	97	There are Boards of Studies in various subjects instead of Faculties.
12. Lucknow..	Unitary ..	1920	A., Sc., M., L., Com.	120	..	1,813	..	206	Diplomas in *Education* and *Oriental Languages* are also awarded.
13. Dacca ..	Unitary ..	1921	A., Sc., L.	107	..	1,063	..	172	Degrees in *Commerce* and *Education* are also awarded.
14. Delhi ..	Teaching .	1922	A., Sc., L.	11	99	98	1,928	161	....
15. Nagpur ..	Affiliating and Teaching.	1923	A., Sc., L., Ed., Ag.	7	125	345	2,009	252	....
16. Andhra ..	Affiliating	1926	A., Sc., M., Ed., O.	6	327	30	3,775	517	....
17. Agra ..	Affiliating	1927	A.,Sc.,Com. L., Ag.	..	410	..	2,985	399	....
18. Annamalai.	Unitary ..	1929	A., Sc., O..	68	..	561	..	82	....

For foot-notes see page 366.

Inter-University Board.—The idea put forward by the Indian Universities Conference in May 1924 for the constitution of a central agency in India took practical shape and an Inter-University Board came into being during 1925. Twelve out of fifteen universities joined the Board. Its functions are:—

(*a*) to act as an inter-university organisation and a bureau of information;

(*b*) to facilitate the exchange of professors;

(*c*) to serve as an authorised channel of communication and facilitate the co-ordination of university work;

(*d*) to assist Indian universities in obtaining recognition for their degrees, diplomas and examinations in other countries;

(*e*) to appoint or recommend, where necessary, a common representative or representatives of India at Imperial or International conferences on higher education;

(*f*) to act as an appointments bureau for Indian universities;

(*g*) to fulfil such other duties as may be assigned to it from time to time by the Indian Universities.

Each member University has to make a fixed annual contribution towards the expenses of the Board.

The meetings of the Board are held yearly. The Board consists of one representative of each of the member Universities and one representative of the Government of India.

The Board has not yet had much influence on University policy in India but it has done a considerable amount of useful work in collecting information and in stimulating thought regarding current University problems.

Education of Indian Women and Girls.—There is still a leeway to be made good. All the influences which operate against the spread of education amongst the boys are reinforced in the case of women by the *purdah* system and the custom of early marriage.

Arts colleges, medical colleges, and the like admit students of both sexes, and a few girls attend them. The Lady Hardinge Medical College for Women at Delhi gives a full medical course for medical students. The Shreemati Nathibai Damodher Thackersey Indian Women's University was started some ten years ago by Professor Karve. It is a private institution and is doing good pioneer work.

The All-India Women's Conference on Educational Reform, which holds its meetings annually and has constituent conferences established all over the country, is also doing much useful work. An All-India Women's Education Fund Association has also been established in connection with this Conference. This association appointed in 1930 a special committee to enquire into the feasibility of establishing a central Teachers' Training College of a specialised Home Science character. This committee reported at the end of the year recommending the establishment of such a college "on absolutely new lines which would synthesise the work of existing provincial colleges by psychological research" and the Governing Body of the Association supported the proposal at the Annual General Meeting of the Association which has adopted it. A college, called the Lady Irwin College, has since been established in New Delhi.

The comparative statement below shows the state of women's education during 1931-32.

	No. of Institutions.			No. of Scholars.		
	1931.	1932.	Increase or Decrease	1931.	1932.	Increase or Decrease.
Recognized institutoins—						
Arts Colleges	20	20	—	1,546	1,337	— 209
Professional Colleges..	8	8	—	250	283	+ 33
High Schools	312	324	+ 12	76,770	81,249	+ 4,479
Middle Schools	820	847	+ 27	115,996	122,780	+ 6,784
Primary Schools	32,154	32,635	+481	1,248,268	1,298,713	+50,445
Special Schools	400	390	— 10	15,592	15,876	+ 284
Unrecognized institutions	4,193	4,242	+ 49	85,846	92,234	+ 6,388
Total ..	37,907	38,466	+559	1,544,268	1,612,472	+68,204

Education in the Army.—The Army in India undertakes the responsibility of the education of certain sections of the community. Its activities are directed into various channels with certain definite objects, which may be summarised as follows :—

(*i*) The education of the soldier, British and Indian, in order to :—

(*a*) develop his training faculties;
(*b*) improve him as a subject for military training and as a citizen of the Empire;
(*c*) enhance the prospects of remunerative employment on his return to civil life.

(*ii*) The fulfilment of the obligations of the State to the children of soldiers, serving and ex-service (British and Indian).

(*iii*) The provision, as far as possible, of training for the children of soldiers, who have died in the service of their country.

(*iv*) The creation of a body of Indian gentlemen educated according to English public school traditions, which should provide suitable candidates for admission to the Royal Military College, Sandhurst.

The Prince of Wales' Royal Indian Military College, Dehra Dun.—A Royal Military College has been established at Dehra Dun. The aim of this institution is to provide education on the lines of an English public school for the sons of Indian gentlemen, both civil and military, up to the standard required for the passing of the entrance examination of the Royal Military College, Sandhurst.

The Indian Military Academy, Dehra Dun.—As a result of the recommendations of the Indian Military College Committee, which was appointed by the Government of India in 1931, the Indian Military Academy has been instituted at Dehra Dun. With the inauguration of this Academy, a new chapter in Indian history has opened. This Academy, which is to be as good as any similar institution in England, will train Indian young men for King's Commissions in the Army.

Chiefs' Colleges.—For the education of the sons and relatives of the Chiefs and Princes of India, whose families rule over one-third of the Indian continent, five Chiefs' Colleges are maintained, *viz* :—

(*i*) Mayo College, Ajmer, for Rajputana Chiefs;
(*ii*) Daly College, Indore, for Central India Chiefs;
(*iii*) Aitchison College, Lahore, for Punjab Chiefs;
(*iv*) Rajkumar College, Rajkote, for Kathiawar Chiefs; and
(*v*) Rajkumar College, Rajpur, for Central Provinces and Bihar and Orissa Chiefs.

In point of buildings, staffs and organisation these institutions approach English Public Schools. Students are prepared for a diploma examination conducted by the Government of India. The diploma is regarded as equivalent to the matriculation certificate of an Indian University. A further four-year course of University standard called the Higher Diploma is conducted at the Mayo College. The Intermediate and final examination for this Diploma are also held by the Government of India. Its standard is roughly equivalent to that of the B.A. diploma of an Indian University.

Indigenous Education.—Of the 12,766,537 scholars being educated in India 644,071 are classed as attending 'private' or 'unrecognised' institutions. Some of these institutions are of importance: The Gurukula near Hardwar and Sir Rabindra Nath Tagore's school at Bolpur have attained some fame; and the numerous monastery schools of Burma are well-known. Connected with every big Mosque in northern India there is some educational organisation and the schools attached to the Fatehpuri and Golden Mosques at Delhi and the Dar-ul-Ulm, Deoband, are noted. These institutions generally have a religious or 'national' atmosphere.

The Ayurvedic and Unani Tibbia College, Delhi, founded by the late Hakim Ajmal Khan, is an important unrecognised institution. It provides instruction in the indigenous system of medicine up to the highest standard and also gives some training in surgery.

Indian students in Foreign Countries.—Indian students still proceed to foreign countries, mainly, to Great Britain, America, Japan and Germany, to complete or supplement their education. About thirty years ago the number of Indian students in Great Britain was 400. The number now is well over 2,000, including students at Universities on the Continent and in the United States of America.

The distribution of these scholars in 1931-32 was as follows :—

1.	In Great Britian and Ireland—		
	England	1,451	
	Wales	30	
	Scotland	235	=1,753
	Ireland	37	
2.	In Europe—		
	Austria	5	
	France	34	
	Germany	72	= 117
	Sweden	1	
	Switzerland	5	
3.	United States of America :—		= 195
	Total		=2,065

Provincial Statistics.—The four tables, which are given below, summarise the salient features of educational progress in the different provinces in British India, and will be of general interest.

(i) *Number of Institutions*, 1931-32.

Province.	No. of Recognised Institutions.			No. of Unrecognised Institutions.			Total No. of Institutions.		
	1931.	1932.	Increase (+) or Decrease (—)	1931.	1932.	Increase (+) or Decrease (—)	1931.	1932.	Increase (+) or Decrease (—)
Madras	56,993	53,547	—3,446	1,820	1,580	—240	58,813	55,127	—3,686
Bombay	16,011	15,693	—48	1,277	1,247	—30	17,288	17,210	—78
Bengal	66,006	67,406	+1,400	1,633	1,630	—3	67,639	69,036	+1,397
United Provinces	23,662	23,520	—142	2,296	2,325	+29	25,958	25,845	—113
Punjab	13,457	12,000	—1,457	6,698	6,472	—226	20,155	18,472	—1,683
Burma	7,567	7,303	—264	17,957	18,194	+237	25,524	25,497	—27
Bihar and Orissa	29,593	29,036	—557	1,896	2,178	+282	31,489	31,214	—275
Central Provinces and Berar ..	5,312	5,335	+23	225	257	+32	5,537	5,592	+55
Assam	6,513	6,594	+81	601	600	—1	7,114	7,194	+80
North-West Frontier Province ..	968	987	+19	141	179	+38	1,109	1,166	+57
British India * ..	**227,189**	**222,804**	**—4,385**	**34,879**	**34,988**	**+109**	**262,068**	**257,792**	**—4,276**

* Includes figures for Minor Administrations and Provinces (centrally administered areas).

(ii) *Number of Scholars, 1931-32.*

Province.	No. of Scholars in Recognised Institutions.			No. of Scholars in Unrecognised Institutions.			Total No. of Scholars in all Kinds of Institutions.			Percentage of Total Scholars to Population.	
	1931.	1932.	Increase (+) or Decrease (—)	1931.	1932.	Increase (+) or Decrease (—)	1931.	1932.	Increase (+) or Decrease (—)	1931.	1932.
Madras	2,893,549	2,877,504	—16,045	56,566	47,378	—9,188	2,950,115	2,924,882	—25,233	7.0	6.3
Bombay	1,255,148	1,300,648	+45,500	35,463	34,899	—564	1,290,611	1,335,547	+44,936	6.7	6.1
Bengal	2,650,457	2,720,061	+69,604	62,096	63,164	+1,068	2,712,553	2,783,225	+70,672	5.4	5.6
United Provinces ..	1,451,698	1,457,997	+6,299	61,049	59,991	—1.058	1,512,747	1,517,988	+5,241	3.1	3.1
Punjab	1,259,004	1,200,600	—58,404	126,837	132,967	+6,130	1,385,841	1,333,567	—52,274	5.9	5.6
Burma	545,401	525,013	—20,388	192,866	202,393	+9,527	738,267	727,406	—10,861	5.0	4.3
Bihar and Orissa ..	1,031,322	1,038,634	+7,312	50,645	56,189	+5,544	1,081,967	1,094,823	+12,856	3.2	2.9
Central Provinces and Berar	434,386	450,494	+16,108	8,982	9,448	+466	443,368	459,942	+16,574	2.9	3.0
Assam	340,348	348,206	+7,958	24,426	24,012	—414	364,774	372,318	+7,544	4.7	4.3
North-West Frontier Province	81,093	83,918	+2,825	3,847	4,551	+704	84,940	88,469	+3,529	3.5	3.6
Total—British India*	12,056,837	12,122,466	+65,629	632,249	644,071	+11,822	12,689,086	12,766,537	+77,451	4.7	4.7

* Includes figures for Minor Administrations and Provinces (centrally administered areas.)

(iii.) *Distribution of Scholars in Recognised Institutions, 1932.*

Province.	No. of Scholars in Institutions for Males.							
	In Universities.	In Arts Colleges.	In Professional College.	In High Schools.	In Middle Schools.	In Primary Schools.	In Special Schools.	Total.
Madras	566	12,404	2,055	157,083	26,471	2,265,960	25,239	2,499,778
Bombay	87	9,226	3,073	81,358	24,829	975,866	16,388	1,110,827
Bengal	1,880	19,378	5,165	261,938	165,484	1,682,503	123,385	2,259,733
United Provinces	4,883	7,535	3,875	77,607	99,559	1,136,649	22,014	1,352,122
Punjab	20	12,900	1,952	131,655	507,527	386,870	22,258	1,063,182
Burma	1,551	123	26	54,884	135,981	255,707	17,720	465,992
Bihar & Orissa	....	3,574	921	48,034	76,527	820,777	18,335	968,164
Central Provinces and Berar ..	....	1,815	582	7,750	97,059	301,246	3,005	411,457
Assam	....	1,208	75	20,121	43,834	247,730	5,078	318,046
North-West Frontier Province ..	..	510	41	12,477	27,672	30,568	163	71,531
British India * ..	9,091	71,017	17,765	873,802	1,219,688	8,155,647	255,218	10,593,137

* Includes figures for Minor Provinces and Administration (centrally administered areas).

(iii) *Distribution of Scholars in Recognised Institutions*, 1932—contd.

Province.	No. of Scholars in Institutions for Females.						
	In Arts Colleges.	In Professional Colleges.	In High Schools.	In Middle Schools.	In Primary Schools.	In Spcial Schools.	Total.
Madras	509	66	16,360	6,408	358,895	5,488	387,726
Bombay	....	....	14,449	3,531	169,378	2,463	189,821
Bengal	366	43	15,644	8,606	433,775	1,894	460,328
United Provinces	172	11	6,354	33,600	64,941	797	105,875
Punjab	240	29	12,263	28,135	94,050	2,701	137,418
Burma	....	....	7,606	14,590	36,203	622	59,021
Bihar and Orissa	5	....	1,882	5,186	62,830	627	70,470
Central Provinces and Berar ..	....	 8	363	6,531	31,377	758	39,037
Assam	....	....	1,937	5,413	22,760	150	30,260
North-west Frontier Province..	....	....	366	4,773	7,200	48	12,387
British India * ..	1,337	283	81,249	122,780	1,298,713	15,876	1,520,238

* Includes figures for Minor Administrations and Provinces (centrally administered areas).

(iv) *Expenditure on Education*, 1931-32.

Province.	Total Expenditure.			Percentage of Expenditure.				Average Annual cost per Scholar.				
	1931.	1932.	Increase (+) or Decrease (—)	Government Funds.	Local Funds. (a)	Fees.	Other Sources.	Government Funds.	Local Funds. (a)	Fees.	Other Sources.	Total cost.
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	%	%	%	%	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.
Madras	6,14,07,938	5,67,61,851	—46,46,087	45.1	16.0	17.2	21.7	9 0 4	3 3 6	3 7 1	4 5 9	20 0 8
Bombay	4,03,19,042	4,00,40,549	—2,78,493	47.5	19.5	20.3	12.7	15 0 0	6 0 0	6 0 0	4 0 0	31 0 0
Bengal	4,39,31,553	4,22,87,036	—16,44,517	34.1	7.5	42.6	15.8	5 4 10	1 3 2	6 8 0	2 8 0	15 8 0
United Provinces ..	3,89,28,358	3,89,21,112	—7,246	56.0	13.4	17.4	13.2	14 15 2	3 9 1	4 10 2	3 8 8	26 11 1
Punjab	3,28,40,628	3,08,31,143	—20,09,485	53.5	13.0	23.4	10.1	13 11 9	3 5 7	6 0 2	2 9 4	25 10 10
Burma	2,15,33,088	2,11,11,085	—4,22,003	44.6	23.6	19.2	12.6	17 15 3	9 7 9	7 11 5	5 0 10	40 3 4
Bihar and Orissa ..	1,84,48,200	1,73,91,805	—10,56,395	32.0	29.3	23.3	15.4	5 5 9	4 14 5	3 14 7	2 9 2	16 11 11
Central Provinces and Berar	1,12,86,050	1,03,79,760	—9,06,290	45.9	27.9	16.9	9.3	10 9 2	6 6 10	3 14 4	2 2 4	23 0 8
Assam	52,61,996	50,10,284	—2,51,712	57.5	12.6	16.7	13.2	8 6 5	1 12 10	2 4 10	1 12 9	14 4 10
North-West Frontier Province	28,27,631	27,21,862	—1,05,769	68.5	10.8	9.6	11.1	24 0 1	3 12 7	3 6 0	3 14 2	35 0 10
Total—British India. *	28,31,61,446	27,18,56,622	—1,13,04,824	45.8	16.1	22.9	15.2	10 4 5	3 9 10	5 2 2	3 6 4	22 6 9

* Includes figures for Minor Administrations and Provinces (centrally administered areas).
(a) Includes both District Board and Municipal Funds.

BOY SCOUTS.

The Boy Scouts movement, initiated in England by Lord Baden Powell (the Chief Scout), has spread widely in India, both among Europeans and Indians. The Viceroy is Chief Scout of India and the heads of Provinces are Chief Scouts in their own areas. The aim of the Association is to develop good citizenship among boys by forming their character—training them in habits of observation, obedience and self-reliance—inculcating loyalty and thoughtfulness for others—and teaching them services useful to the public and handicrafts useful to themselves.

It is confidently anticipated that in the Boy Scout Movement will be found a natural means of bridging the gulf between the different races existing in India. The movement is non-official, non-military, non-political and non-sectarian. Its attitude towards religion is to encourage every boy to follow the faith he professes. Every boy admitted as a Scout makes a three-fold promise to do his best: (1) to be loyal to God, King and country; (2) to help others at all times; and (3) to obey the Scout law. The law referred to lays down—

1. That a Scout's honour is to be trusted;
2. That he is loyal to God, King and country his parents, teachers, employers, his comrades' his country and those under him;
3. That he is to be useful and to help others;
4. That he is a friend to all and a brother to every other scout, no matter to what social class the other belongs;
5. That he is courteous;
6. That he is a friend to animals;
7. That he obeys orders;
8. That he smiles and whistles under all difficulties;
9. That he is thrifty;
10. That he is clean in thought, word, and deed.

INDIAN HEADQUARTERS.

Patron.—H. R. H. The Prince of Wales, K.G.

Chief Scout for India.—His Excellency The Right Hon'ble The Earl of Willingdon, G.M.S.I., G.M.I.E., G.C.M.G., G.B.E.

Chief Commissioner.—(Vacant.)

Secretary to the Chief Scout.—E. C. Mieville, Esq., C.M.G.

Deputy Secretary to the Chief Scout.—O. C. B. St. John, Esq.

Assistant Secretary to the Chief Scout.—Rai Sahib G. Dutta.

Organising Secretary for India.—G. T. J. Thaddaeus, Esq.

General Council for India—

Ex-officio.—The Chief Commissioner for India.
The Provincial Commissioners.
The Presidents of Provincial Councils.

Elected.—(Not completed.)

Nominated.—(Not completed.)

Provincial Commissioner for Bombay Presidency—Sir Chunilal Mehta, M.A., LL.B., K.C.S.I.

Provincial Secretary for Bombay—B. T. Char, Esq., B.A.

Scout Strength.

Provincial and State Associations.	Scouts.	Sea Scouts.	Cubs.	Rover Scouts.	Rover Sea Scouts.	Total Scouts, Cubs, Rovers.
Assam	1,554	..	827	28	..	2,409
Baluchistan	323	..	241	83	..	647
Bangalore	421	..	299	25	..	745
Bengal	5,953	..	2,662	472	..	9,087
Bihar and Orissa	5,990	..	2,167	326	..	8,483
Bombay	21,929	173	7,861	912	45	30,920
Burma	4,092	..	834	267	..	5,193
Central India	231	..	189	22	..	442
Central Provinces	15,625	..	13,281	1,348	..	30,254

Provincial and State Association.	Scouts.	Sea Scouts.	Cubs.	Rover Scouts.	Rover Sea Scouts.	Total Scouts, Cubs, Rovers.
Delhi	698	..	302	14	..	1,014
Hyderabad British Administered Areas ..	507	..	388	17	..	912
Madras	8,264	..	2,898	946	..	12,108
N. W. F. P.	2,750	..	928	210	..	3,888
Punjab	33,427	..	5,891	735	4	40,057
Rajputana	646	..	170	163	..	979
United Provinces	1,575	..	480	91	..	2,146
Western India States ..	1,150	..	119	132	..	1,401
Baghat State	30	..	37	18	..	85
Barwani State	106	..	10	3	..	119
Bharatpur State	341	..	275	25	..	641
Bhopal State	951	..	..	..	..	951
Bijawar State	24	..	32	..	.	56
Charkhari State	48	..	6	..		54
Chhatarpur State	298	..	6	16	..	320
Cochin State	877	..	272	168	..	1,324
Datia State	134	..	28	..	..	162
Dhenkanal	1,348	..	1,281	658	..	3,287
Jaipur State	913	..	226	190	..	1,329
Jammu and Kashmir ..	1,558	77	1,720	105	..	3,460
Jath State	193	..	24	..	..	217
Jhabua State	48	..	..	..	..	48
Khilchipur State	20	..	5	..	..	25
Kolhapur State	1,566	..	439	307	..	2,312
Kurwai State	40	..	30	..	..	70
Marwar State	1,190	..	782	67	..	2,039
Mysore State	5,803	..	4,947	1,190	..	11,940
Nagod State	59	..	..	..	..	59
Narsingharh	56	..	16	..	..	72
Nawangar State	363	18	18	..	..	399
Orchha State	124	..	251	..	..	375
Patiala State	533	..	136	30	..	699
Pudukkottai	259	..	300	12	..	571
Rajgarh State	80	..	15	..	..	95
Rampur State	24	..	30	..	..	54
Ratlam State	35	..	41	31	..	107
Sailana State	64	..	64	24	..	152
Sangli State	334	..	42	32	..	408
Tonk State	20	..	..	1	..	21
Travancore	1,375	..	436	151	..	1,962
Grand Total ..	1,23,949	268	51,013	8,819	4	1,84,098

The Co-operative Movement.

Prolegomena.—The co-operative movement in India has now been with us for more than a quarter of a century, having been introduced in 1904 when the Co-operative Credit Societies' Act was passed by the Government of India. During this period it has taken root in the soil and grown with wonderful rapidity, not only in the British Indian provinces but also in the Indian States. Though essentially meant for the betterment of the agriculturists, it has spread to urban areas likewise for the benefit of the small man in towns, be he the toiling factory operative or the ill-paid clerk or the small tradesman. It is being increasingly realised that co-operation is not a branch of knowledge but a method which enables the small men to stand up against the powerful forces of competition and exploitation, to gather strength and improve his economic condition by the mighty forces of association and co-ordinated action in a co-operative society, permeated with the co-operative spirit of thrift, self-reliance and mutual aid, so well summarised in the motto of the Co-operative Union of Manchester—"Each for all and all for each." This method has, therefore, been adopted not only for the betterment of the agriculturists and the economic regeneration of the rural masses but has also been applied for the cure of the many economic ills of the small man in towns. But though the movement has thus developed in very many directions, it is still predominantly an agricultural movement and that too chiefly for the organisation of agricultural finance on a co-operative basis. It would, therefore, be proper before we proceed further, if we indicate broadly the main features of the economic position of the agriculturist in this country.

Rural Poverty.—The outstanding feature of Indian rural economy that is bound to arrest the attention of any observer is the appalling poverty of the rural population. The various estimates, official and non-official, that have been made of the income per head of population in India at various times leave the matter absolutely in no doubt. The Central Banking Enquiry Committee estimates that the average income of an agriculturist in British India does not work out at a higher figure than Rs. 42 a year. The vast magnitude of this evil will be better realised when we take into account the predominance of the agricultural population in India. In 1891 61 per cent. of the total population of the country lived on agriculture; this percentage rose to 66 in 1901 and to 73 per cent. in 1921; in 1931, the percentage has fallen a little to 67. The poverty of the agriculturist may be due to a variety of causes, but we cannot ignore the fact that agriculture has in a large measure ceased to be an industry worked for profit; the cultivator labours not for a net return but for subsistence. The extent of an **average holding** which works out at about 6 acres for an agricultural family of 5 persons is too inadequate to maintain it in ordinary comfort even with the low standard of living which is so characteristic of the rural population of India. Moreover the Indian cultivator is in a large measure exposed to the vicissitudes of seasons and the **vagaries of the monsoon.** In every 5 years there is but one good year, one bad year and three indifferent years. These unfavourable conditions might be mitigated to some extent by a well conceived policy of **irrigation** by the State; but so far, of the total cultivated area in the country, about 16 per cent. only has irrigation facilities from rivers, tanks or wells while the remaining 84 per cent. depends merely on rainfall. Thus the frequency of failure of crops, owing to drought and floods and pests, coupled with the low vitality and high mortality of the live stock, render the economic position of the cultivator worse still. The inadequacy of the **subsidiary occupations** to supplement the slender income from agriculture contributes further to his extreme economic weakness. He has sufficient spare time on his hands to devote himself to subsidiary occupations but he has been exposed to the full blast of competition of forces from the rest of the world and many of the industries on which he relied in the past have suffered largely from or been wiped out by the competition of machine-made articles. The recent fall in the world prices of agricultural produce has affected him powerfully for he is now being drawn steadily into the sphere of influence of markets both national and international and he has neither the organisation nor the credit facilities to help him as in countries like the United States of America and Canada and several European countries. In addition to these numerous difficulties, the Indian agriculturist has another serious handicap in this that he is largely **illiterate.** The percentage of literacy in India is still very low being only 8 per cent. and any progress in agriculture is well nigh impossible without the background of general education. All these factors lead to the most outstanding feature of Indian rural economy—the chronic and almost hopeless **indebtedness** of the cultivator. The Central Banking Enquiry Committee has estimated that the total rural indebtedness in India is about Rs. 900 crores. Though indebtedness of the agricultural population has been there from old times, it is acknowledged that the indebtedness has risen considerably during the last century and more especially during the last 50 years. This colossal burden of debt is the root problem which has got to be faced in any attempt towards the economic regeneration of the masses. Numerous causes have been advanced to account for rural indebtedness and we already have pointed out some of the general causes which give rise to it. A peculiarity, however, that we notice is that the debt which remains unpaid during the lifetime of the cultivator who contracted it passes on as a burden to his heirs so that many agriculturists start their career with a heavy burden of ancestral debt which they in their turn pass on with some further

increase to their successors. Ignorance and improvidence, extravagance and conservatism have further been held forth as the reasons for the continued growth of this heavy load. A marriage festival in the family tempts him to launch out into extravagance while funeral feasts prove no less costly. All these factors—the uneconomic nature of the agricultural industry, chronic and heavy indebtedness and illiteracy form a thoroughly depressive background of Indian rural economy.

Genesis of the Movement.—It is no wonder under the circumstances detailed above to find that the Indian agriculturist has constant recourse to borrowing and that too not only for any land improvement that he may contemplate but for his current agricultural needs as also for periodical unproductive purposes such as weddings and funeral feasts. The absence of any banking organisation in the country-side has driven him into the arms of the **sowcar** or the mahajan who, while proving a very accommodating person, has exercised a grip on him from which it has been found almost impossible to extricate him. The usurious rates of interest charged, coupled with various devices which increase still further the actual rate of interest, and the numerous services which the sowcar performs as a retail tradesman and the buyer of his produce, make him the dominant force in the village, reducing the agriculturist to the position of a serf, toiling for generation after generation, without ever hoping for a release from his clutches, getting a bare subsistence as a reward for all the trouble that he might take and therefore becoming listless, fatalistic and absolutely unprogressive. The gravity of the situation in certain parts of the Bombay Presidency was brought to the fore by the agrarian riots that took place in the Poona District in 1878, and protective legislation in the form of the Deccan Agriculturists' Relief Act was passed in the following year. In 1882, Sir William Wedderburn suggested the institution of an agricultural bank for relieving the indebtedness of the cultivators, but the scheme was dropped as being impracticable and financially unsound. In 1883 the Land Improvements Loans Act was passed and this was followed in the next year by the Agriculturists Loan Act enabling Government to advance loans repayable by easy instalments and at low rates of interest for improvements and also for current agricultural needs. In 1892 Sir Frederick Nicholson submitted a report to the Madras Government on the possibility of introducing land and agricultural banks and the discussion thus initiated by him was continued by Mr. Dupernex of the U. P., in his "Peoples' Banks for Northern India". The Government and Government officials continued to take greater interest in the matter and tried to find a suitable solution. The caste system of the Hindus and the ideas of common brotherhood among the Moslems were evidences of the peoples' natural aptitude for co-operation and the *nidhis* of Southern India furnished a practical proof of this aptitude. These *nidhis* were mutual loan funds whereby the members in turn got the use in lump of a considerable capital repayable by small easy instalments. The system depended upon association, confidence and honest dealing. The Government of India in 1901 appointed a committee to consider the question of the establishment of agricultural banks in India and the report of this committee resulted in the passing of the Co-operative Credit Societies' Act of 1904. The co-operative movement was thus launched in India on the 25th March, 1904. The Act aimed at encouraging thrift, self-help and co-operation amongst agriculturists, artisans and persons of limited means and the societies that were to be started were intended to be small simple credit societies for small and simple folks with simple needs and requiring small sums only. Knowledge of and confidence in their fellow members which are the keynote of success were ensured by providing that a society should consist of persons residing in the same town or village or group of villages and should be members of the same tribe, class or caste. In order to provide facilities in urban areas for the small man, urban societies were also permitted. It was laid down that four-fifths of the members in the case of rural societies should be agriculturists and in the case of urban societies—non-agriculturists. The Act introduced the principle of unlimited liability for rural societies following the Raiffeisen system in Germany, though it permitted urban societies to choose the Schulze-Delitzch model. Profits in rural societies were to be carried to a reserve fund or applied to the reduction of the rate of interest but the bonus could be distributed to the members only after requirements in this direction had been fully met, while in the urban societies 25 per cent. of the profits were to be carried to the reserve fund. The local Governments were empowered to appoint special officers called Registrars of Co-operative Societies, whose duty it would be to register societies formed under the Act, to get the accounts of such societies audited by a member of their staff and in general to see that the societies worked well. The main business of the societies was to raise funds by deposits from members and loans from non-members, Government and other bodies and to distribute the money thus obtained as loans to their members. Soon after the passing of the Act, various Provincial Governments appointed Registrars, who with the assistance of local honorary workers began to organize co-operative societies which started working with loans given freely for the purpose to them by Government. The seed thus sown has grown to-day in the course of 30 years into a fine tree with twigs and branches, spread out in many directions. In spite of several weaknesses in the co-operative movement in India to-day, it is beyond dispute that the movement has been a powerful instrument towards the awakening of the country-side and has led to a steady improvement in various directions of the life of the Indian cultivator. Moreover, the use of the vote, the elective system, self-help, self-reliance, compromises, gives and takes, work on an organized plan, rounding of angularities are great items in the training up of a citizen and the co-operative societies have been great schools for political and civic education. Since the launching of the movement in 1904, there have been amendments of the co-operative law

and committees and commissions of enquiry to remedy defects and to suggest further lines of action. These we shall note later on.

Growth of Co-operation.—In the first few years of the movement the number of societies grew up very slowly but the growth was considerably accelerated from 1910 and the average number of societies from 1910 to 1915 was about 1,100. The pace of growth still further quickened and now there are about 94,000 agricultural societies and over 10,000 non-agricultural ones. Table II shows the distribution of these societies by provinces. It will appear from the table that progress in different parts of India has not been uniform. Bengal, the Punjab and Madras have the largest **number of Societies**—while the other major provinces like Bombay, Bihar and Orissa, the United Provinces and the Central Provinces, Burma and Assam show distinctly smaller figures. The Punjab with over 20,000 societies stands first in the number of societies (88) per one lakh inhabitants, while Bengal which has a larger number of societies than the Punjab stands second in that respect with 47. The progress in smaller areas, like Coorg and Ajmer-Merwara, must be regarded as very satisfactory in view of their small population, since the number of societies per one lakh inhabitants works out in their case at 127 and 111 respectively. It is satisfactory to note that the co-operative movement has spread not only among the British Indian Provinces but also in Indian States and compared to the total population, Bhopal and Gwalior lead in this matter though the premier States of Kashmir, Mysore, Baroda and Hyderabad have also made considerable progress. Even more instructive are the figures in Table IV. The total **number of members** of primary societies stands on the 30th of June 1932 at 43 lakhs. Taking the normal family at a little under 5, it is clear, therefore, that more than two crores of the people of India are being served by this movement. There is no single movement in the country fraught with such tremendous possibilities for the uplift of masses as the co-operative movement and there is no single movement with such a large percentage of the population affected by it. Though the Punjab leads in the number of members of societies (28.8) per one thousand inhabitants, Bombay comes next with 25.9, while Madras and Bengal rank thereafter. This shows that the size of societies varies in different provinces and that Bombay, while having a smaller number of societies, has a larger average of membership per society as compared with the other provinces of British India. Of the smaller areas, Coorg takes a leading place with 72.8 members per one thousand inhabitants, while Travancore has an average of 43.6. Membership is a much better test in many respects of progress than the number of societies and from this point of view, the progress in Bombay, the Punjab, Coorg, Travancore and Bhopal must be regarded as distinctly satisfactory. There is, however, a third aspect also of the growth of the movement. Merely the number of societies, or the membership in the societies is not an index of the work that is being done and of the benefits which are being conferred by the movement on the population affected. The societies are predominantly credit organisations or rather small banking institutions and the part that they play can be better appreciated from their **working capital** than from merely the numbers of members. In this direction also we must note the marvellous progress so far achieved by the movement. From about Rs. 68 lakhs, which was the average up to 1910, the working capital has advanced very rapidly and stands to-day at about Rs. 93 crores. It is pleasing to note from Table V that this large sum has been derived mostly from non-Government sources. The share capital, the reserve fund and the deposits from members together contribute about Rs. 31 crores and this is really owned capital or the members' own money. The provincial or central banks contribute almost an equal sum and so do the non-members or the outside public. This latter item shows to a remarkable extent the growth of public confidence in co-operative institutions and speaks well in general of the management of the societies and the very useful purpose they serve in the banking organisation of the country. The distribution of the working capital by provinces and States (Table VI) gives us a further insight into the progress made in this direction by the co-operative movement in different parts of India. The Punjab leads in this respect also with 125 annas per head of population while Bombay comes next with 105. Madras and Bengal fall behind with 58 and 52 respectively. Among the smaller areas, Ajmer-Merwara comes out first with 127 annas per head of population while Coorg follows with 91. Of the Indian States, Indore takes the first place with 71 and Bhopal follows closely with 57. Bombay stands an easy first in the matter of deposits from members which amount to about three crores out of a total working capital of about 14 crores and this is one of the best tests of the success of a co-operative society. It is obvious from a glance at the figures in the tables that there has been very rapid progress in the number of societies, in their membership and in the working capital of these societies. The Punjab, generally speaking, leads in many respects with Bombay coming close behind. The smaller areas and the Indian States have also achieved considerable progress though the movement there started comparatively later. The agricultural societies predominate in all the provinces and States while non-agricultural, that is, urban societies show a much slower development. While there is much room for satisfaction at the phenomenal growth of the movement in rural and urban areas, it must be admitted, however, that merely the figures of the number, membership and working capital are not enough to base conclusions upon. But before we proceed further, we must now explain the chief component parts of the structure, as it has now been built up, of the co-operative movement in the country.

Financial Structure of the Movement.—Apart from the comparatively few co-operative societies at present working in India for non-credit purposes, it must be recognised that whether in urban or rural areas, a co-operative society largely means a small bank or a credit institution for providing financial accommodation to its members on a co-operative basis. Of these credit institutions, by far the greater

proportion is rural. The rural credit society has, for its main purpose, the financing of the agriculturist and as such it needs funds. The original idea of co-operative credit lies in making available to the needy the surplus of the well-to-do brethren through the medium of the society; but in Indian villages, the well-to-do and the needy rather form distinct groups, the former playing or trying to play the sowcar. Thus instead of comprising more or less all sections of the population of the village, the society is rather made up of the needy section only, at any rate, very largely. Even otherwise, the slender savings of the well-to-do would not be enough to meet the wants of the needy and each village society is not, therefore, able to be self-sufficient, making available the deposits of its well-to-do members as loans for the needy ones. The heavy load of unproductive debt of the average Indian farmer, his habit of investing his savings, if any, in lands and ornaments, and his illiteracy and consequent lack of the banking habit, soon made it apparent that the rural credit societies could not be expected to raise the required funds in deposits either from members or locally. The question of funds for the working of a rural co-operative society thus becomes a vital question indeed. Central banks have therefore been brought into existence at the district head-quarters in order to raise money from towns and make them available to the primary rural societies. Following up the idea further, it has been found necessary to have a provincial bank at the provincial head-quarters to serve as a balancing centre for the central banks and to make available larger funds for the primary societies through the central banking institutions. The financial structure of the co-operative movement is thus largely composed of three parts—(*i*) the Agricultural Credit Society, (*ii*) the Central financing agencies, and (*iii*) the provincial banks. Obviously one more part in the structure seems possible and desirable, namely, an Apex All-India Co-operative Bank. So far, however, such an All-India Bank has not been started and the provincial banks have been content with an All-India Provincial Co-operative Bank's Association.

Agricultural Credit Societies.—The success of these societies is closely related to their very peculiar constitution. In an ordinary joint stock company, a member is liable only to the extent of the value of his share holding and his liability is therefore limited; but in the case of agricultural credit societies, the liability is unlimited, that is to say, members are jointly and severally liable to the creditors of the society for the full amount of the debts incurred by it. Such a liability would never be acceptable to any person, unless he was imbued with the broader vision of brotherhood between members and unless he himself had an active voice in the management of the society and had a more or less full knowledge of the character and antecedents of his fellow members. Co-operative credit is the capitalisation of character and unlimited liability is the great instrument to secure the admission into a society as members of these persons only, who by their character and antecedents deserve to be taken into that brotherhood which imposes such an obligation as unlimited liability on all, so that they either swim or sink together. To secure success, therefore, the proper selection of members is of the utmost importance; and it has been unfortunate that in India this has not been in practice as well kept in view as it should have been, in the eager desire to promote the formation of more and yet more societies.

Credit is a blessing only if turned to productive account; if used up for unproductive purposes, it is a curse. It would enrich the producer but it would only impoverish the consumer. It is capable of fruitful employment by the intelligent but it leads the illiterate and the ignorant towards perdition. The Indian agriculturist needs money for productive purposes, such as his current agricultural needs, land improvement, purchase of stock and implements, manures and seeds as also for unproductive purposes, such as repayment of old debts, weddings and funerals. He thus requires credit not only as a producer but also as a consumer—a producer who hardly makes profits from his industry and a consumer who has no past savings to enable him to tide over a bad period, but who is a perpetual borrower ready to live for to-day and letting the to-morrow take care of itself. He is besides ignorant and illiterate and though sufficiently conversant with the routine of his industry, hardly awake to the need or scope for improvements in his methods. Under such circumstances, it is imperative for the management of the rural co-operative society very carefully to scrutinise the loan applications and examine the purpose for which loans have been asked and to see carefully that the loan when sanctioned is used for the specific purpose. And yet, it is in this respect that there is considerable scope for improvement.

The **funds** of an agricultural credit society are raised from entrance fees, share capital, deposits or loans from non-members, loans from the central or provincial banks, loans from Government and the reserve fund. Entrance fees are collected chiefly to meet preliminary expenses of organisation and purchase of account books and forms. The levy is generally very small. In some localities members contribute a small share capital and in some they do not. In the Punjab, the United Provinces and to a very great extent in Madras and Burma societies based on the share capital system are the rule, while in other provinces the share and the non-share societies flourish side by side. The share capital of these co-operative societies is not regarded as a dividend-earning investment but is primarily looked upon as a contribution to the common capital. The income from entrance fees and share capital is however small compared with the financial requirements of the members. The large sources from which funds are derived are deposits and loans. The volume of deposits which a society is able to secure on terms offered by it is an index of the measure of the public confidence it has inspired and the soundness and the stability of its financial position. The ideal placed before these societies is the development of members' deposits to the extent of making the society financially self-sufficient. These deposits by members further serve the purpose of stimulating thrift and saving habit among them, and are, therefore,

eminently desirable. Attempts are everywhere made to encourage them, but the response has been small, except in the province of Bombay, where it forms about ¼ of the total working capital. Regarding the encouragement of deposits from non-members however in the agricultural credit societies, the Indian Central Banking Enquiry Committee sounded a note of caution. Loans from central banks therefore furnish the bulk of the working capital of these agricultural credit societies at present.

Low dividends and voluntary services resulting in low cost of management, has made it possible to divert a substantial proportion of the profits of these societies to reserve funds, and thereby provide against unforeseen losses, bad debts and losses on the realisation of certain assets such as by investment depreciation. The general practice in regard to the use of the reserve fund in the business of the societies is that it is used as ordinary working capital.

The funds collected by the agricultural credit societies in India at present are by no means negligible. They aggregate to more than thirty-five crores of rupees. Their financial position as on the 30th of June 1932 stood thus :—

	In thousands of rupees.
Share capital	4,38,98
Reserve Fund	7,20,08
Deposits	3,22,81
Loans	20,03,35
Total Working Capital ..	35,09,25

The figures show that these tiny agricultural societies in India work with about Rs. 15 crores of their own capital (including members' deposits in this head) as against their outside borrowed capital of about Rs. 20 crores. The owned capital was thus about 46 per cent. of their total working capital, and this proportion is rising steadily as years pass by.

So far as the **period** for which loans are advanced is concerned, they are classified as short, intermediate and long. Short-term and intermediate credits are intended to meet current outgoings and to facilitate production. The current outgoings and expenses of production include the buying of cattle and agricultural implements; purchase of manure and seeds; expenses of transplantation in the case of wet cultivation and weeding and hoeing of dry crops and of reaping, gathering and threshing; maintenance of the farmer, his family and livestock and payment of revenue and rent; and outlay on various items of improvements effected in the ordinary course of husbandry such as levelling, deep ploughing irrigation, clearance, drainage, fencing, and installation of pumping plant. Long-term credit is meant for obtaining fixed capital to be invested permanently or for long periods, for the purchase of land, acquisition of costly equipments, consolidation and improvement of holdings and repayment of past debts.

The Provincial Banking Enquiry Committees are practically unanimous in stating that agricultural credit societies cannot safely advance loans to their members for more than three years (that is to say, short and intermediate loans) and that the proper agency to advance long-term loans is the Co-operative Land Mortgage Bank. These considerations are not now properly appreciated, but the necessity for their application is being more and more recognised.

Central Financing Agencies.—The formation of banks in urban areas on co-operative principles, with the sole object of raising funds for advances to societies having been found necessary to place the financial structure of the movement on a sound basis, the Co-operative Act of 1904 was amended in 1912 and the Co-operative Societies Act II of that year provided for the registration of central banks with the sole object of financing societies. Soon thereafter the number of central financing agencies grew rapidly all over the country, especially in the United Provinces. The function of these central societies was not only to supply the required capital to the primary societies but also to make the surplus resources of some societies available for other societies suffering from a deficiency of funds and to provide proper guidance and inspection over them. On the 30th June 1932 the number of central banks was 595.

Central banks can be classified into three types as follows :—(1) banks of which the membership is confined to individuals, (2) banks of which the membership is confined to societies, (3) banks which include both individuals and societies among their members. The first class includes any bank in which the shareholders consist entirely of individuals or in which societies are admitted as shareholders on exactly the same footing as individuals without any special provision for securing their representation on the board of management or for reserving a definite portion of the share capital for them and where there is no restriction on the distribution of profits to shareholders; such banks have now practically disappeared. The second class consists of a purely co-operative type of bank where membership is confined only to societies and the general policy and management are wholly controlled by them. This type in theory is the most suitable agency to finance co-operative societies, and represents the ideal to which the financial structure of co-operation must aspire. The management of such a **Banking Union** is usually rural and local and its operations are generally confined to a small area, enabling the affiliated societies to take a direct part in its administration and control, and enabling the union in its turn to be in constant touch with its societies. The successful working of a banking union requires competent men with local influence and knowledge as members of primary societies and a compact and co-operatively well developed area. Such unions therefore are not attempted in most places in the country. In a mixed type of co-operative bank, the member societies are assigned a certain proportion of the shares and given suitable representaton on the board, and the services of individual sympathisers are also secured for the movement by admitting them as shareholders; and this is the type of central bank which predominates in the country as a whole. Roughly speaking, if a straight line is drawn across the map of the country from Calcutta to Karachi, unions of the pure federal type are numerous to the north of this line while central banks of the mixed type predominate in the South.

There are four main sources from which a central bank derives its working capital which stood in 1931-32 at Rs. 30·6 crores: (*a*) Share capital, (*b*) Reserve, (*c*) Deposits, (*d*) Loans.

The total paid up share capital of central banks in British India and Indian States in 1931-32 was a little under Rs. 3 crores. No individual shareholder is generally permitted to hold shares of more than Rs. 1,000 while an affiliated society is required to subscribe to the shares of a central bank in proportion to its borrowings. In Bombay, Burma, Delhi, Coorg, Gwalior and Indore, the shares of central banks are fully paid up while in other provinces and Indian States the shares are not fully paid up but carry a reserve liability. The liability attaching to shares is ordinarily limited to their face value but in a few provinces the liability fixed is generally four to ten times the face value of each share. In addition to the statutory reserve, almost all central banks have special reserves created for special purposes or objects, such as bad debts, building, and dividend equalisation. The total amount of reserve funds and other reserves of central banks in British India and the Indian States in 1931-32 was a little over Rs. 2¼ crores.

The paid up share capital and reserves of central banks constitute the owned resources of these banks as distinguished from borrowed resources and provide the guarantee fund against which additional funds are raised by them in the shape of deposits or loans. It is usual to prescribe a suitable proportion between the owned and borrowed resources of central banks in each province. The most usual proportion observed in practice between the borrowed and owned resources in all parts of the country is 1 to 8. Deposits from members and non-members constitute the bulk of the borrowed capital of central banks. The total amount of deposits held by central banks in the year 1931-32 from individuals and other sources amounted to Rs. 18·5 crores, and from primary societies to Rs. 2·7 crores. Deposits in central banks are mainly of two kinds, *viz.*, savings and fixed. Current deposits are not universal but confined only to selected central banks in selected areas. The principle usually observed by these banks is not to grant loans to societies for periods longer than those for which deposits are available, and where loans for long periods are advanced, the periods of deposits are also comparatively long. The receipts and payments of deposits are generally spread over the year except in Bihar and Orissa where, due to the one-date-deposit-system, deposits whenever received are repayable on the 31st May every year. In addition to funds obtained by deposits, central banks raise loans either from outside banks, from other central banks, from the local provincial bank or from Government. The total amount of loans held by the central banks in 1931-32 from outside banks, from other co-operative banks and from the provincial banks was Rs. 3·7 crores and from Government Rs. 52 lakhs. Excepting in Burma central banks in other provinces of British India do not directly borrow loans from Government; the central banks of Indian States, excepting Mysore, do to a greater or less extent hold loans from Government, while in Gwalior, loans from Government constitute the most important item of the total working capital. Borrowings from outside banks are generally confined to accommodation obtained from the Imperial Bank of India against Government Securities or Promissory Notes executed by societies in favour of the central bank and endorsed by the latter in favour of the Imperial Bank. This accommodation is, however, limited and advances from other joint stock banks are also now rare. The main source of loans is, therefore, the provincial bank, and where a provincial bank exists, the central banks are generally prohibited from having any direct dealings with either the Imperial Bank or any other joint stock bank or with one another. This rule is however not rigidly observed in the Punjab and Madras. Several central banks in the country, due to their long standing, now possess sufficient resources to be independent of any outside financial assistance but they all continue credit arrangements mainly with the provincial bank on which they rely for emergencies.

In the initial stages, several central banks developed from ordinary urban societies which granted advances to individual shareholders. A few of such central banks have continued the practice and the amount advanced by central banks to individual members during the year 1931-32 was Rs. 95 lakhs chiefly in the Punjab, Bombay and Madras. This practice, however, is gradually being abandoned as the chief function of a central bank is to finance societies and to serve as their balancing centre. The total advances made by central banks to societies at the end of the year 1931-32 amounted to about Rs. 8 crores.

The ultimate security for all advances of a central bank to an agricultural society is the property of its members, but the basic security is personal and depends on mutual knowledge and joint responsibility of the members. The difficulty in accurately gauging the degree to which a society as a whole has developed the sense of mutual obligation among its members in assessing its credit, has forced a central bank to place more reliance on the tangible assets of its members. A statement of each society prepared by, or under the direct supervision of the field staff of each central bank or Government, showing the estimated value of the immoveable and moveable property owned by each member, and showing the total value of the assets of the society, is taken as the basis and the extent to which a society is permitted to borrow which is usually limited to one-third of this. In some provinces, a system of normal credits is introduced which replaces both cash credits and fixed loans. Before the normal maximum credit of a society is assessed, a statement of the normal credits of its members is prepared, containing information regarding the assets of the members and also their requirements, the purpose of their requirements and the estimate of their earning and saving capacity. After checking, on the basis of this statement, a central bank sanctions a maximum credit to each society for the year, withdrawable at short notice. These credit statements, like the assets statements of societies, are revised every year and the period of loans granted under these statements does not generally exceed three years.

In some of the provinces, central banks grant both long and short term loans to societies, while in others loans to societies are generally for short periods. The average period of loans to societies varies from one to five years in different parts of the country. The period of a loan generally depends on the purpose for which the loan is required. Loans granted for current agricultural purposes are repayable either in one or two years, whereas loans required for improvements in lands and debt redemption are repayable in five to ten years. But it is not now considered advisable for central banks, relying mainly on deposits for their resources, to make long term advances, and some of the provinces have definitely adopted the policy of advancing short term loans to societies and that too for current agricultural purposes only.

After meeting management expenses the profits of central banks are distributed as allocations to reserves and dividends to shareholders. The combined net profits of the 595 central banks of the country during the year 1931-32 amounted to Rs. 52 lakhs on the total working capital of Rs. 31 crores; the rate of dividend paid varied from 6 to 10 per cent. in different parts of the country but the most usual rate paid was 6 per cent. per annum.

Provincial Co-operative Banks.—In India, at present, all the major provinces except the United Provinces have apex banks functioning in them. There are apex institutions in two of the Indian States, Mysore and Hyderabad, though in the others also there are institutions corresponding to the apex bank or functioning as such. The Bank in Burma being in liquidation, there are nine such institutions in all out of which, seven are in British India and two in the Indian States. The constitutions of these institutions vary considerably; but the functions of all these institutions are more or less the same, namely, the co-ordination of the work of the central banks and provincialization of finance in them. It is found that in a large majority of the apex banks, the constitution is a mixed one, that is, both in the general body of the banks as well as in the directorate, there are individual shareholders as well as representatives of co-operative societies and central banks. The apex banks in the Punjab and Bengal however do not permit individuals to hold shares in them, and have as their shareholders co-operative societies only, both primary and central. By a special provision, however, on the directorate, the Punjab bank takes the Registrar of Co-operative Societies, and Bengal takes three individuals as men of position in the province, as against 15 representatives of co-operative institutions. In the Central Provinces and Berar, the general body of the bank consists of representatives of central banks as well as individual shareholders and the directorate is composed of 34 representatives of co-operative institutions and 5 individuals including the Governor of the C. P and Berar Co-operative Federation as an ex-officio director. In Bombay, Madras, Bihar and Orissa, Hyderabad and Mysore, individuals representatives of central banks and of the co-operative societies compose the general body but the composition of the directorate varies. In Madras the representatives of the primary societies do not find a place while in Hyderabad and Mysore those of central banks are not included. In Bombay out of 14 directors, 7 represent individuals including by convention the head of the Provincial Co-operative Institute. In Madras the number of directors representing individuals is 5 as against 31 representatives of co-operative institutions; in Bihar and Orissa 6 including the Registrar as against 14; in Hyderabad, 13 including the Registrar as against 8; and in Mysore, 5 as against 8. It is clear that on the directorate of the apex banks co-operative institutions are well represented indeed.

The aim and purpose of the apex banks as already stated, is to co-ordinate the working of the banks on a provincial basis and to act as the balancing centre of the various central banks in the province. In order that the co-operative movement may function efficiently and profitably, it has been found necessary that the connection that has to be established between it and the money market should be brought about through the apex institution; and the central banks have accordingly to deal with outside agencies only through the apex bank. Though this principle is accepted, there is a great deal of divergence in practice. In Madras, Bengal and the Punjab, central banks have been permitted to deal directly with the Imperial Bank of India, while in Bombay central banks have dealings only with the provincial bank. Interlending among central banks is prevented in order that there may not be intermingling of the liabilities of the central banks. It has also been thought necessary to restrict the dealings of apex banks with the primary societies and permit them only th ough central banks. In certain provinces, the apex banks do not deal with the primary societies at all, while in certain others they still continue to finance primary societies in areas where central banks have not come into existence. This seems to be the case in Bihar and Orissa, Bombay, Burma and Mysore. The provincial bank in Bombay has thirty branches covering the few districts that have no local banks or parts of districts not taken over by local banks for some reason or other. The bank has an inspecting staff of its own, in addition to the office staff at branches. With the work of branches, however, are associated local advisory committees, composed of elected representatives of the affiliated societies, and certain powers, including the authority to sanction loans, are delegated to the committees.

All apex banks both in British India and in the Indian States depend for their working capital largely on deposits from the affiliated co-operative societies as also from the public. It is, therefore, thought necessary to insist upon the maintenance of fluid resources on a certain scale and in some provinces the Government of the province has prescribed definite rules with regard to the maintenance of fluid resources. The period for which deposits are accepted determine the maximum period for which they can lend out these borrowed funds to their clients, and in every province the apex bank has fixed for itself a maximum term, beyond which no loans are, in general,

sanctioned to the borrowing client. The following figures will clearly show the position and transactions of the apex banks in 1931-32:—

Provincial Banks, 1931-32.

	In thousands of rupees.
Working Capital—	
Share Capital	66,99
Reserve and other funds	47,94
Deposits and loans—	
from individuals	4,81,97
from Provincial and Central banks	3,24,30
from societies	49,22
from Government	18,60
Total ..	9,89,02
Loans made during the year to—	
Individuals	3,28,11
Banks and societies	2,62,94
Total ..	5,91,05
Loans due by—	
Individuals	6,02
Banks and societies	4,80,19
Total ..	4,86,21

While accepting deposits from co-operative banks and the general public, most of the apex banks have also dealings in current account with the latter. The Punjab bank does not encourage such accounts with individual non-members, as it does not wish to enter into competition with central banks. Apex banks also generally carry on ordinary banking business, such as collecting hundis and dividends from companies and collecting the pay and pensions of public servants. The provincial banks of Bombay, Madras and the Punjab have floated long-term debentures. The Bombay bank has so far issued debentures of the value of Rs. 9·8 lakhs and these debentures are recognised as a trustee security. The bank at Madras has floated debentures of the value of 2.18 lakhs on the security of a floating charge of the general assets of the bank, while the Punjab bank has issued debentures of the value of 5 lakhs. As in every banking institution, these banks also are frequently troubled with surpluses and deficits, though at different times in the different institutions. There is therefore interlending of surplus funds between these apex banks; and during the period of shortage of funds, deposits are accepted from surplusing banks, and some of them call for special season deposits allowing favourable rates of interest to tide over the period of shortage. The All-India Provincial Co-operative Banks' Association enables the member banks to ascertain which of them are surplusing in the period and by correspondence to arrange for inter-provincial borrowings.

In all provinces the apex banks have connected themselves with the Imperial Bank of India and have secured cash credit accommodation on furnishing security. In the earlier stage the Imperial Bank was pleased to permit the accommodation on the deposit of co-operative paper duly endorsed in their favour; but of late a change has come over in some provinces in the method of business, and the accommodation given to the various apex banks on the strength of co-operative paper has either been withdrawn fully or is to be withdrawn by stages. As regards the Punjab, the arrangement whereby the apex bank can borrow against co-operative paper is still in force, and has not been altered in any way. The security upon which the accommodation allowed is the Government of India Promissory Note. Owing to the curtailment of accommodation on the strength of co-operative paper, the ease with which the provincial banks were raising credit to meet the seasonal demands of the affiliated central banks is no longer there. What repercussions this will make on the movement has yet to be seen as the curtailment has taken effect only recently. The apex banks, like all co-operative societies, enjoy the facilities of free transfer of funds from one place to another by means of remittance transfer receipts. This concession is granted for transfer for genuine co-operative purposes, but it has recently been ruled by the Government of India that if any remittance represents a transaction on which exchange has been earned, the facility of free transfer of funds will not be made available. Co-operative banks, however, claim the continuance of the concession on the ground that they are rendering a public service by cheapening the cost of transfer of funds from the metropolies to a petty trade centre or *vice versa*, places where no other organized banking agencies are available. It is only if some concessional treatment is shown by Government—there being no other arrangement for transfer of funds—that they will be able to extend their operations in centres of agricultural trade, develop banking facilities in rural areas, and spread the knowledge and use of cheques and other instruments of credit among the rural population.

Audit and Supervision.—The proper working of co-operative societies requires an efficient system of audit and supervision. The audit is a statutory function of the Registrar and his responsibility to the public is thus a serious one. The general purposes of an audit such as ascertaining whether the accounts of the society are properly kept and preparation of a correct statement of the society's financial position, are common to the audit of joint-stock and co-operative concerns. But the Co-operative Act requires the auditor of a co-operative society to examine the overdue debts, if any, and to value the assets and liabilities of the society, and by implication, this statutory direction imposes on the auditor the obligation to find out whether the affairs of the society are conducted in accordance with co-operative principles, and the audit extends somewhat beyond the bare requirements of the Act and embraces an enquiry into all the circumstances which determine the general position of a society. It is, for instance, the duty of the auditor to notice any instances in which the Act, or bye-laws have been infringed to verify the cash balance and certify the correctness of the accounts; to ascertain that loans are made fairly, for proper periods and objects, and on adequate security; to examine repayments in order to check book-adjustments or improper extensions; and generally to see that the society is working on sound lines and that

the Committee, the office bearers and the ordinary members understand their duties and responsibilities.

The general position regarding audit, however, is unsatisfactory on the whole. The Indian Central Banking Enquiry Committee remark that audit in most places is defective and does not conform to the statutory requirements as explained and amplified by the Maclagan Committee.

Though, in every province, the audit agency ultimately derives its power from the Registrar, it is being done in different provinces by different agencies. In the Punjab, audit is carried on by a staff of inspectors of the Provincial Co-operative Union, each inspector being given a number of societies. In Bihar and Orissa, the Co-operative Federation's staff does the audit and the Registrar controls the staff and arranges for the test audit of a percentage of societies by his officers. In other provinces, the agricultural credit societies are audited by the Registrar's staff, which in many of them is said to be inadequate. In some localities the societies have formed audit unions for their audit. In most provinces some contribution towards the cost of the audit is levied from the societies audited by the departmental or the provincial federations staff, as in the Punjab and Bihar and Orissa. Recently an audit fee has been levied in Bombay so that it is only in Madras that the audit of agricultural societies is practically free.

Audit, supervision and inspection are closely allied and not wholly separable in a simple organisation like the primary agricultural credit society. Broadly speaking, audit lays the emphasis on accounts, supervision on administration, and inspection on finance, though they overlap in some respects. In India, internal supervision of co-operative societies is organised differently in different provinces. In Madras and Bombay, the primary credit societies have been federated into small local SUPERVISING UNIONS on the governing bodies of which the societies are represented. Attempts have also been made to federate these local unions into district councils or boards of supervision. There are two types of local unions—the guaranteeing union and the supervising union. Experience has shown that the system of guaranteeing unions did not yield any useful results and it has therefore been abandoned in all the provinces, except in Burma and Bihar and Orissa though even there their abandonment is only a question of time. Unions for supervision were first started on a large scale in Madras and now form an integral part of the co-operative structure there. The unions have a membership of 20 to 30 societies each and their main duties relate to supervision, promotion of the interest of members seeing that the accounts are in order, assistance in the preparation of credit statements, stimulation of land recoveries, promotion of co-operative education, and organisation of non-credit activities. The brunt of the work falls on full time paid supervisors are working under the direction of the managing committees. The supervisors are recruited from persons specially trained for the work. Bombay has in the last few years abandoned the system of guaranteeing unions and has adopted the Madras system of the supervising unions. On the 30th June 1932, there were in all 1,090 unions of which 355 were in Burma. Most of the 113 in Bihar and Orissa are guaranteeing unions. The number of unions in Madras was 431 and in Bombay 118. The total number of societies affiliated to the unions in these last two provinces was 11,009 and 3,014 respectively. The system of supervising unions, however, does not seem to be working well in Madras or in Bombay though no final opinion can yet be pronounced on their usefulness as agencies for supervision. In Madras district federations are disappearing and supervision is being taken up more and more by financing banks. The Bombay Reorganisation Committee has recently pronounced a hostile verdict and has suggested the replacement of supervising unions by departmental auditors who, it is contemplated, would be able to attend to supervision as well when each one of them is placed in charge of a smaller number of societies. This suggestion is, however, not likely to be accepted by the Government of Bombay who are considering the strengthening of the system of supervising Unions by insisting on better qualifications for the supervisors and by creating District Boards of supervision to ensure the proper and efficient working of the Unions. The central banks have a body of inspectors and field workers who visit periodically the societies affiliated to them and these officers too in a sense assist in the supervision of societies. Thus, at present, there are 3 distinct agencies, the departmental auditor, the bank inspector and the supervisor—which are performing very similar and co-related functions. The Second All-India Co-operative Institutes' Conference held at Hyderabad (Deccan) in 1931 considered this question fully and formulated a scheme in this connection which has been substantially approved by the Indian Central Banking Enquiry Committee. The scheme suggested that district audit unions should be established, composed of representatives of societies—primary and central—and that these unions should be affiliated to or federated in the provincial institutes, federations or unions which should be made responsible for providing a satisfactory agency for audit and supervision. Inspection of societies was a responsibility and duty of the central financing agencies and should remain so. The audit staff to be appointed by the provincial and district unions should be recruited from well trained and competent men from amongst those who are licensed by the Registrar. The number of societies entrusted to such an auditor should not be more than 60 so as to permit efficient audit and supervision. The different provinces will, however, continue, it appears, their own systems, though the scheme suggested by the All-India Conference for a uniform system of audit for all provinces should really work well.

For the audit of larger societies, like the central financing agencies and urban banks, the Registrar engages a staff of special auditors. A great deal of complaint has, however, recently been made in this connection on the ground that these societies in addition to the departmental audit have to provide for their own audit independently. These private auditors are persons with recognised qualifications and charge less for the work done by them. Under these circumstances, departmental audit means unnecessary duplication of work and unnecessary waste of money. There is no reason why the departmental audit

should not be abolished and the bigger societies allowed to appoint their own auditors from amongst persons qualified and approved by the Registrar.

Overdues.—Among the most important tests of the success or otherwise of a co-operative credit society is undoubtedly the promptness in repayment of loans by members and it is in this respect that one has to recognise that in India, the societies have not attained any very great measure of success. On the 30th June 1932, the overdue loans in agricultural societies amounted to Rs. 11,63,33,585 as compared with Rs. 9,90,66,470 the year before; the working capital of the agricultural societies was Rs. 35,09,24,484; the loans due by individuals were Rs. 28,98,42,696. The overdue loans were therefore 33 per cent. of the working capital and 40 per cent. of the total loans due by individuals. The position is however rendered more serious when one realises that the figures are considerably obscured by book entries and extensions of the date of repayment and in some cases, by the farmers' borrowing from the sowcar to pay the society's dues and that the percentages represent merely an average for all-India. The following table shows the position by different provinces on the 30th June 1932.

Overdue Loans in Agricultural Societies, 1931-32.

(in lakhs of rupees.)

Province.	Working Capital.	Loans due by individuals.	Overdue loans by individuals.	Percentage of overdue loans to	
				Working capital.	Loans due.
Madras	5,93	5,00	2,77	47	55
Bombay	4,41	3,89	1,74	39	45
Bengal	5,79	4,36	2,96	51	68
Bihar and Orissa	2,36	1,91	82	35	44
United Provinces	1,02	48	55	54	115
Punjab	8,39	7,14	47	6	7
Burma	1,42	1,14	14	10	12
Central Provinces and Berar	1,64	1,36	92	56	68
Assam	32	25	18	56	72
Mysore	53	50	19	36	38
Baroda	36	33	11	31	33
Hyderabad	87	65	....	....	....
Gwalior	23	47	40	1,54	85
Kashmir	58	45	7	12	16
Travancore	35	30	16	46	53
Others	86	75	15	17	20
Total ..	35,09	28,98	11,63	33	40

The position has since June 1932 grown more serious, since the fall of prices of agricultural produce and the world crisis and trade depression have reduced the repaying capacity of the agricultural borrower considerably and increased the terrible load of overdue loans in rural credit societies. This continued growth of overdue loans is an ominous portent and reflects very badly on the soundness of the co-operative structure. The loans having been based on the basis of the assets of members, the ultimate solvency of the societies is beyond dispute; but severe pressure on members and the consequent wholesale liquidation of societies would react very seriously both politically and economically. The causes that have led to this phenomenon, which menaces the entire existence of the co-operative movement are chiefly to be found in not basing the loans sanctioned on the repaying capacity of the borrowing member, in sanctioning loans for unproductive though perhaps necessary social or domestic purposes or for the redemption of old debts and generally in the uneconomic nature of the agricultural industry. The loose scrutiny of the purposes stated in the loan applications and the absence of a careful watch on the way the loan is spent by the members, which must be the case, where almost every member is a borrower or a surety to other borrowers and where the societies are composed almost wholly of the needy section of the village, the well-to-do standing aloof, the remissness in exerting pressure and in taking action against the defaulter, even when he is wilfully defaulting, add considerably to the growth of this menace of excessive overdues. The central financing agencies are more concerned with the assets that in the last resort are the security for their lendings and, with more funds than they could use, are more eager even than the Registrar himself for organising new credit societies.

One of the weaknesses of co-operative finance consists in its inelasticity, dilatoriness and inadequacy. The introduction of the normal credit system in the societies,—a practice which is gaining currency in Bombay and Madras reduces the evil to some extent; but as it is, the cultivator is forced to resort to the money-lender also for accommodation. The co-operative

societies have thus, it must be admitted, lost their co-operative character in a great measure and have become business bodies without, however, the efficiency that should characterise them. The recent Committee on Co-operation in Bihar and Orissa views "with a considerable degree of dismay the general failure to make the ordinary agricultural credit society a self-governing and truly co-operative institution". The Bombay Reorganisation Committee states that "in view of the figures quoted, it is evident that the movement has ceased to a great extent to be co-operative". Whether such a verdict is quite justifiable or not, it is obvious that the situation is disquieting enough and very great caution in registering new credit societies and the correlating of loans to the repaying capacity of the borrowers as emphasised by the Bihar and Orissa Committee seem to be the urgent needs of the day.

Land Mortgage Banks.—The loans advanced by co-operative societies to their members and by the central financing agencies to their constituent societies are, from the very nature of the source from which they derive the bulk of their finance, for short or intermediate terms only. By concentrating upon the growth and multiplication of rural credit societies and thus upon facilities for short and intermediate term loans, the co-operative movement did not provide for the redemption of old debts or for increasing the earnings of agriculturists which alone would prevent any further increase in their debts and have the way for the paying off of the old ones. It does not seem to have been adequately realised that the removal or the lightening of the heavy load of indebtedness does not depend so much upon the easy terms on which co-operative finance can be made available, as upon the ascertainment of the amount of individual indebtedness to the sowcar, upon so fully financing the agriculturists that they could be prevented from resorting to the sowcar any more, and above all on making agriculture an industry sufficiently paying to leave a little saving after all legitimate current expenditure on agriculture and the household has been met, so that this saving could be applied to the liquidation of old debts. The mistaken notion associated with the start of the movement that co-operative credit could serve this purpose and which has clung more or less till now as evidenced by permitting this purpose to be regarded as a legitimate purpose for loans is largely responsible for increasing the load yet further. Short or intermediate term loans can, if judiciously employed, prevent any further increase in the burden, though even that in the present state of uneconomic agriculture seems scarcely possible; but it cannot leave any adequate margin of saving which could be employed to redeem past follies or misfortune. The sowcar, it is often forgotten, is the village retailer as also the purchaser of the villagers' produce and what he cannot recover from the borrower by way of interest or the part payment of the principal of the loans, he can more than make good on the threshing floor or in his shop. The co-operative movement by concentration on the credit side has attacked him on one front only, so that the risks of non-payment are saddled on the society while the profits of the merchant and the retail shop-keeper are still enjoyed by the sowcar; the attack ought to have been on all fronts. However, under the circumstances, the clarification of the situation of indebtedness is most desirable as a preliminary towards tackling the important questions of the redemption of old debts. The Indian Central Banking Enquiry Committee has wisely emphasised the need for a vigorous policy of debt conciliation on a voluntary basis and for exploring the possibility of undertaking legislation to secure, if need be, the settlement of debts on a compulsory basis. A simple Rural Insolvency Act as recommended by the Royal Commission on Agriculture and endorsed by the Central Banking Committee would also be an important step towards liberating those, who have already given up all their assets, from the incubus of ancestral and old debts, so that at least they and their heirs could start with a clean slate. In any case, the need for long term loans to the agriculturists for land improvement and for the redemption of old debts seems obvious, and it has now been recognised that the time has come for the provision of this facility by the starting of land mortgage banks.

There are three main types of such banks. The strictly co-operative type is an association of borrowers who raise credit by the issue of mortgage bonds bearing interest and made payable to bearer and is well illustrated in the German Landschaften. The commercial type is represented by the Credit Foncier of France, which works for profit and declares dividends. The third type—the quasi co-operative has a mixed membership of borrowers and non-borrowers, operating over fairly large areas and formed with share capital and on a limited liability basis. The banks organised so far in India are in a sense of the co-operative type, though strictly speaking they belong to the quasi co-operative variety, admitting as they do to the membership a few non-borrowing individuals for attractive initial capital as well as business talent, organising capacity and efficient management.

At present there are 12 co-operative land mortgage banks in the Punjab. Two of these operate over whole districts, the rest confine their operations to a single tehsil. Bombay has three land mortgage societies, which have only recently started their operations. Bengal has two, Assam has five, while Madras has 38 primary land mortgage banks and a central land mortgage bank has been started recently. It is too early to pronounce on the success or otherwise of these few banks. Among the objects for which these banks advance loans are the redemption of old debts, improvement of land and method of cultivation and the purchase of land in special cases. The Central Banking Committee think however that for a long time to come the resources of these institutions will be mainly required for enabling the cultivator to redeem his land and his house from mortgage and to pay off his old debts. One feels, however, extremely doubtful whether the emphasis should not be laid on the intensive and extensive development of agriculture, since as pointed out above, unless agriculture becomes a paying industry, the redemption is impracticable and illusory. The bulk of the funds of these banks will have to be raised by debentures and for this purposes, there will have to be in the provinces central land mortgage banks as in Madras. The provincial co-operative banks cannot function

as such except as a temporary measure, as in Bombay and the Punjab. Government will have also to render assistance to these institutions for the success of the debenture issue, and its guaranteeing the interest as in the Punjab ought to meet all reasonable needs, though in special cases there would not be much harm in the Government purchasing debentures of a certain value. While mutual knowledge of and control over one another among members is the insistent feature in the case of the unlimited liability credit society, the insistence in the case of a land mortgage bank with limited liability is on the capacity and business habits of the directorate, in order to ensure sound valuation of security, careful investigation of titles, correct assessment of borrower's credit and repaying capacity and on the efficient management of affairs.

Propaganda, Education and Training.—In the initial stages of the movement, it fell on the Registrar to carry on propaganda and organize co-operative societies. For this purpose the assistance of non-official honorary workers was imperative and in the various provinces a band of such workers was brought into existence, who as honorary organisers of the district or talukas actively co-operated with the officials in carrying on propaganda, organising new societies as a result thereof and looking after the societies so started in some measure. With the rapid growth of co-operative societies, however, it was felt that for the further propagation of the movement it was desirable to carry on work by the non-officials in a more organised manner and for that purpose co-operative institutes were started in the various provinces. In some provinces, like Bombay, these institutions are mixed institutions with a membership of individual sympathisers and workers and of co-operative societies. In others, like Madras and the United Provinces, individuals were not admitted as members and the institutions became provincial unions of co-operative societies. In some provinces, like Bihar and Orissa, they became federations of co-operative societies, while in others, like Bengal and Assam, they are known as co-operative organisation societies. Whatever the exact form assumed by these provincial institutions, their functions were more or less the same in all provinces, comprising propaganda and the focussing of non-official co-operative opinion on the various problems that confronted the movement from time to time. They derive their funds by subscriptions from their members and from Government grants and the work that they have hitherto been able to do has doubtless earned for them a position of considerable importance, in the co-operative movement. They have been the powerful instruments of bringing together the non-official element in the movement which though essentially a popular movement, had to be started under the auspices of the State, and their conferences and council meetings have become more or less like provincial co-operative parliaments where officials and non-officials meet together, exchange views on important questions and formulate policies. They have come to be regarded in an ever increasing measure as the third arm of the movement, the Registrar and his staff representing the administrative side performing more or less the functions assigned to them under the statute, the provincial bank with the central banks and banking unions representing the financial side and as such concerned more with the financing of the movement and the institutes, unions, federations or organisation societies representing the propagandist side and as such concerned more with educating popular opinion and representing non-official views to the authorities. A few years back, the All-India Co-operative Institutes' Association was established, with a view to co-ordinate the activities of the provincial institutes, to formulate non-official co-operative opinion on important co-operative problems from time to time and to encourage the growth of co-operative literature.

It was soon perceived that one of the serious handicaps to the successful working of co-operative societies was the ignorance of the members and the absence of trained men as office-bearers of societies. Illiteracy of the rural population, however, has been found too big a problem for these institutes and they have, therefore, attempted only to spread knowledge of co-operation and co-operative principles to the members of societies and to train up the office-bearers in various ways. Education has thus developed into an important function of these institutes. In Bombay, the Institute has created a special education board which maintains co-operative schools at different centres and conducts periodically training classes suitable for different types of workers and employees of co-operative societies. In order to do its work thoroughly it has started branches in the districts and divisions which also start elementary training classes for the members of the managing committees at different centres and generally assist in the spread of co-operative education. In the Punjab, however, co-operative education has been organised by the Co-operative Department, though the Punjab Co-operative Union renders active assistance therein. In Bihar and Orissa a permanent Co-operative Training Institute has been established at Sabour in the Bhagalpur Division which is controlled by a governing body which includes the Registrar, and a few representatives of the Co-operative Federation. Madras has organised 6 training institutes, which have been registered as co-operative societies. The Provincial Union there, however, does organise training classes for employees of central banks, urban societies and unions. In the United Provinces, Bengal and the Central Provinces, arrangements for co-operative training and education have not yet been properly made, though there also it is the Department assisted by the provincial union which organises the training classes. The need for proper co-operative training and education has been felt in an increasing degree in recent years and the Central Banking Enquiry Committee has recommended very strongly the establishment of provincial co-operative colleges and an All-India Co-operative College for the higher training of more important officials in the Department, banks or societies. No action apparently has been taken till now on these recommendations, but there is no doubt whatever that any serious attempt at improvement of the co-operative societies in the country must include a proper organisation of co-operative education not only for the office-bearers of societies or the managers and inspectors of central and provincial banks but also

for the inspectors, auditors and assistant registrars of the co-operative departments.

In some provinces, like the Punjab and Bihar and Orissa, the provincial union or federation has been actively associated in discharging the Registrar's statutory function of the audit of societies and the Second All-India Co-operative Institutes' Conference held at Hyderabad (Deccan) in 1931 also expressed an opinion that the Registrar's statutory obligation in this matter could be discharged by a system of licensing and that audit should be a function entrusted to the provincial unions or federations. If this idea of a uniform system of audit through the provincial unions be accepted, it will naturally follow that they will also have to assume the responsibility for supervision of the co-operative societies. The departmental audit or inspection by the central banks cannot dispense with the need of careful supervision, which to be effective must be from within and the provincial federation or union is obviously the best agency for this friendly and efficient supervision. The combination of the functions of audit and of supervision as suggested by the All-India Conference and endorsed by the Central Banking Enquiry Committee would mean improved efficiency in the working of the movement while de-officialising it considerably and giving it the popular touch it lacks. It must, however, be remembered that the institutes and unions are not quite unofficial in this that in some provinces, like the Punjab and Bihar and Orissa, the Registrar is the ex-officio president or member and practically controls them. At present, the situation as regards co-operative societies is disquieting enough and there are two schools of thought on the wisest course to pursue to bring about a radical improvement. One school is in favour of tightening the official control while the other seeks to strengthen the institutes and make them more non-official and efficient than ever before. Though all agree on the goal of ultimate de-officialisation and though all agree that the present system of part official and part non-official control of the movement is not conducive to progress, opinions conflict whether the remedy lies in officialisation or de-officialisation of the movement at the present time.

Non-Credit Agricultural Co-operation.—For some years past increasing attention has been directed on other forms of co-operation for the benefit of the rural population. Credit is but one of the needs of the cultivator; its organisation through co-operation touches but the fringe of the problem; and different provinces have been experimenting upon the application of co-operative organisation to meet his different non-credit needs. The problems of irrigation, consolidation of holdings, improved sanitation, fencing, cattle insurance, dairying and supply of agricultural requisites and above all the marketing of agricultural produce have been therefore engaging the attention of co-operators and societies for these purposes have been established here and there and have been working with varying success. In a land of ignorant and illiterate agriculturists, it would appear wiser to adopt the rule of one village, one society; but the complexities of the non-credit forms of co-operation have induced the authorities to avoid the multiple-purpose or general society and to favour the single purpose society, and we have the curious spectacle of an agriculturist being viewed as one person with a bundle of needs, each one of which it is proposed to meet separately. The sowcar was to him the one person to whom he could always look forward whether for the supply of agricultural requisites and domestic requirements or for the sale of his produce or for credit. Now he is made to resort to society A for credit, to society B for marketing, to society C for the supply of manures and seeds, to society D for the supply of tools and implements, to society E for fencing, to society F for irrigation, to society G for consolidation of holdings to society H, for social reform and better-living and—but why continue the sorry tale. A single society trying to meet all the needs of the agriculturist would attack the sowcar on all fronts and would become a live force in the village which would tend to promote the ideal embodied in the famous phrase: Better living, better farming and better business. However, co-operative opinion in India has not yet accepted the wisdom of this and yet believes in the theory of almost water-tight compartments. The agricultural non-credit societies in India on the 30th June 1932 were 4,107 distributed as under:—

Non-Credit Agricultural Societies, 1931-32.

Province.	Purchase and Purchase and sale.	Production.	Production and sale.	Other forms of co-operation.	Total.
Madras	89	....	21	370	480
Bombay	41	17	72	106	236
Bengal	89	933	270	42	1,334
Bihar and Orissa	3	3	2	5	13
United Provinces	....	....	42	330	372
Punjab	19	158	1,069	85	1,331
Burma	12	5	14	....	31
Central Provinces and Berar	31	2	9	....	42
Mysore	48	1	17	55	121
Baroda	15	18	36	47	116
Other areas	....	3	13	15	31
Total ..	347	1,140	1,565	1,055	4,917

Of these the most important are the marketing societies, particularly for the sale of cotton in Bombay, the irrigation and milk societies in Bengal and the consolidation of holdings and better living societies in the Punjab.

Marketing Societies.—Marketing of agricultural produce is the real crux of the whole question of rural prosperity and betterment and as group marketing is always more effective than individual marketing, especially in India where the individual producer is illiterate and constitutes a small unit, co-operative marketing has been accepted now as one of the most desirable ideals to work for. It is only the complexity of the working of co-operative sale societies, the difficulty of providing for marketing finance, the lack of expert knowledge on the part of co-operative officials and the lack of godown and storage facilities that have prevented the rapid multiplication of sale societies and their efficient working. It is really in the development of this form of co-operative effort that ultimate success must be sought for in India, for credit alone could never bring comfort. Where it has been tried with success, the results have been extremely satisfactory to the members. The tremendous headway made in European countries like Denmark and in the United States of America in co-operative marketing organisation and the successful examples of the cotton sale societies in Bombay should arrest attention and invite concentration on the co-operative organisation of agricultural marketing. The jute and paddy sale societies of Bengal have not met with success, it is true; but the cotton grower in Gujarat and the Bombay Karnatak has reaped considerable benefit from the cotton sale societies. Absence of fraud in weighment, adequate and high prices, insurance of the produce against risks of fire, prompt payment of sale proceeds, financial accommodation till the produce is sold, information of daily price fluctuations in the Bombay market, supply of gunnies and genuine and certified seed, bonus and a dividend are no small gains to the agriculturist, who was otherwise at the mercy of the *adatya* or worse still of his village sowcar. The Gujarat societies cover a smaller area than those of the Karnatak; but the cohesion, loyalty and unity of purpose among their members makes them more co-operative. There the agriculturists of three or four villages growing a similar strain of cotton combine themselves into a society, pool their cotton and sell it jointly by private treaty and not by auction as in the Karnatak. The cotton sale societies of Surat have recently combined in a federation which has taken over the co-operative ginning factory already started by the members. A few societies for the sale of other articles have also been organised in Bombay, such as jaggery, tobacco, chillies, paddy, onions and arecanut. Bengal has several jute sale societies with a Jute Wholesale at Calcutta and several paddy sale societies with a sale depot in Calcutta. The Punjab has several commission shops which provide storage facilities so that the grower could wait for better prices, but which sell to local merchants yet, rather than to the merchants at the port. Madras has a number of sale societies, but their transactions are small and they have not yet made much progress.

Consolidation of Holdings.—The law of primogeniture, by which the eldest son alone succeeds to the property of his ancestor and which is in force in some European countries does not obtain in India. Each heir is given a proportionate share of each item of the inherited property and not a share of the whole, equivalent to his portion. The result is that successive generations descending from a common ancestor inherit not only smaller and smaller shares of his land but inherit that land broken up into smaller and smaller plots. This continuous partition of each field amongst heirs leads to fragmentation, which is accentuated by the expansion of cultivation, irregularly over the waste, by purchase and sales, by the extinction of families in default of direct heirs and the division of their property amongst a large number of distant relatives, and by the break up of the joint family system and the custom of cultivation in common.

The disadvantages of fragmentation are obvious. A part of land is wasted owing to fragmentation being so excessive as to prevent any agricultural operations, and another part is lost in boundaries. Fragmentation involves endless waste of time, money and effort; it restrains the cultivator from attempting improvement; it prevents him from adopting scientific methods of cultivation; it discourages him from carrying out intensive cultivation; it enforces uniformity of cropping, and especially restricts the growing of fodder crops in the period during which cattle are usually sent out to graze on the fields. The economic loss due to this system can be easily imagined, and the only solution is consolidation of holdings. This most difficult important and interesting experiment originated in the Punjab in the year 1920. The procedure adopted in establishing a Co-operative Consolidation of Holdings Society is to call together all persons directly interested in land in a given village, persuade them to accept the by-laws whereby a majority in a general meeting might approve a method of repartition, and then carry out actual adjustment of fields and holdings in such a manner that no single individual might have any grievance. As the result of patient work which has now extended over ten years, some very striking results have been achieved and the movement for consolidation in the Punjab has assumed the dimensions of an important agricultural reform. It is steadily gaining in popularity, and, as more staff is trained and the people become better educated to the advantages of the system, the figures for the area consolidated are mounting up year by year. This work began in 1920-21 and in the 10 years that have elapsed since then, 2,63,462 acres have been consolidated by the end of July 1930, out of the whole cultivable area of about 30 millions, at an average cost of Rs. 2-5 per acre.

Improvement of agriculture is general, where holdings have been brought together. New ploughs and other implements are used, new crops or new varieties of an old crop are sown, sand is removed from light soil, and planting of trees or seeds is carried out. The general effect of consolidation is to increase rents, and decrease causes of litigation and quarrels. Rents have risen, yields have increased, new land has been brought under the plough and dry land brought under irrigation. New wells have been sunk, and old ones repaired. Access has been obtained to the roadways, farming has

become more intensive, and fruit trees have been planted. The great disadvantage of consolidation through co-operation is that the pace is slow compared with the area to be consolidated. Therefore, compulsion will be necessary for a wide extension and its introduction is only a matter of time but it is better to await the growth and development of a strong public opinion in its favour rather than incur the risk of a premature resort to legislation which might bring the scheme into odium.

In the Central Provinces some success in consolidation has been achieved in the Chattisgarh Division where scattered holdings are particularly common and it is not rare to see 10 acres broken into 40 plots. The Local Government found it desirable to resort to legislation, and passed the Central Provinces Consolidation of Holdings Act in 1928. Any two or more permanent holders in a village holding together not less than a certain minimum prescribed area of land, may apply for the consolidation of their holdings, but the outstanding feature of the Act is that it gives power to a proportion, not less than one-half of the permanent right-holders, holding not less than two-thirds of the occupied area in a village, to agree to the preparation of a scheme of consolidation, which scheme, when confirmed, becomes binding on all the permanent right-holders in the village and their successors in interest.

In Bombay a Bill was introduced in the Legislative Council in 1928 to deal with certain features of the problem. When this Bill was introduced a good deal of opposition was created and it had to be ultimately dropped.

There are 11 societies for consolidation of holdings in the United Provinces, and 11 in the Baroda State based on the Punjab model.

Irrigation Societies.—Another very interesting and useful type of non-credit society is the Irrigation Society so predominant in Bengal. From a humble beginning of 3 societies in 1919, the irrigation movement to-day claims about 1,000 societies in the western districts of Bengal with a membership of over 20,000, a paid up share capital of over Rs. 2 lakhs and a working capital of over Rs. 4 lakhs. These societies fall chiefly under two classes: those for new construction and those for reconstruction and re-excavation. Irrigation is a necessity in the western districts of Bengal where the country is mostly elevated, undulating and easily drained with no possibility of water logging and the distribution of rainfall is extremely variable. In the Sundarbans, land is still below high water level and embankments are necessary to prevent the ingress of salt water. Considerable success has been attained in the Sundarbans tracts. The greatest progress so far has been made in the construction of small irrigation works in the districts of the Burdwan division. Embankments for flood protection and reservoirs to control floods and ensure a constant supply of water for irrigation are beyond the scope of co-operative effort while drainage schemes for the improvement of agricultural and sanitary conditions have so far not been taken up. The main features of irrigation societies are : (*i*) they are on a multiple liability basis ; (*ii*) the number of shares to be subscribed by members is fixed so as to meet full costs and is based also on the area of land which will be benefited ; (*iii*) funds are further raised if necessary by deposits and loans to be paid off from the instalments on shares as they fall due; (*iv*) a levy of water-rate or of the capital cost of maintenance provides for the proper maintenance of completed schemes. Madras also has a number of such irrigation societies.

Milk Societies.—One of the notable contributions of Bengal to the co-operative movement is the immense organization built up for the co-operative sale and supply of milk, consisting of, in the first place, the 108 rural societies which are the producing centres, and, in the second, the Calcutta Milk Union which is the distributing centre. The rural society which is the unit of the organization, generally covers a village, and its members are *bona fide* milk producers whose primary occupation is agriculture with milk production as their secondary occupation. The societies, which are all of the limited liability type, are affiliated to the Milk Union at Calcutta, which is a central society. It supervises, controls, and finances the individual societies, and arranges for the distribution and sale of their milk in Calcutta. Just as only milk producers are enlisted as members of milk societies, so only milk societies can be members of the Calcutta Milk Union. It is thus a pure type of Central Society, which does not include any individual shareholder.

The milk obtained from the societies in a group is collected at a depot which is under the charge of a depot manager, whose duty it is to receive the milk in properly sterilized cans, measure it, note the general conditions and the lactometer point, and give a receipt to the carrier. The working of the depots is looked after by the depot supervisor. Above the supervisors there are the depot manager and the society managers. There is also the Veterinary Inspector who examines and treats the cattle belonging to the societies and looks after the milking arrangements and the sanitary condition of the cowsheds. Above them all is a Government officer, placed on special duty in the Co-operative Department. He is the Superintendent of Milk Societies all over Bengal and the Chairman of the Calcutta Milk Union. The Union has devised very careful measures to ensure the purity of milk supplied to its customers. These measures include the installation of a pasteuring plant and a boiler. The Union has got a motor lorry and has introduced the cycle lorry system of delivery. The milk is also carried by hand carts and coolies for delivery to customers. The Union at present supplies milk to most of the big Calcutta hospitals, to fashionable restaurants and to a large number of individual customers, through a number of depots and distributing centres, located at convenient places all about the city. Besides the Calcutta Milk Union, five other unions have also been formed and two of these, at Darjeeling and Dacca, have already attained a fair measure of success.

The milk co-operative societies are societies of producers, though the desire to make pure and cheap milk available to consumers may have been mainly responsible for their birth. Whenever they had a chance, they have justified their existence by ensuring a better price for producers, while they have proved their utility to consumers by providing pure milk at a reasonable rate. Calcutta has set an example which Bombay, Madras and other large cities may well follow. Madras has already several milk

societies with a Union in the City for distribution, and the Bombay Municipality is seriously considering the co-operative solution of the milk problem of the city of Bombay.

Rural Reconstruction.—One of the main reasons why the achievements of the co-operative movement fall so short of the expectations of the promoters and workers lies in the extreme backwardness of the rural population and it is not too much to state that the ultimate success or otherwise of the co-operative movement lies bound up with general, rural development and progress. So long as agriculturists remain steeped in illiteracy and ignorance, are heavily and almost hopelessly indebted, have a fatalistic and listless outlook on life and have an extremely low standard of living, carrying on agriculture with simple tools and implements in more or less a primitive fashion, no great approach to the ideals and the goal of the co-operative and all other rural movements is possible. The co-operative movement itself is indeed a great experiment in rural reconstruction aiming to protect the agriculturist from exploitation of the usurer, the middleman dalal and the merchant; but concentration on the credit side of the movement with but half-hearted attempts for the co-operative organisation of supply and marketing, a growing multiplicity of institutions for various purposes and above all the neglect of the educational, sanitary, medical and the social sides of village life explain very clearly why the achievements of the movement during the last 29 years have fallen far short of its objective. Rural reconstruction has, however, of late years claimed an increasing amount of attention; but so far attempts on a mass scale have not been made; what has been done has been individual effort—the efforts of individuals fired by the impulse of social service and moved by enthusiasm to utilise their opportunities to the best advantage by contributing to the welfare of the humble village folk. The best known of such centres is at Gurgaon in the Punjab. The work done there covers education, sanitation, medical relief, improvement of agriculture, female education and maternity welfare. At Lyalpur in the Punjab also schemes of rural reconstruction have grown out of co-operative societies embarking upon the wider functions of cattle-breeding, improvement of cattle and agriculture, adult education, thrift, better living and arbitration of disputes. The Vishva-Bharati of Dr. Rabindranath Tagore has a special department devoted to rural reconstruction which has started 6 co-operative rural reconstruction societies in the villages of the Birbhum District. Sir Daniel Hamilton has developed the deltaic lands of Sunderbans by establishing colonies there on modern lines. In the Madras Presidency the Provincial Co-operative Union runs 8 rural reconstruction centres and the work at Alamaru has been eminently successful. Mr. V. N. Mehta was responsible for the rural reconstruction scheme in Benares. At all the centres, co-operation has been enlisted in the service of rural reconstruction and societies have been started which take up various items in that work. The anti-malarial societies of Bengal are also attempts in the same direction, the effort being restricted to only one aspect of the situation.

In the Central Provinces and Berar the local Government carried on from November 1929 a special campaign of rural uplift in the Pipariya Circle in the Hoshangabad District, concentrating the efforts of all departments concerned with rural uplift in that area. An agricultural assistant, a veterinary assistant surgeon, and an assistant medical officer were placed on special duty there, while the Deputy Educational Inspector, Sohagpur taluka, and the circle auditor of Pipariya undertook extra work and special propaganda and the Deputy Commissioner and Sub-Divisional Officer toured and supervised the work. The campaign has yielded concrete results. Interesting experiments in a few selected villages are in progress in the Nimar and Betul districts and Government wait only for improvement in financial and political conditions to launch more ambitious schemes. In Bombay by the starting of Taluka Development Associations and the creation of the Divisional Boards of Agriculture and Co-operation some co-ordination has been brought about between the Departments of Agriculture and Co-operation. The Bombay Reorganisation Committee proposed the creation of a Board of Rural Welfare with the Director of Agriculture as chairman and Deputy Directors of Co-operation, Agriculture and Veterinary Science as members. The later part of 1933 saw a considerable impetus imparted to the cause of rural reconstruction in India. His Excellency Sir Frederick Sykes, Governor of Bombay, concentrated on village uplift and carried on an intensive propaganda in that behalf which has led to the formulation of a scheme whereby the work will be carried on earnestly by District Committees under the guidance of the District Collectors, the work being co-ordinated by Divisional officers. The Punjab has appointed Mr. Brayne of Gurgaon fame as Commissioner for Rural Reconstruction and Bengal has made a similar appointment, and it appears that all provincial Governments are devoting considerable thought to this very important work.

Better Living Societies.—The Punjab has been responsible for introducing this very desirable type of co-operative society to promote better living among its members. There are about 300 such societies in that province and they have been doing quite important work in their own way. The societies do not collect any levy from their members, except the small entrance fee and they lay down a programme of work and make rules for carrying it out from year to year, violation of which is punishable with fine under the by-laws. Though these societies in the first instance have for their object the curtailment of ruinous expenditure on marriages and other social occasions, they have also helped in various other matters; so that apart from saving to their members thousands of rupees each year, they are contributing to the general village uplift in some measure. Some of these societies have levelled and paved and swept the village lands, some have promoted sanitation, some have induced the villagers to improve ventilation in their houses, some have repaired and roofed the village drinking well, some have arranged that all manure should be pitted, some have discouraged expenditure on jewellery, and some have stopped waste on farms. Thus in a variety of ways these societies generally have been great factors in the improvement of conditions in the life of the village. It is earnestly hoped that such better living societies

will be started in large numbers in the various provinces of India or better still that the co-operative credit societies would take upon themselves the function performed by these societies and that the term better living be given as wide a connotation as possible so that the co-operative movement would be doing good to itself and the nation by carrying on the general work of village uplift, as well as its own economic objective of strengthening the position of the agriculturist.

Educational Societies.—Though the problem of illiteracy is a very large problem indeed and though education is one of the chief responsibilities of Government it is interesting to find that because of the great reaction which illiteracy has on the efficient working of co-operative societies, educational societies have been started in some of the provinces—notably the Punjab. In that province, there are two kinds of societies, one for adult education and the other for compulsory education of children. In the former the members pay a small entrance fee and a small monthly fee to make up the pay of the teacher, who is generally the school master of the primary school receiving a small extra pay for the additional work. Such of these schools as are well conducted are later on taken over by the District Boards. Various other agencies in that province have also started similar schools with the result that their number has gone up to about 2,000. The compulsory education schools for children are started by parents, fees are collected as in the case of the adult schools for engaging a teacher and there are about 150 such schools imparting tuition up to the IV Standard. Though such educational societies may not have done all the good they aimed at doing, there is no doubt whatever that they bear testimony to the realization of the marked correlation of education and co-operation. The United Provinces is gradually following the lead given by the Punjab and they also have started a number of schools. In Bihar and Orissa, the co-operative credit societies give considerable impetus to primary education amongst the members making it possible to open and run a number of path-shalas and schools by adequate contributions. In Bengal many societies spend on education and some of them maintain night schools, as a result of which in one district alone there are 38 such schools, 2 upper primary schools and one English middle school. The Ganja cultivators' societies spend large amounts out of their profits on education and help 3 high schools and 87 primary schools. Societies in Bombay also spend fairly large amounts by making grants to schools and giving prizes and scholarships.

Anti-malarial Societies.—Among other things, the need for improvement in village sanitation, an important constituent of "better living" arrested the attention of co-operators particularly in Bengal, which pays a heavy toll, year after year, from that terrible scourge—malaria and kala-azar—and where, unlike many other provinces, the rural death rate is higher than the urban death rate. There is some talk at present of experimenting with plasmoquin to render mosquitoes immune from infection and thus prevent the spread of infections. Bengal has thus rendered a distinct service by organising successfully a campaign in rural areas for arresting or checking in some measure the ravages of malaria. The first co-operative anti-malarial society was the Panihaty Society registered in March 1918, and in July 1919, the Central Society was launched. The whole movement in this direction owes considerably to Dr. Gopalchandra Chatterjee. The Central Society aimed at organising a network of anti-malarial and public health societies, at carrying on propaganda, at guiding the rural societies and acting as an expert advisory body. There are now about 600 rural societies, often in inaccessible places and the Central Society now acts as merely an organising body, leaving the function of supervision to local bodies, through whom Government give grants to them. The members of the rural societies pay a monthly subscription of from 4 annas to a rupee, and each of these maintain a medical man on the subsidy system, who attends to the families of members free of charge. They depend for funds on subscriptions, donations, and grants from members, benevolent individuals and Government. They do not pay their way and therein indeed lies their weakness. The actual anti-malarial work consists of filling up all stagnant pools and ditches within the village areas during the dry season and kerosining all stagnant accumulations of water, immediately after the rains. Many dispensaries and schools are being maintained, some on a share basis, others on a charity basis, and these societies have done the great service of bringing the services of qualified medical men within easy reach of inaccessible rural areas.

Urban Credit Societies.—While the chief objective of the co-operative movement was from the first to do service to the rural population, it must be remembered that the Act of 1904 permitted 2 classes of societies,—rural and urban, recognising thus the suitability of the co-operative method for solving the problems of urban population also. At present there are in all 10,753 non-agricultural societies with a membership of 11,81,989. Of these, 5,262 are credit societies, the rest being societies for other purposes.

The urban co-operative credit societies for consumers resolve themselves into three types. (*i*) The salary-earners' society; (*ii*) the mill-hands' society; and (*iii*) the communal society. *The salary-earners' societies* have been generally organised on the occupational basis, the members being employees in the same firm or Government office. The strength of such a society lies in the absence of communal jealousies and factions, in the higher level of culture and intelligence of the members and the spirit of discipline that prevails in a modern well-conducted office. A great accession of strength accrues to the society from the sympathy of the employer or head of the office, through whom recoveries of instalments of loan repayments could be arranged from the pay sheet and the danger of overdues practically eliminated. The basis of the society is very good, and the working generally sound. Monthly subscriptions inculcate the habit of saving, so essential and useful to the salariat and the society can well act as a great and useful feeder for the co-operative investment trust, which is the logical development of the thrift-cum-credit society such as this, in essence, is.

The Mill-hands' Society are more or less of a similar type, the differences lying, chiefly

in the illiteracy of the members, in their smaller transactions and in the possibility, though experience hitherto has not converted that into actuality, of the whole organisation being wrecked to pieces when the millhands go on a prolonged strike.

The Communal Society as consumers' organisations are not indeed quite sound; where sentiment comes in from the door, efficiency and safety fly away through the window; the ability to save is not properly assessed; the nobler, but the unbusiness like, desire to help takes possession; overdues mount high; procrastination in the matter of recoveries and references to the Registrar for arbitration create great trouble. Despite this inherent weakness, however, several societies of a communal type have done remarkably well and have been serving their communities in more ways than one.

An important class of the urban population is that of the merchants and traders, and though the joint-stock banking system that has so far developed in India is quite well suited in many respects for them, from the point of view of the small trader, it is co-operative banking that is obviously wanted. The importance of **People's Co-operative Banks** promoted for the benefit of urban people without any distinction of caste or creed is, therefore, very great, for the finance of small merchants, artisans and craftsmen for the stimulation of trade and industries in and around district and taluka towns. The principal business of these banks is short-term credit and in this respect they resemble the ordinary commercial banks. In the absence of any industrial co-operative bank, it is also for the peoples' bank to finance small industrialists and help the development of cottage industries, which still play a very considerable part in the industrial economy of India. Another very important function which falls to peoples' banks is the financing of the marketing of the produce of the land from the field to the port or to the principal market centres and thus assist in the development of the internal trade of the country. It is only, however, in the Bombay and Bengal Presidencies that we meet with some good institutions functioning as peoples' banks. In Madras there are 1,130 non-agricultural credit societies but most of these are not real peoples' banks. The Punjab has over 1,000 unlimited liability societies and only 92 with limited liability. Even here we hardly find any development of real peoples' banks. In Bengal the limited liability urban credit societies number 469 and though these societies seem to have won public confidence the more important of them are salary earners' credit societies. Some of the divisions especially the Chittagong divisions have several big concerns, however, working on sound lines. The question of starting Peoples' Banks in Bihar and Orissa has not yet been seriously taken in hand. In the Bombay Presidency, institutions with a working capital of Rs. 50,000 and more are classed as urban banks. Since 1922 co-operators in this Presidency have been very keen on having a full-fledged peoples' bank in every taluka town, for it has been realised that with the proper development of urban co-operative banking, there is no doubt that the various units will come into touch with one another and that mutual settlement of terms and co-ordinated and harmonious work will greatly assist the development of inland trading agencies. Peoples' banks are a repository of peoples' savings, a nucleus for co-operative activity and an institution giving facilities for internal remittance and it is quite necessary therefore that their share capital must be pretty large. In the Bombay Presidency on the 31st March 1932 there were 91 urban banks most of which are fairly successful. The total membership was 1,39,379, the working capital was Rs. 3,57,60,347 and the reserve fund amounted to Rs. 19,44,622. It can be said without exaggeration that the development of urban banking has been a distinct contribution of Bombay to the co-operative movement in India and other provinces might well follow Bombay's example in this direction.

In 1926 the urban banks of Gujarat formed themselves into a supervising union for the purpose of inspecting the accounts of its banks and helping them in the development of business. The Bombay Provincial Banking Enquiry Committee have recommended the formation of similar unions for the urban banks in other divisions of the Presidency which will be useful not only for supervision of the existing banks but also for the guidance of the newly formed banks.

An important variant of the urban co-operative society is the **Thrift Society.** The system adopted is to collect regular savings every month for a continuous period of two to four years, invest the collected amount to the best advantage and pay back to the subscriber his amount at the end of the term with interest. In many societies, loans are advanced also but not exceeding a certain fixed proportion, usually ¾ of the deposits. The Punjab has about 1,000 such societies and the bulk of the members are school masters. There are about 125 thrift societies for women only having a membership of about 2,000. Madras has also more than 100 thrift societies and Bombay has half a dozen. Recently however **Life Insurance Societies** have been started in Bombay, Bengal and Madras. The Bombay society was started in July 1930 and for a few months worked as a provident society only, issuing policies of Rs. 150 to Rs. 500 and that too without medical examination, the idea being to bring life insurance within easy reach of the small man in the village as in the town. It has no share capital and works on a mutual basis. It has now, however, widened its scope and has been writing policies for larger amounts under its ordinary branch, while under the rural branch, besides the ordinary small policies, it has recently issued a scheme for decreasing term insurance, which will, it is hoped, meet the needs of the primary societies and their borrowing members much better. It has by now written a business of over Rs. 10 lacs. The Bengal society is yet a provident society issuing small policies, while the Madras society—the South India Co-operative Insurance Society has started vigorously as a full fledged life insurance society with share capital and comparatively low rates of premia, and has already written a large business of over Rs. 10 lacs.

Non-Credit Societies in Urban Areas.—*The consumers' movement* in this country has had a very sorry record excepting in the almost solitary example of the Triplicane Co-operative

Stores of Madras. The reasons for this state of affairs have been discussed by the Registrars in their annual reports from time to time and it seems that there is no immediate possibility of any very great efforts being made at pushing on this form of co-operative effort, which has found such signal success in England. The small capital of the societies when started, the want of experience and business ability of the workers, the inability of the honorary workers to perform efficiently the complicated work of a store society, the absence of any common tie between the members, the narrow margin between the whole sale rates and the retail rates. In Indian cities leaving little economic advantage in the store system, the pinning of their faith on absence of adulteration and correct weights and measures, the insistence on cash payments—all these have been responsible for the failure of the co-operative store movement in this country. The Triplicane Society of Madras forms a splendid exception and from humble beginnings in 1908 it has attained a position of considerable importance serving its members through numerous branches. The society celebrated its silver jubilee in 1930.

Producers' Movement.—Producers' co-operation in India is yet in a rudimentary stage. Half-hearted attempts made to apply co-operative methods in the case of the artisans and cottage workers have not been attended with success. People engaged in these industries may be divided into three classes: (*i*) those working on their own account and selling their finished articles themselves; (*ii*) those working in their own home on behalf of some merchant or dealer, receiving wages on the piece-work system for the work done by them, and being provided with the raw materials from the merchants who give them the work; and (*iii*) those working in small *karkhanas* or factories under an employer, generally known as the *karkhandar* and receiving wages on the time-scale, somewhat on the lines of the workers employed in large scale industries. A large number of artisans are still carrying on their trade on their own account, and these are wholly in the hands of the money-lenders, who charge exorbitant rates of interest. The latter also supply raw materials and purchase the finished articles at prices dictated by themselves. These transactions leave little margin to the worker, who having a running debt with the merchants is obliged to deal with them without being able to resort to the competitive markets.

What the artisan requires is thus (*i*) credit facilities, (*ii*) facilities for the purchase of raw materials and implements, and (*iii*) facilities for the sale of his product. The only thing that has been so far done is to organise credit societies for some of the artisans, hoping in a half-hearted way for societies for purchase and for sale to follow later on. The most important cottage industry being hand-loom weaving, attention was directed early to them and we have several *societies of weavers*. The societies for weavers in the Punjab affiliate themselves to the Co-operative Industrial Bank at Amritsar for finance. Besides this bank, there are six unions at different centres to which the societies within their areas are affiliated as shareholders. They raise their own funds too by shares and compulsory deposits. The Co-operative Industrial Bank at Amritsar helps the weavers' societies in the purchase of raw materials. The business branch of the bank—the sales depot at Lahore—sends to the societies weekly quotations and keeps them in touch with the trend of the market. The indents from societies are received by the Bank which arranges for the purchase of the requirements from Amritsar itself—the most important commercial centre in the Punjab or from Ahmedabad and Bombay. The other six Unions also help in this work through the Lahore sale depot. For the sale of the finished goods, however, the societies are left to held themselves; the unions and bank help but little, though the depot renders some service by securing orders, keeping goods on deposit and by advising societies to prepare cloth of the pattern most in demand in the market.

Bombay, Madras and other provinces have also a number of weavers' societies, but nowhere have they developed into producers' societies or have met with any marked success.

Co-operative Housing Societies.—An important direction in which the co-operative movement has developed in urban areas on the non-credit side is the provision of suitable housing accommodation to the lower middle classes at a fair rent. The housing movement represents a protest against exploitation of tenants by landlords in large cities. It has achieved a considerable measure of success in the Presidency of Bombay, where the Societies in 1931-32 numbered 83 with a total working capital of 89 lakhs. Of the 83 societies, 23 are in the city of Bombay and its suburbs, 21 in Ahmedabad, 12 in Karachi and the rest in other parts of the province. Of the remaining provinces, Madras has 130 societies with a total working capital of 40 lakhs, and the rest of the provinces have only one or two. Among the Indian States only Mysore has 12 societies. The societies outside the Bombay Presidency are mere lending societies and do not undertake the construction of buildings as those in Bombay do.

The housing societies started so far are confined to the middle class men such as clerks, pleaders, traders and the like and are all on a communal basis. No housing societies have yet been started in this country for the working classes. There are two main systems of co-operative housing, the individual ownership and the co-ownership or tenant co-partnership systems.

An important drawback of the *ownership system* is that the members of the society have an unrestricted right to transfer their property to any person, with the result that many houses built with the help of co-operative money, have passed into the hands of speculators. In order to remove this defect, Bombay has introduced a new scheme known as the *tenant ownership system*. In this system the society takes a large plot of land on lease or by purchase, and after laying out roads, if they do not exist already, divides the land into smaller plots and distributes them among the members, reserving some land for common purposes, for erecting a common hall and for a play-ground. The cost of development is a charge on the members' plots, the price of which varies according to their situation. The members hold the plots on a lease from the society on condition that in case of sale of their holding, before or after erecting a

building, they will give the first choice to the society or to a member recommended by it. Government undertakes to advance loans to members of this type of society to the extent of twice the capital paid by each member, repayable within 20 years, the maximum amount allowed to a member being Rs. 10,000. When all the houses are built, the society would look after the common property, settle disputes between members and generally to the work of a municipality for the colony.

In the *tenant co-partnership system*, the society takes up a large area of land and constructs buildings thereon for the residence of its members and makes provision for their common amenities. Members reside in the buildings as the tenants of the society. They contribute capital to the extent of 1/5 to ¼ of total cost, in proportion to the gross residential area provided. The remaining capital, in addition to that contributed by the members, is raised by way of a loan. The Government of Bombay advances loans to the housing societies of this type to the extent of three-fourths the paid up capital repayable in 40 years by annual instalments with interest at 5½ per cent. Governments of other provinces have recently commenced to advance long-term loans to housing societies at about 6 per cent. In this system the position of the society as well as of the members is secured. The society holds a substantial stake of the members, and there is no chance of default. Though no member is the owner of any building or its part in which he resides, yet all the members are joint-owners of all the buildings. It is a socialistic ideal in which the ownership rests in the community as a whole and not in individuals.

Review.—The Co-operative Societies Act of 1904 had limitations which were soon recognised and at a conference of the Registrars, a bill was drawn up which became the **Co-operative Societies Act of 1912**. This Act remedied the defects of its predecessor, authorized the registration of societies for purposes other than credit, substituted a scientific classification based on the nature of the liability for the arbitrary one into rural and urban and legalised the registration of Unions and Central Banks.

In 1914 the Government of India reviewed the situation in a comprehensive resolution and recommended a change in the policy regarding the grant of loans to members, so that they might lend money for domestic purposes as well as for agricultural ones in order that the members might confine their dealings with the Co-operative Societies and be weaned from the sowcars. In 1914, the **Maclagan Committee** on Co-operation was appointed and its report in 1915 led to the reorganisation and overhauling of the whole administration of co-operation. Punctual repayment of loans was insisted upon, and all those societies that failed to live up to the ideal of co-operation were sought to be eliminated. From this time onwards the share of non-officials in the movement assumed increasing importance and it came to be realized that for the success of the movement, deofficializing of the same was necessary. The Government of India Act of 1919 made co-operation a provincial transferred subject and the local Governments were left free to adapt the 1912 Act to their own requirements.

The steady growth of the **Central Financing Agencies** relieved the Registrars partly of the need for attending to this very important matter in the development of co-operation; but propaganda still remained the function of the Registrar and his staff, paid or honorary, and it was perceived that non-official institutions should be established to take over this function from official hands. Accordingly **Co-operative Institutes** were started in various provinces, in some cases as unitary societies reaching down to the village through their branches in the divisions and the district, in other cases as a federation or union more or less complete of the primary societies. The part these non-official bodies began to play henceforth became increasingly important, some adding to the primary function of propaganda, others such as co-operative education, supervision over societies and even audit.

The steady progress of the movement—sometimes even too rapid—for nearly 20 years, however, was found hardly to lessen the colossal burden of the indebtedness of the ryot, for co-operative credit necessarily confined itself to short-term loans. It was in the Punjab that the first *Co-operative Land Mortgage Bank* was started at Jhang in 1920. Soon after other provinces also followed suit.

While the movement was developing at a rapid pace it was found that financially the situation was worsening. Defaults in repayment were becoming increasingly common and **Co-operative Committees of Enquiry** were instituted in various provinces. The Central Provinces thought it necessary to have such a committee in 1922, while Bihar and Orissa followed with a similar committee in 1923. A few years after the Oakden Committee made similar inquiries for the U. P., the Townsend Committee for Madras and the Calvert Committee for Burma. These Committees have carefully analysed the position in their respective provinces and have made recommendations for the consolidation and rectification of the co-operative credit organisation and the extension of the non-credit side of agricultural co-operation. The powers conferred upon the Local Government by the Act of 1919 to modify the Act of 1912 have been exercised so far in but few provinces such as Bombay, Burma, Madras and Bihar and Orissa. Bombay passed the **Co-operative Societies' Act of 1925** incorporating the suggestions made from time to time for the amendment of the previous All-India Act. This new Act made the object of the movement still wider than that of its predecessor and its preamble refers to "better living, better business and better methods of production" as the aim of the movement. The chief features of the Bombay Act of 1925 are the adoption of a scientific system of classification of societies, the improvement of the procedure for liquidation of cancelled societies, the extension of summary powers of recovery to the awards of arbitrators and the provision of penalties against specified offences. The Burma Act came into force in 1927 and the Madras Act in July 1932. In Behar and Orissa, the draft of a new Act is under consideration and the bill will be very likely introduced in the council shortly. The progress of the

movement in forms other than credit has not been very remarkable and credit societies still predominate, especially the Agricultural Credit Societies.

The **non-credit movement** has had naturally more obstacles to overcome than the credit but the former is slowly gathering force in the shape of sale societies for cotton in Karnatak, Gujarat and Khandesh, cattle insurance societies in Burma and irrigation societies in Bengal and the Southern Division of the Bombay Presidency. Perhaps the most remarkable instance of the co-operative movement in India is to be found in the Punjab where consolidation of holdings has been successfully attempted through co-operation. In the non-agricultural non-credit sphere, a still smaller headway has been made. There are a number of housing societies especially in Bombay, Madras and Mysore, and artisans' societies and unskilled labour societies in Madras. It may be noted that on the agricultural side, co-operative farming has hardly been touched and on the non-credit side the consumers' movement has made but meagre progress.

In 1926, the *Royal Commission on Agriculture* was appointed and co-operation formed only a part—though an important one—of its extensive enquiry. Recently, in consequence of the appointment of the provincial committees under the *Indian Central Banking Enquiry Committee* the co-operative movement in the different provinces has been surveyed. But the provincial committees, for obvious reasons, confined their inquiries to banking in relation to agriculture, small industries and trade. Thus only those aspects of the co-operative movement which have an intimate bearing on the credit needs of the population and the development of banking facilities have been examined, while the need for separate enquiries into the whole movement in the different provinces of the lines of those undertaken in C. P., U. P. and Madras and emphasised by the Royal Commission on Agriculture is still to be met. Bihar and Orissa recently got its movement examined by a committee which has published its report last year. The Government of Bombay convened in June 1933 a Round Table Conference of official and non-official Co-operators to discuss the problems that confronted the Movement in Bombay. As a result of this Conference, three Committees were appointed, one to examine the system of supervision over Co-operative societies by the Supervising Unions in the Presidency, another to report on the best way to help the agriculturists in these times of falling prices and trade depression, and the third to examine the problem of extension of land mortgage banking on a Co-operative basis. These Committees have not yet submitted their reports, but there is little doubt that their recommendations would lead to a tightening up of supervision, an extension of land mortgage banking and efforts to meet the growth of overdue loans.

The growing difficulties of the Co-operative Movement throughout India in these times of unprecedented depression led the Government of India to hold an All-India Co-operative Conference at New Delhi on the 29th January 1934. This Conference was unique in so far as it was not restricted only to the Registrars of Co-operative Societies and their advisers from the various provinces and States, but it also included some ministers in charge of Agriculture and Co-operation from the provinces and a representative of each of the two All-India Co-operative organisations—the Institutes' Association and the Provincial Banks' Association. This Conference recommended the enactment of an All-India Co-operative Societies Act so as to permit the registration of Co-operative Societies working in the whole of India or in more provinces than one. It also recommended earnest efforts for the development of land mortgage banks by the Government guaranteeing not only the interest on their debentures but also the capital and suggested the creation of a Central Co-operative Board under the Imperial Government with a small establishment to bring about a closer co-ordination of work between the different provinces and States of India. This last suggestion has met with some opposition, since after the provincialisation of Co-operation under the on Montford Reforms of 1914, the provinces do not much fancy the imposition of control from the centre. And yet, there seems to be nothing wrong in the idea of a central organisation, which would be a clearing house for authentic information and stimulate progress through a careful study of experiments and efforts in particular areas and drawing attention of other areas to the success achieved or the deficiencies revealed.

It may also be mentioned that **the Indian States** were not slow in introducing the co-operative movement within their limits, and the movement in some of the more important of the States, such as Hyderabad (Deccan), Mysore, Baroda, Gwalior and Indore has made considerable progress, more or less on the same lines as those followed in the neighbouring British Indian Provinces.

The landmarks in the history of the co-operative movement in India are; the Co-operative Credit Societies Act of 1904; the Co-operative Societies Act of 1912; the Maclagan Committee Report, 1915; the provincialisation of co-operation, 1919; the establishment of institutes, unions and federations for propaganda; the Committees of Enquiry into the co-operative movement in several provinces; provincial legislation; the Report of the Royal Commission on Agriculture, 1928; and Reports of the Indian Central and Provincial Banking Enquiry Committees, 1931.

The movement has thus developed rapidly and the **stages of its evolution** may be briefly summarised as—agricultural credit; urban credit; central credit organisations; apex co-operative banks; propaganda by non-officials; non-credit agricultural co-operation; urban co-operative banking; long-term loans and debt redemption schemes; land mortgage banks; co-operative education; rectification and consolidation of the credit movement; and organisation of supervision over primary societies.

TABLE NO. 1.

Number of Societies for all India showing the Increase since 1906-07.

	Average for 4 years from 1906-07 to 1909-10.	Average for 5 years from 1910 to 1914-15.	Average for 5 years from 1915-16 to 1919-20.	Average for 5 years from 1920-21 to 1924-25.	Average for 5 years from 1925-26 to 1929-30.	1930-31.	1931-32.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Central (including Provincial and Central Banks and Banking Unions.)	17	231	304	506	587	607	605
Supervising and Guaranteeing Unions (including Reinsurance Societies) ..			638	1,302	1,394	1,256	1,091
Agricultural (including Cattle Insurance Societies)	1,713	10,891	25,873	51,716	83,093	93,773	93,598
Non-Agricultural	196	664	1,662	4,18	8,862	10,530	10,756

Total ..	1,926	11,786	28,477	57,707	93,936	1,06,166	1,06,050

Number of Societies by Provinces and States for 1931-32 *only.*

Province.	Population. (Millions.)	Central.	Supervising and Guaranteeing Unions.	Agricultural.	Non-Agricultural.	Total Number of Societies.	Number of Societies per 1,00,000 Inhabitants.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Bombay	21·9	20	118	4,841	899	5,878	26·8
Punjab	23·6	120	....	17,590	3,120	20,830	88·3
United Provinces	48·4	71	3	5,418	301	5,793	12·0
Bihar and Orissa	37·7	68	113	8,799	329	9,309	24·7
Bengal	50·1	120	3	21,493	2,106	23,722	47·3
Assam	8·6	19	....	1,299	91	1,409	16·4
Burma	13·1	11	356	2,087	160	2,614	20·0
Madras	46·7	33	431	12,563	1,512	14,539	31·1
Central Provinces and Berar	15·5	36	16	3,780	94	3,926	25·3
N. W. F. Province	2·4	1	....	289	15	305	12·7
Coorg	0·2	1	13	214	25	253	126·5
Ajmer-Merwara	0·6	7	2	553	104	666	111·0
Hyderabad Administered Area ..	0·1	....	....	....	19	19	19·0
Delhi	0·6	1	....	223	55	279	46·5
Total (British India) ..	269.5	508	1,055	79,149	8,830	89,542	33.2
Mysore	6·6	14	....	1,744	423	2,181	33·0
Baroda	2·4	6	1	871	135	1,063	44·3
Hyderabad	14·4	34	....	2,013	363	2,410	16·7
Bhopal	0·7	22	7	1,135	27	1,191	170·1
Gwalior	3·5	....	....	4,015	41	4,106	117·5
Indore	1·3	5	....	497	48	550	42·3
Kashmir	3·6	14	....	2,572	357	2,943	81·7
Travancore	5·1	1	28	1,412	377	1,818	35·6
Cochin	1·2	1	....	140	105	246	20·5
Total (Indian States)	38·8	97	36	14,449	1,926	16,508	42·5
Grand Total ..	308·3	605	1,091	93,598	10,756	1,06,050	34·4

TABLE NO. 3.

Number of Members for all India showing the increase since 1906-07.

	Average for 4 years from 1906-07 to 1909-10.	Average for 5 years from 1910-11 to 1914-15.	Average for 5 years from 1915-16 to 1919-20.	Average for 5 years from 1920-21 to 1924-25.	Average for 5 years from 1925-26 to 1929-30.	1930-31.	1931-32.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Central (including Provincial and Central Banks and Banking Unions.)	1,987	23,677	89,925	1,63,822	2,12,093	2,02,066	2,04,749
Supervising and Guaranteeing Unions (including Re-insurance Societies) ..			10,971	24,437	34,621	35,512	36,510
Agricultural (including Cattle Insurance Societies)	1,07,643	4,59,096	9,02,930	16,61,098	27,91,562	31,65,925	31,09,383
Non-Agricultural (including other Insurance Societies)	54,267	89,157	2,26,031	4,93,509	8,97,279	11,42,337	11,84,956
Total number of Members of primary Societies	1,61,910	5,48,253	11,28,961	21,54,607	36,88,841	43,08,262	42,94,339

TABLE No. 4.

Number of Members by Provinces and States for 1931-32 *only.*

Province.	Population. (Millions).	Central (including Provincial and Central Banks and Banking Unions.)	Supervising and Guaranteeing Unions (including Re-insurance Societies.)	Agricultural (including Cattle Insurance Societies.)	Non-Agricultural (including other Insurance Societies.)	Total Number of Members of primary Societies.	Number of Members of primary Societies per 1,000 Inhabitants.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Madras	46·7	16,688	11,009	6,75,449	2,63,609	9,39,058	20·1
Bombay	21·9	14,436	3,014	3,22,969	2,45,204	5,68,173	25·9
Bengal	50·1	25,186	290	5,29,439	2,42,011	7,71,450	15·4
Bihar and Orissa	37·7	12,145	10,330	2,34,428	27,460	2,61,888	6·9
United Provinces	48·4	10,791	106	1,17,176	29,932	1,47,108	3·0
Punjab	23·6	35,575	....	5,70,332	1,10,154	6,80,486	28·8
Burma	13·1	1,713	2,102	46,844	30,382	77,726	5·9
Central Provinces and Berar	15·5	56,503	7,411	57,396	18,060	75,456	4·9
Assam	8·6	1,888	....	54,684	14,880	69,564	8·1
North-West Frontier Province	2·4	177	....	8,093	1,423	9,516	4·0
Coorg	0·2	335	211	11,588	2,975	14,563	72·8
Ajmer-Merwara	0·6	1,621	122	12,319	6,332	18,651	31·1
Hyderabad Administered Area	0·1	....	....	....	7,552	7,552	75·5
Delhi	0·6	485	....	5,249	2,944	8,193	13·7
Total (British India) ..	269·5	1,77,543	34,685	26,45,966	10,03,418	36,49,384	13·5
Mysore	6·6	3,168	....	71,790	67,757	1,39,547	21·1
Baroda	2·4	1,320	34	25,323	12,909	38,232	15·9
Hyderabad	14·4	4,462	....	42,128	16,585	58,713	4·1
Bhopal	0·7	2,485	158	20,316	462	20,778	29·7
Gwalior	3·5	7,463	....	70,405	644	71,049	20·3
Indore	1·3	1,876	....	9,483	5,559	15,042	11·6
Kashmir	3·6	3,418	....	47,336	6,932	54,268	15·1
Travancore	5·1	2,874	1,633	1,64,626	57,708	2,22,334	43·6
Cochin	1·2	140	....	12,010	12,982	24,992	20·8
Total (Indian States) ..	38·8	27,206	1,825	4,63,417	1,81,538	6,44,955	16·6
Grand Total ..	308·3	2,04,749	36,510	31,09,383	11,84,956	42,94,339	13·9

TABLE 5.

Working Capital for all India showing the Increase since 1906-07.

	Average for 4 years from 1906-07 to 1909-10.	Average for 5 years from 1910-11 to 1914-15.	Average for 5 years from 1915-16 to 1919-20.	Average for 5 years from 1920-21 to 1924-25.	Average for 5 years from 1925-26 to 1929-30.	1930-31.	1931-32.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
	Rs. (1,000)	Rs. (1,000)	Rs. (1,000)	Rs. (1,000)	Rs. (1,000)	Rs. (1,000)	Rs. (1,000)
Share Capital paid up	13,19	88,87	2,51,97	5,25,66	9,94,17	12,40,83	12,65,60
Loans and deposits held at the end of the year from members	14,12	88,28	96,35	2,54,45	5,03,42	6,77,93	6,83,12
Loans and deposits held at the end of the year from Societies	13,59	1,93,42	47,81	1,49,98	2,92,88	3,20,24	3,50,98
Loans and deposits held at the end of the year from Provincial or Central Banks	....	....	5,03,19	12,29,88	24,62,43	29,29,59	27,98,65
Loans and deposits held at the end of the year from Government	5,86	10,87	25,58	67,69	1,63,34	1,74,81	1,68,72
Loans and deposits held at the end of the year from non-members and other sources	19,69	1,41,98	4,70,25	10,96,22	23,59,68	28,15,70	28,58,57
Reserve and other Funds	1.67	25,00	1,23,92	3,12,38	7,13,21	10,32,12	11,43,51
Total ..	68,12	5,48,42	15,18,47	36,36,26	74,89,13	91,91,22	92,69,15

TABLE No. 6.

Working Capital by Provinces and States for 1931-32 *only.*

Province.	Population.	Share Capital Paid-up.	Loans and Deposits held at the end of the Year from					Reserve and other Funds.	Total.	Number of Annas per head of Population.
			Members.	Societies.	Provincial or Central Banks.	Government.	Non-Members and other sources.			
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
	Millions.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Annas.
Madras	46·7	(1,000) 2,36,35	(1,000) 89,13	(1,000) 98,67	(1,000) 5,58,31	(1,000) 34,50	(1,000) 5,47,54	(1,000) 1,40,28	(1,000) 17,04,78	58
Bombay	21·9	1,86,52	2,96,09	72,48	2,96,88	50,34	4,28,06	1,11,74	14,42,11	105
Bengal	50·1	2,06,42	98,67	25,35	5,19,54	70	5,75,10	1,92,17	16,17,95	92
Bihar and Orissa	37·7	57,75	17,27	3,95	2,43,76	60	2,04,65	58,92	5,86,90	25
United Provinces	48·4	58,66	11,01	3,23	52,80	18	51,26	45,26	2,22,40	7
Punjab	23·6	1,88,22	64,79	74,40	6,34,31	13,73	5,86,59	2,80,97	18,43,01	125
Burma	13·1	84,54	10,09	8,27	48,09	9,33	20,32	73,38	2,54,02	31
Central Provinces and Berar ..	15·5	34,45	5,35	31,51	2,10,38	....	1,79,72	70,14	5,31,55	55
Assam	8·6	8,12	9,00	1,74	20,31	95	29,92	11,66	81,70	15
North-West Frontier Province ..	2·4	2,09	72	33	5,52	....	4,95	67	14,28	10
Coorg	0·2	2,86	39	49	2,13	11	2,70	2,74	11,42	91
Ajmer-Merwara	0·6	6,80	4,21	1,59	10,13	....	14,99	9,83	47,55	127
Hyderabad Administered Area ..	0·1	2,16	4,13	25	....	12	....	34	7,00	112
Delhi	0·6	2,74	1,46	21	6,55	....	10,89	2,56	24,41	65
Total (British India)	269.5	10,77,68	6,12,31	3,22,47	26,08,71	1,10,56	26,56,69	10,00,66	83,89,08	50
Mysore	6·6	49,76	36,63	7,21	28,58	3,90	51,90	25,80	2,03,78	49
Baroda	2·4	6,37	11,32	2,46	14,71	5,41	25,99	10,47	76,73	51
Hyderabad	14·4	47,33	5,22	2,46	76,91	3,30	57,15	28,82	2,21,19	25
Bhopal	0·7	1,32	2	1,41	8,90	3,83	4	9,20	24,72	57
Gwalior	3·5	15,43	1,69	9,80	....	33,07	10,52	23,61	94,12	43
Indore	1·3	3,86	5,81	29	15,09	2,95	16,23	13,82	58,05	71
Kashmir	3·6	25,99	15	1,03	31,82	4,99	17,97	19,89	101,84	45
Travancore	5·1	34,65	6,78	1,93	10,22	45	15,60	7,75	77,38	24
Cochin	1·2	3,21	3,19	1,92	3,71	26	6,48	3,49	22,26	30
Total (Indian States) ..	38·8	1,87,92	70,81	28,51	1,89,94	58,16	2,01,88	1,42,85	8,80,07	36
Grand Total	308·3	12,65,60	6,83,12	3,50,98	27,98,65	1,68,72	28,58,57	11,43,51	92,69,15	48

TABLE 7.

Operations of Co-operative Societies, 1931-32.

In Thousands of Rupees

	Provincial Banks.	Central Banks.	Agricultural Societies.		Non-Agricultural Societies.	
			Credit.	Non-Credit.	Credit.	Non-Credit
Number	10	597	83,164	10,185	5,262	5,491
Working Capital :—						
Share Capital	66,99	2,91,77	4,38,98		4,67,84	
Loans and deposits held from—						
Members	4,81,97	18,45,37	1,76,91		5,06,20	
Non-Members			1,45,90		3,85,37	
Societies	49,22	2,71,05	21,41		9,30	
Provincial or Central Banks ..	3,24,30	3,73,58	19,81,93		1,18,83	
Government	18,60	51,83	24,03		74,26	
Reserve and other Funds.. ..	47,94	2,28,42	7,20,08		1,47,08	
Total ..	9,89,02	30,62,02	35,09,25		17,08,87	
Loans made during the year to—						
Individuals..	3,28,11	95,05	4,76,90		10,57,82	
Banks and Societies	2,62,94	8,10,84	68,16		1,15,02	
Loans due by—						
Individuals..	6,02	51,05	28,98,43		12,89,09	
Of which overdue	....	....	11,63,34		1,97,19	
Banks and Societies	4,80,19	22,94,05	80,48		64,78	
Profits	4,20	51,53	1,46,32		62,59	

Societies : Literary, Scientific and Social.

AGRICULTURAL AND HORTICULTURAL SOCIETY OF INDIA (Calcutta).—Founded 1820. A Class Annual subscription Rs. 32. Entrance fee Rs. 8. B Class Annual subscription Rs. 12. *Secretary*: S. Percy-Lancaster, F.L.S., F.R.H.S., M.R.A.S. *Office Superintendent*: R. C. Christian, 1, Alipore Road, Alipore.

AGRI-HORTICULTURAL SOCIETY OF BURMA.—*Superintendent*: T. P. Joyce, Agri-Horticultural Gardens, Kandawglay, Rangoon.

AGRI-HORTICULTURAL SOCIETY OF MADRAS.—Established 1835. Quarterly subscription for members in Class A Rs. 7, in Class B Rs. 3. *President*: H. E. The Governor of Madras; *Chairman*: C. R. Watkins, C.I.E., I.C.S.; *Hon Secretary*: Mr. B. S. Nirody, M.Sc.; *Hon. Treasurer*: Mr. H. A. Buller, Teynampet, S. W. Madras.

ANGLO-INDIAN LEAGUE.—Established 1909, for the protection of the interests of Anglo-Indians. Subscription Rs. 5 a year. *President*: Dr. H. W. B. Moreno, Ph. D. *Secretary*: V. Bastien, St. Thomas' Mansion, 25-1, Elliott Road, Calcutta.

ANTHROPOLOGICAL SOCIETY OF BOMBAY.—Founded 1886, to promote the prosecution of Anthropological research in India; to correspond with Anthropological Societies throughout the world; to hold monthly meetings for reading and discussing papers; and to publish a journal containing the transactions of the Society. Annual subscription Rs. 10. *President*: K. A. Padhye, B.A., LL.B. *Hon. Secretary*: Dr. N. A. Thoothi, B.A., D.Phil. (Oxon.). *Office Address*: 172, Hornby Road, Bombay.

BENARES MATHEMATICAL SOCIETY.—Founded in 1918 for the encouragement and promotion of research in the various branches of Pure and Applied Mathematics, and in the History of Mathematics. It conducts a journal "The Proceedings of the Benares Mathematical Society" in which original papers on Mathematics are published and maintains a library. There are about 60 members from all parts of India. Admission fee Rs. 10. Annual subscription Rs. 12 (resident members) and Rs. 5 (non-resident members). *Life President*: Dr. Ganesh Prasad, M.A. (Cantab), D.Sc.; *Secretary*: Prof. Chandi Prasad, M.A., B.Sc.; *Treasurer*: Prof. Pashupati Prasad, M.A., B.Sc.

BHANDARKAR ORIENTAL RESEARCH INSTITUTE, POONA.—The Institute was inaugurated on the 6th of July 1917, the 80th birthday of late Sir R. G. Bhandarkar, at the hands of H. E. Lord Willingdon, who became its first President. Its objects are to publish critical editions of texts and original works bearing on Oriental Antiquities, to provide an up-to-date Oriental Library, to train students in the methods of research and to act as an information bureau on all points connected with Oriental Studies. The valuable library of the late Dr. Sir R. G Bhandarkar, which he had bequeathed already to the Institute, was after his demise handed over by his executors to the Institute, and is now located in the Central Hall of the Institute. Since the 1st of April 1918 the Government of Bombay have transferred to the custody of the Institute the unique collection of nearly 20,000 manuscripts formerly in charge of the Deccan College, together with a maintenance grant of Rs. 3,000 a year. Government have likewise entrusted to the Institute a grant of Rs. 12,000 a year for the publication of the B. S. S. and the Government Oriental Series. The Institute has undertaken to edit *Mahabharata* critically (*Editor-in-Chief*: Dr. V. S. Sukthankar), at the request of the Chief of Aundh who has promised a total grant of Rs. one lakh for that purpose. Grants are being received from the Government of India (Rs. 4,000 a year), the University of Bombay (Rs. 3,000 a year) and the Government of Bombay (Rs. 6,000 a year), Burma, Baroda and Mysore as well as several Southern Mahratta States. The Institute has a Journal called "Annals of the Bhandarkar Institute" published four times a year. It also held under its auspices the First Oriental Conference on the 5th, 6th and 7th of November 1919 under the patronage of H. E. Sir George Lloyd and the presidency of Sir R. G. Bhandarkar. Thanks to liberal donations from the Tatas and the Jain community, supplemented by Grants-in-Aid from the Government of Bombay, the Institute is housed in a fine building near the hills behind the Home of the Servants of India Society. Since August 1927 the Institute has been conducting regular M.A. classes in Sanskrit, Pali, Ardhamagadh and Ancient Indian Culture, where at present over 30 students are attending. Membership dues Rs. 10 a year or Rs. 100 compounded for life. Members can, subject to certain conditions, borrow books from the library and get the "Annals" free and other publications (a list covering about 100 titles sent free upon request) at concession rates. *Secretary*: Dr. V. S. Sukthankar, M.A., Ph.D.

BHARATA ITIHASA SANSHODHAKA MANDALA, POONA.—Founded in 1910, generally to encourage and foster critical study of, and research in, Indian History and especially to collect and conserve historical documents, etc., relating to the same. The Mandala is entirely supported by public subscriptions and holds fortnightly meetings and annual conferences for historical discussions which are usually published in its quarterly Journal. Recently the Mandala has received by will a gift of thirty thousand dollars for a building to house, Marathi Manascripts from the late Dr. J. E. Abbott, of New Jersey, U.S.A. It has a library of its own and a permanent museum of historical exhibits and curiosities and a unique collection of Indian paintings of all pens and schools. The Mandala besides

publishing its Quarterly, edits and publishes original documents and monographs on historical subject, both in the *Sweeya, i.e.*, "Own" and *Puraskrita, i.e.*, "Recommended" series. Membership dues from Rs. 3 to Rs. 300 annually, with varying rights and privileges which may be compounded for life. Members, subject to certain conditions, can borrow books and get the Quarterly free and other Mandala publications at concession rates. *President:* C. V. Vaidya, M.A., LL.B.; *Secretaries:* D. V. Potdar, B.A. and Shri Sardar G. N. Mujumdar, M.L.A.; *Treasurer:* A. V. Patwardhan, B.A. *Address:* 312-13, Sadashiv Peth, Poona City.

BOMBAY ART SOCIETY.—Founded 1888; to promote and encourage Art by exhibitions of Pictures and Applied Arts, and to assist in the establishment and maintenance of a permanent gallery for pictures and other works of Art. Annual exhibition usually held every January. Annual subscription Rs.10; Life member Rs. 100. *Hon. Secretary:* V. V. Oak, Bar-at-Law. *Office:* Secretariat, Ground Floor, Bombay.

BOMBAY BRANCH OF THE ROYAL ASIATIC SOCIETY.—Founded 1804, to investigate and encourage Oriental Arts, Sciences and Literature. Annual subscription Rs. 60. *Secretary:* J. S. Tilley, Town Hall, Bombay.

BOMBAY MEDICAL UNION.—Founded 1883 to promote friendly intercourse and exchange of views and experiences between its members and to maintain the interest and status of the medical profession in Bombay and the Presidency. The Entrance Fee for Resident members Rs. 5, monthly subscription Rs. 2, Absent members Re. 1, and non-resident members yearly subscription Rs. 5, *President:* Dr. Abraham S. Erulkar. *Vice-Presidents:* Dr. S. B. Gadgil and Dr. K. J. J. Cursetji. *Hon. Treasurer:* Dr. R. D. P. Mody. *Hon. Librarians:* Dr. V. B. Desai and Dr. K. S. Bharucha. *Hon. Secretaries:* Dr. Sorab J. Popat and Dr. M. B. Thakore. Blavatsky Lodge Building, French Bridge, Chowpatty, Bombay.

BOMBAY NATURAL HISTORY SOCIETY. (Registered under Act XXI of 1860).—Founded 1883 to promote the study of Natural History in all its branches. The Society has a membership of about 1,400 all over the world and a museum with a representative collection of the different vertebrates and invertebrates found in the Indian Empire and Ceylon. In 1921 the Society was entrusted with the management of the Natural History Section of the Prince of Wales Museum, and a great part of the Society's collections have been transferred to that Museum. A Journal is published at varying times during the year which contains articles on natural history and sport as well as descriptions of new species and local lists of different orders. The Society's library is open to members and books may be borrowed under special arrangement by members residing in the mofussil. The Society's Taxidermist Department undertakes the curing and mounting of trophies for members. Annual subscription Rs. 25. Entrance fee Rs. 10. *Patrons:* H. E. The Viceroy of India, H. R. H. the Prince of Wales. *Vice-Patrons:* H. H. The Maharao of Cutch, G.C.S.I., G.C.I.E., H. H. the Maharaja of Jodhpur, K.C.S.I., K.C.V.O., H. H. the Maharaja of Rewa, K.C.S.I., H. H. the Maharaja of Bhavnagar and Mr. F. V. Evans, Liverpool; Sir David Ezra, Kt., A. S. Vernay, Esq., London. *President:* H.E. The Rt. Hon. Major-General Sir Frederick Sykes, G.C.I.E., G.B.E., K.C.B. *Vice-Presidents:* Mr. R. D. Bell, C.I.E., I.C.S., H. H. The Maharao of Cutch, G.C.S.I., G.C.I.E., Rev. E. Blatter, S.J., Ph.D., F.L.S. *Honorary Secretaries:* Sir Reginald Spence, Kt., F.Z.S., M.L.C. and Mr. P. M. D. Sanderson, F.Z.S. *Curator:* S. H. Prater, C.M.Z.S., M.L.C. *Asstt. Curators:* C. McCann, V. S. La Personne. *Head Clerk:* Mr. A. F. Fernandes. *Offices:* 6, Apollo Street, Bombay.

BOMBAY SANITARY ASSOCIATION.—Founded to create an educated public opinion with regard to sanitary matters in general; (*b*) to diffuse the knowledge of sanitation and hygiene generally, and of the prevention of the spread of disease amongst all classes of people by means of lectures, leaflets and practical demonstrations and, if possible, by holding classes and examinations; (*c*) to promote sanitary science by giving prizes, rewards or medals to those who may by diligent application add to our knowledge in sanitary science by original research or otherwise; (*d*) to arrange for homely talk or simple practical lectures for mothers and girls in the various localities and different chawls, provided the people in such localities or chawls give facilities. The Sanitary Institute Building in Princess Street, which has lately been built by the Association, at a cost of nearly Rs. 1,00,000 the foundation stone of which was laid by Lady Willingdon in March, 1914, and opened in March, 1915, is a large and handsome structure with a large Lecture Hall, Library, Museum, etc., and also provides accommodation for King George V. Anti-Tuberculosis League Dispensary transferred to the Municipality in 1924 and Museum and the office of the Assistant Health Officer, C and D Wards, and the Vaccination Station. *Hon. Secretary*: Dr. J. S. Nerurker, B. Sc., L.M. & S., D.P.H. (Cantab.), Executive Health Officer, Bombay.

BRITISH AND FOREIGN BIBLE SOCIETY.—Since 1811 the British and Foreign Bible Society has been at work in this country. It has 6 Auxiliaries in India and an Agency in Burma. The first Auxiliary was established in Calcutta, in 1811, then followed the Bombay Auxiliary in 1813, the Madras Auxiliary in 1820, the North-India Auxiliary in 1845, the Punjab Auxiliary in 1863, the Bangalore Auxiliary in 1875, while the Burma Agency was founded in 1899. The Bible or some portion of it is now to be had in over 100 different Indian languages and dialects and the circulation throughout India and Burma reached 1,120,422 issues in 1932. The Bibles, Testaments, and Por-

tions in the various vernaculars are sold at rates which the very poorest can pay, and at considerable loss to the Society. Grants of English Scriptures are made to Students who pass University examinations, as under:—

The New Testament and Psalms to Matriculates and the Bible to Graduates.

Portions of Scriptures in the important vernaculars have been prepared in raised type for the use of the Blind and large grants of money are annually given to the different Missions, to enable them to carry on Colportage and Bible Women's work. Besides the British and Foreign Bible Society, there is Bible work carried on in India, and Burma in a much smaller way by the Bible Translation Society—which is connected with the Baptist Missionary Society—the National Bible Society of Scotland, the American Bible Society and the Tranquebar Tamil Bible Society.

The following table shows the growth in the British & Foreign Bible Society's work during the past few years in India and Burma:—

TABLE OF CIRCULATION OF THE B.F.B.S. IN INDIA.

Auxiliaries.	1932.	1931.	1930.	1929.	1928.	1927.
Calcutta	250,744	211,040	174,833	204,336	230,496	174,924
Bombay	206,019	185,720	197,193	191,151	197,049	169,593
Madras	254,504	261,549	264,675	272,403	239,852	223,125
Bangalore	25,624	18,007	22,179	36,355	29,251	68,936
North India	203,756	153,403	212,457	193,539	198,898	154,272
Punjab	89,696	90,212	173,020	120,721	162,560	106,628
Burma	90,079	85,973	79,506	79,140	74,898	78,613
Total ..	1,120,422	1,005,904	1,123,863	1,097,645	1,133,004	976,091

These returns do not include the copies which any Auxiliary has supplied to London or to any other Auxiliaries during the year.

General Secretary for India, Ceylon: The Rev. J. S. M.Hooper, M.A., Mayo Road, Nagpur, C. P.

BRITISH INDIAN PEOPLES' ASSOCIATION.—To protect the interests of Domiciled Europeans, Anglo-Indians and Indians alike. *President*: Raja Rishee Case Law, C.I.E., *Hony. Secretary*: Dr. H. W. B. Moreno, Ph.D. *Office*: St. Thomas' Mansion, 25-1, Elliott Road, Calcutta.

BRITISH MEDICAL ASSOCIATION (Bombay Branch).—Founded 1886, to promote Medical and the Allied Sciences and the maintenance of the honour and interests of the Medical Profession. *Secretary*: Dr. B. B. Yodh, Rawal Building, Lamington Road, Bombay.

CALCUTTA CHESS SOCIETY.—To encourage Chess and Chess contests, open to all. *Patrons*: J. R. Capablanca and Sir W. E. Greaves, Kt., LL.D. *President*: The Hon'ble Mr. Justice M. N. Mukerji, M.A., B.L., *Vice-President*: Dr. H. W. B. Moreno, *Hon. Secretary*: G. Dhara, *Hon. Treasurer*: B. B. Gosh, 93, Lower Circular Road, Calcutta.

CHILDREN'S AID SOCIETY was established in 1927 to help forward the operation of the Bombay Children Act by taking over responsibility for the maintenance of the Umarkhadi Children's Remand Home, for the organisation of inquiry work regarding the cases of boys and girls dealt with by the Juvenile Court, for the upkeep of a Junior Reformatory School for boys under 12, and for the co-ordination of work done by voluntary supervision workers appointed by the Court. The Society is a private charitable organisation with a grant-in-aid from Government. Its work lies amongst destitute children hailing from all parts of India, juvenile offenders less than 16 years of age and children offended against by adult persons. *President*: H. E. The Rt. Hon. Sir Frederick Sykes, P.C., *Vice-President*: The Hon. Mr. R. D. Bell, C.I.E., I.C.S. *Chairman*: Mr. C. P. Bramble, *Actg. Hon. Treasurer*: Mr. Meyer Nissim; *Secretary*: Miss M. K. Davis.

EUROPEAN ASSOCIATION.—The European Association was established in 1883 under the title of the European and Anglo-Indian Defence Association and was re-established in 1912 under the title of the European Defence Association, but the present title was adopted in 1913. The Association has for its major object the organisation of European influence in the political life of India. The Head Offices (Central Administration) are at 17, Stephen Court, Park Street, Calcutta. *President*: Lt.-Col. C. S. Steele-Perkins, *Vice-President*: Sir Hugh Cocke, *General Secretary*: Mr. C. H. Witherington, *Assistant General Secretary*: Mr. H. L. Walker, *Hon. General Treasurer*: Mr. G. B. Morton. *Publication*: "The Review of India" obtainable from the *General Secretary*.

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INDIAN ASSOCIATION FOR THE CULTIVATION FO SCIENCE (Calcutta).—*Honorary Secretary*, Prof. Dr. K. S. Krishnan, D.Sc., 210, Bow Bazar Street, Calcutta.

INDIAN CHEMICAL SOCIETY.—Was founded in 1924 with Sir P. C. Ray as *President*, located in the University College of Science buildings, 92, Upper Circular Road, Calcutta. Prof. Dr. N. R. Dhar, *President*; Sir P. C. Ray, Dr. Gilbert J. Fowler, Prof. Dr. B. K. Singh, Prof. Dr. J. N. Mukerji, Prof. Dr. H. E. Watson, Prof. Dr. S. S. Bhatnagar, and Prof. Dr. H. K. Sen, *Vice-Presidents:* Mr. P. Ray, *Hon. Secretary;* Prof. Dr. P. Neogi, *Hon. Treasurer;* Prof. Dr. J. C. Ghosh and Prof. Dr. A. C. Sircar, *Hony. Editors:* Dr. Mata Prasad, Prof. Dr. H. B. Dunnicliff, Prof. Dr. B. B. Dey, Prof. Dr. J. N. Ray, Prof. Dr. K. H. Hassan, Dr. U. N. Brahmachari, Dr. H. L. Roy, Rev. Father J. Van Neste, Rao Bahadur M. R. Ramaswami Sivan, Dr. J. K. Chowdhury, Dr. S. Dutt, Prof. Dr. Sudhamoy Ghosh, Prof. Dr. P. C. Guha, Prof. Dr. R. F. Hunter, Dr. A. N. Kappanna, Mr. P. S. MacMohan, Prof. Dr. A. R. Normand, Prof. Dr. B. Sanjiva Rao, Prof. Dr. R. C. Ray, and Dr. P. B. Sarkar, *Members of the Council:* Mr. G. Banerjee, *Asst. Secretary;* Dr. S. Choudhury, and Mr. D. Chakravarti, *Asst. Editors.*

Bombay Branch: Dr. Mata Prasad, *President;* Mr. R. C. Shah and Mr. S. M. Mehta, *Joint Secretaries.*

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Madras Branch: Mr. H. E. Watson, *President;* Dr. A. S. Mannady Nair, Dr. K. L. Moudgill and Rao Bahadur B. Viswanath, *Hony. Secretaries.*

The Society publishes a monthly Journal dealing with original researches in Chemistry in India. Subscription to Fellows: Rs. 15, Non-Fellows Rs. 16. Fellowship is open to graduates of Chemistry and to those who are interested with the progress of Chemistry. Particulars and Election form can be had from the *Hony. Secretary*, Indian Chemical Society, P. O. Box 10857, 92, Upper Circular Road, Calcutta.

INDIAN INSTITUTE OF POLITICAL AND SOCIAL SCIENCE.—Founded on 30th March 1917 to promote a systematic study of political and social science in general and Indian political and social problems in particular in all their aspects taking the terms 'political' and 'social' in their widest sense; to organise free and well-informed discussions on current political and social topics as well as on abstract political and social questions; to formulate considered views on current political and social questions; to publish literature and make representations from time to time on questions arising or necessary to be raised in the interest of the public; and to form and maintain a library for the promotion of the above objects. Office: Servants of India Society, Sandhurst Road, Girgaum, Bombay. *President:* M. A. Jinnah, Bar-at-Law; *Vice-Presidents:* Mr. Jamnadas M. Mehta, Bar-at-Law, M.L.A., Mr. Bhulabhai J. Desai, M.A., LL.B., Advocate; *Hon. Secretaries:* Mr. S. G. Warty, M.A., and Mr. Mavji Govindji; *Treasurer:* Mr. V. R. Bhende.

INDIAN LEAGUE OF NATIONS UNION.—(Central Committee).—His Highness the Maharaja of Bikaner, (*President*); Mr. U. N. Sen (*Hon. Secretary and Treasurer*); The Hon. Sir George Schuster, K.C.B.; The Hon. Sir B. N. Mitra, K.C.S.I.; Sir John Thompson, K.C.I.E.; Sir Lancelot Graham, K.C.I.E.; Mr. J. D. Birla; Mr. C. K. Roy, C.I.E.; Miss Norah Hill, and Mr. P. Mukherji; *Hon. Secretary:* Mr. U. N. Sen, 4, Underhill Lane, Civil Lines, Delhi.

INDIAN LEAGUE OF NATIONS UNION.—*President:* H. H. The Maharaja of Bikaner, *Hon. Secretary:* Mr. U. N. Sen, 4 Underhill Lane, Civil Lines, Delhi; or Associated Press of India, Hotel Cecil, Simla.

DELHI.—Hon Sec. The Rev. J. C. Chatterjee, M.A., 17, Roshanara Mansions, Delhi.

KALIMPONG.—*Hon. Secretary*, Miss Hebbington Lal Kothi, Kalimpong.

SRINAGAR.—*Hon. Secretary:* Dr. Ernest Neave, Srinagar.

AMRITSAR.—*Hon. Secretary:* Mr. G. R. Sathi, Hall Gate, Amritsar.

SIMLA.—*Hon. Secretary:* Mr. S. V. Haldipur, M.B.E., B.A., LL.B., Kelvin Grove, Simla.

LUCKNOW.—*Hon. Secretary:* Dr. V. S. Ram, Lucknow University, Lucknow.

BOMBAY.—*Hon. Secretary:* Mr. M. V. Venkateswaran, League of Nations Union, Bombay 1.

INDIAN MATHEMATICAL SOCIETY.—Founded in 1907 for the advancement of Mathematical studies in India. It conducts a bi-monthly journal in which papers on mathematical subjects are published and maintains a library with current mathematical periodicals in all languages and new books on the subject. The library is located in the Fergusson College, Poona, whence the journals and books are circulated to members by post. The journal of the Society is published in Madras. There are about 385 members from all parts of India. *President*: Rao Bahadur P. V. Seshu Aiyar, I.E.S. (Retd.), Peruvemba Palghat. *Secretaries*: Dr. R. Vaidyanathaswamy, M.A., D.Sc., University, Madras, and Prof. S. B. Belekar, M.A., Professor of Mathematics, College of Science, Nagpur. *Librarian*: Prof. V. B. Naik, M.A., Professor of Mathematics, Fergusson College, Poona.

INDIAN ROADS AND TRANSPORT DEVELOPMENT ASSOCIATION LTD.—The Association was formed in 1926 and registered in October 1927, having a Council with Headquarters in Bombay and Branches at Calcutta, Bombay, Madras, Karachi, Assam, Lahore and Rangoon, each with a Local Committee.

The subscription for membership of the Association are:—

	Per annum
	Rs.
Associate Members	5
Ordinary Members	10
Supporting Members	300

The aims and objects of the Association are to promote the cause of Road and Motor Transport Development throughout India by making representations to the Government of India, Governments of Provinces, District Boards and other public bodies concerned, regarding the construction, improvement and maintenance of roads and bridges and methods of transport; to make representations to all or any of the bodies regarding the adjustment of taxation, customs duties and excise effecting motor vehicles and other modes of transport and employment of same in such a manner as to facilitate the development of motor transport throughout India; to educate the public by means of propaganda work and to create authoritative public opinion with regard to the needs of, and advantages to be derived from improved road communication and use of motor transport.

All persons, associations, firms or companies interested in Road and Motor Transport Development and their problems are eligible for election as members.

The present constitution of the Council of the Association is:—

President: The Hon'ble Mr. E. Miller, J.P.; *Vice-President*: H. E. Ormerod, Esq., J.P. *Members of Council*: J. C. Reed, Esq.; Major-General Sir Reginald Ford, K.C.M.G., C.B., D.S.O.; S. Guevrek, Esq.; Sir Ness Wadia, K.B.E., C.I.E., J.P.; R. J. Watson, Esq.; Sir Hugh G. Cocke, A.C.A., J.P.; J. Humphrey, Esq., O.B.E., M.L.C.; Nurmahomed M. Chinoy, Esq., J.P.; H. S. Sayer, Esq.; T. R. S. Kynnersley, Esq.; R. D. Fraser, Esq., and H. LeRoy, Esq.; *General Secretary*: Lieut.-Colonel H. C. Smith, O.B.E., M.C.

Branches are already in existence in Bombay, Calcutta, Madras, Karachi, Assam, Lahore, and Rangoon and others will be formed as and when occasion demands. The application for membership should be made to the General Secretary of the Association at 41, Nicol Road, Ballard Estate, Bombay, or to the Secretaries of the Branches:—

Bombay—P.O. Box No. 853.
Karachi—P.O. Box No. 168.
Lahore—P. O. Box No. 165.
Calcutta—P.O. Box No. 2285.
Madras—P. O. Box No. 1270.
Rangoon—P. O. Box No. 333.
Assam—P. O. Mohanaghat.

INDIAN SOCIETY OF ORIENTAL ART (Calcutta)—*President*: Sir Rajendra Nath Mookerjee, Kt., K.C.I.E., K.C.V.O.; *Vice-Presidents*: The Hon'ble Raja Sir Monmotha Nath Roy Chowdhury of Santosh, Kt.; Mr. J. N. Basu, M.A., M.L.C., and Mr. G. N. Tagore; *Joint Hony. Secretaries*: Mr. P. N. Tagore and Mr. N. N. Tagore; *Hony. Treasurer*: Rai F. L. De, Bahadur; *Asst. Secretary*: Mr. P. K. Chatterjee. *Office*: 11, Samavaya Mansions, 1st Floor, Calcutta.

INDIA SUNDAY SCHOOL UNION.—The India Sunday School Union is an interdenominational organisation having for its object the strengthening of religious and moral education in the Christian schools throughout the Indian Empire. It has six full time workers, both Indian and European. It was founded in Allahabad in 1876. Its General Committee is composed of representatives from the National Christian Council, from the Provincial Representative Councils and from local Sunday School Unions which are Auxiliaries of the I.S.S.U.

The headquarters of the Union are at Coonoor on the Nilgiri Hills, where besides the office and well-stocked book shop, there is the St. Andrew Teacher Training Institution. In this institution Summer Schools are held where a short but intensive course of study and training is offered to leaders in religious education from all parts of India.

Besides the activities at headquarters, the Union offers courses of lectures in any part of the country, delivered by members of its staff. A Quarterly Journal is published in English, and Lesson Notes for teachers in English and several vernaculars. Text books on subjects connected with the work of Bible teaching are also published in various languages, and Scripture examinations are organised.

The officers of the Union are as follows:—

President: Rev. A. Ralla Ram, B.A., Allahabad; *Treasurers*: W. H. Warren, Madras, and J. G. Fritschi, Coonoor.; *General Secretary*: E. A. Annett, Coonoor; *Assistant Secretary*: Rev. N. Franklin, Madras.

The most recent statistics show that there are in India 18,322 Sunday Schools with 30,428 teachers, and 707,204 scholars.

INSTITUTION OF ENGINEERS (INDIA).—The organisation of the Institution began in 1919 and it was inaugurated by H. E. Lord Chelmsford early in 1921. Its object is to promote and advance the science, practice and business of engineering in India on the same lines as are adopted by the Institutions of Civil, Mechanical and Electrical Engineers in the United Kingdom. The standard of qualification is the same. Membership is divided into four classes, *viz.*, Members, Associate Members, Companions and Associates, and there is an additional class for students. *President:* Dr. A. Jardine, D.Sc., M.I.E. (Ind.), *Offg. Secretary:* S. K. Banerjee. *Offices:* 241-1-1, Lower Circular Road, P. O. Box No. 669, Calcutta.

MADRAS FINE ARTS SOCIETY.—*Patron:* H. E. The Governor of Madras; *President:* The Lady Beatrix Stanley; *Vice-President:* K. Kay, Esq.; *Hon. Secretary:* S. H. Slater, Esq., C.M.G., C.I.E., I.C.S.; C/o Development Secretariat, Fort St. George, Madras.

MADRAS LITERARY SOCIETY AND AUXILIARY OF THE ROYAL ASIATIC SOCIETY.—*Patrons:* H. E. Lt.-Col. Rt. Hon. Sir George Frederick Stanley, P.C., G.C.I.E., C.M.G., and the Lord Bishop of Madras; *President:* The Hon. Mr. Justice G. H. B. Jackson, M.A., I.C.S.; *Hony. Secretary:* M. Ruthnaswamy, Esq., M.A., Bar-at-Law, and *Librarian:* U. S. Phanuel. *Address:* College Road, Nungumbakam, Madras.

NATIONAL HORSE BREEDING AND SHOW SOCIETY OF INDIA.—Formed in 1923, by Major-General Sir Bernard James, C.B., C.I.E., M.V.O., who was President from 1923 to 1925. Objects: To form a national body of public opinion on horse-breeding matters; to encourage and promote horse-breeding in India; to protect and promote the interests of horse-breeders and to give them every encouragement; to improve and standardise the various types of horses bred in India; to prepare an Indian stud book; and to promote uniformity in all matters connected with horse shows in India. *Patron-in-Chief:* H. E. The Viceroy; *President* (for 1933-34): Brigadier Sir Terence Keyes, K.C.I.E., C.S.I., C.M.G. *Secretary:* Major-General Sir Bernard James, C.B., C.I.E., M.V.O. The Society issues the following publications: "Horse Breeding." An Illustrated Quarterly Journal in English, Station Register and Supplement, Indian Stud Book, Record of Country Breed Racing, Show Judging Pamphlet. The Second Volume of the Indian Stud Book was published at the end of 1930. The Society holds the Imperial Delhi Horse Show annually in February. *Registered Office*—Delhi.

NATIONAL INDIAN ASSOCIATION.—Founded in 1870. Its objects are:—(*a*) To extend in England, knowledge of India, and interest in the people of that country. (*b*) To co-operate with all efforts made for advancing Education and Social reform in India. (*c*) To promote friendly intercourse between English people and the people of India. In all the proceedings of the Association the principle of non-interference in religion and avoidance of political controversy is strictly maintained. It has branches in Bombay, Madras, Ahmedabad, Nagpur and Calcutta. *Hon. Secretary,* Miss Beck, 21, Cromwell-road, London. Publication: *The Indian Magazine and Review,* (8 numbers a year) which chronicles the doings of the Association in England and in India, and takes note of movements for educational and social progress. It publishes articles about the East to interest Western readers, and articles about the West to interest readers in the East. *Life Memebers*—Ten Guineas. Annual Subscriptions: Members one Guinea; County Members, Ten Shillings; Associate Students, Seven shillings and Six pence.

PASSENGERS' AND TRAFFIC RELIEF ASSOCIATION. (Established in 1915). *Head Office*—Albert Building, Hornby Road, Fotr, Bombay. Objects: (*a*) To inquire into and ascertain grievances with respect to passengers in India generally. (*b*) To petition Government, Local bodies, Railway, Steamers and other companies carrying passengers and traffic; to take all proper and necessary steps to obtain redress with regard to the said grievances. (*c*) To hold periodical meetings and discuss questions relating to grievances. (*d*) To start a fund to meet expenses for carrying out the objects of the Association. *President.*—L. R. Tairsee, *Vice-Presidents.*—Behram N. Karanjia, J.P., and Sheth Lachhmandas Daga, *Hon. Jt. Secretaries.*—Khan Bahadur P. E. Ghamat and Gordhandas G. Morarji. *Asst. Secretary.*—M. M. Raiji.

PHILATELIC SOCIETY OF INDIA.—Formed March 1897; Annual subscription Rs. 10. *Secretary,* Jno. Godinho, 15, Burrow's Street, Bombay.

PHOTOGRAPHIC SOCIETY OF INDIA (Calcutta):—Annual subscription Rs. 30 (Town members) and Rs. 15 (Mofussil members). Entrance fee Rs. 20 and Rs. 10. The Society is affiliated to the Royal Photographic Society of Great Britain, London, and holds annual exhibitions, distributes a monthly journal to members, and undertakes developing, printing and enlarging work from its members only. There are excellent work-rooms apparatus and reading room at the Society's Headquarters at 229, Lower Circular Road, Calcutta. *Hon. Secretary:* A. Hearn, 229, Lower Circular Road, Calcutta.

POONA SEVA SADAN SOCIETY.—This Institution was started in 1909 by the late Mrs. Ramabai Ranade, Mr. G. K. Devadhar, and a few other ladies and gentlemen in Poona and registered in 1917. It is now working independently though for a few years in the beginning it was conducted as a branch of the Bombay Seva Sadan. Its main object is to make women self-reliant and to train them for missionary work undertaking educational and medical activities for their sisters and brethren, especially the former in backward areas and working on a non-sectarian basis. Nominal fees are now being charged for instruction in all classes. There are eight different departments sub-divided into 60 classes. Arrangements are made for training Nurses and Midwives and women Sub-Assistant Surgeons at the Sassoon Hospitals, Poona, and a hostel is maintained for the former and another for those attending the Sub-Assistant

Surgeon's Classes. There is a Public Health School affiliated to the Lady Chelmsford League for Maternity and Child Welfare, Delhi, with a hostel. The number in these three hostels is now about 85. Besides, there is a full-fledged Training College, named after Bai Motlibai Wadia with about 65 students excluding those in the V. F. Class for being trained as Mistresses for Vernacular schools. This College is probably the only college in India maintained by a non-official, non-Christian missionary body teaching the full course. The results of the Certificate Examinations held in the year 1931-32 under the authority of the local Government Training College for Women were as follows : I year senior B and II year 7. The total number of certificates granted so far is 350 now. The Practising Schools for little girls attached to the Training College has now eleven classes with 290 students reading up to the Marathi VI Standard, English being taught in the V and VI standard classes. Primary Classes for grown up women teaching up to the Marathi V Standard are attended by about 100 women. It is here that poor women are recruited for their training as a teacher, nurse, midwife, or doctor. Special classes for teaching English, First Aid, Home Nursing were attended by about 90 students ; the Music Classes by 30 students, and the Work-room Classes for teaching Sewing, Embroidery, Hosiery, Composing, Weaving, etc., by 130 Women. Thus, the total number of pupils is about 990 to-day. There are two branches of the Society started at Satara and Baramati which are named after Lady Vithaldas Thakersey, the wife of the greatest helper of the Society so far, the late Sir Vithaldas D. Thakersey. Besides there are branches started at Bombay (Dadar and Girgaum), Sholapur, Ahmednagar Alibag, Nasik, Nagpur, and Gwalior for either educational or medical work or for both. Thus the total number of women and girls including about 150 duplications on the rolls at these various Centres of the Society is over 1,500. There are in Poona five hostels, three of which are located at the headquarters and the other two in the Somwar Peth for Nurses, etc., under training at the Sassoon Hospital. The number of resident students is above 200 in these five hostels. One of the three hostels at the headquarters is intended for women of depressed classes. The number of these women at present is 8. In connection with the medical branch a Committee has been formed in England, which will enable the Society to send fully qualified Nurses there to undergo further training. Two fully qualified Nurses have so far been sent by the Society for their post graduate course in Public Health Nursing at Bedford College for women, London, with the partial help of a scholarship of the League of Red Cross Society, Paris. There is an active Infant Welfare centre and ante-natal clinics with the average daily attendance of 50 excluding expectant mothers. The Society has extended its medical activities in Bombay by undertaking, with the help of two charitable Trusts in Bombay, to work out the scheme of Maternity, Infant Welfare, Child Welfare and General Nursing for the women and children of the Bhatia Community under the supervision of Mr. G. K. Devadhar, the organiser of the society. This scheme has a Maternity Hospital and Nursing Home, and three Infant Welfare centres. Besides, there are Maternity Hospitals and Nursing Homes at Ahmednagar, Alibag, Nasik, and Sholapur under the management of the society in connection with other organizations. Now Her Excellency the Countess of Irwin, the Countess of Reading, Lady Wilson, Lady Lloyd, Lady Willingdon, Lady Sydenham and Lady Chelmsford are Hon. Patronesses. The institution is largely dependent upon public contributions and Government assistance. The annual expenditure of the whole organization now exceeds Rs. 2,50,000. *President :* Shrimant Saubhagyavati H.H. the Ranisaheb of Sangli ; *Honorary Organiser and General Secretary :* Mr. Gopal Krishna Devadhar, M.A., C.I.E.; *Local Secretary and Treasurer :* Mrs. Yamunabai Bhat ; *Lady Superintendent and Secretary for Development and Collections :* Mrs. Janakibai Bhat (Kaiser-i-Hind Silver Medal) ; *Joint Lady Superintendents :* Mrs. Saralabai Naik, M.A., and Miss Dwarkabai Bhat, B.A., B.T. ; *Hon : Secretaries, Nursing and Medical Education Committee : Joint Hon. Secretaries :* Dr. V. C. Gokhale, L.M.&S.; Dr. N. L. Ranade, B.A., M.B.B.S., and Dr. V. R. Dhamdhere, M.B.B.S.

PRESS-OWNERS' ASSOCIATION, Bombay—Started on 30th April 1919 to promote the interests of the printing and litho presses and allied trades, to bring about harmony and co-operation among press owners and proprietors and to take such steps as may be necessary in furtherance of the above objects.

Office:—Gaiwadi, Girgaum, Bombay 4.
President:—Shet Pandurang Javjee, J.P.
Secretary:—Mr. Manilal C. Modi.

RANGOON LITERARY SOCIETY.—*Patron :* H.E. The Governor of Burma ; *President :* J. M. Symns, Esq., M.A., I.E.S., Director of Public Instruction ; *Vice-President :* Dr. H. B. Osborn, *Hon. Secretary :* Mrs. C. Peacock, 35, York Road.

RECREATION CLUB INSTITUTE.—This Institution was started in 1912-13 by the members of the Ismaily Dharmic (religious) Library in Bombay. Its central office is in Bombay with branches at Ahmedabad, Ahmednagar, Karachi, Hyderabad (Sindh), Poona, Warangal, etc. The aims and objects of the society are to elevate and improve the social, economic and spiritual condition of the depressed and poor classes of people and with that intent to found primary schools, associations and such departments and to take all constructive means to achieve the above objects. The Institute has 2 orphanages with 150 inmates, industrial works, domestic industries, sales depots, clubs, libraries, etc. It also issues two Anglo-Vernacular papers, The *Ismaily* (a weekly) and The *Nizari* (a monthly). *Hon. Secretary*, Mr. Hasan Lalj, Devraj.

ROYAL SOCIETY OF ARTS, INDIAN SECTION.—This Society was founded in London in 1754. Its recently published history by Sir Henry Trueman Wood, late Secretary of the Society, gives the following account of

the Indian Section. In 1857 a proposition was made by Mr. Hyde Clarke, who wrote to the Council suggesting that "a special section be formed for India, another for Australia, one for English America and so on." It was suggested that the Indian Section should meet once a fortnight for the reading of papers. Nothing came of the suggestion until ten years later when Mr. Hyde Clarke returned to England, and in 1868 he renewed his proposal, but only proposing the formation of a Committee which should organise conferences on Indian subjects. This time the suggestion was taken up more warmly. Mr. Hyde Clarke himself was placed on the Council, and the Indian Conferences, which soon developed into the Indian Section, were started. "The Indian Section thus established became a most important department of the Society. It has had great results in India by spreading information as to the directions which the development of Indian manufactures and Indian products could most usefully take, and in England by giving similar information as to the industrial resources and progress of India itself. The Section has received great help from the Indian press and it has in return been of service to the Indian press in supplying useful information to it. It has been of great value to the Society itself as the means by which many members have been added to its list, so that in fact, thanks to a very large extent to the work of the Indian Section and of the allied section for the Dominions and Colonies, a large proportion of the present number of members come from the dependencies of the Empire abroad." *Secretary of the Society:* G. K. Menzies, C.B.E., M.A.; *Secretary of the Indian and Dominions and Colonies Sections:* W. Perry, B.A., I.C.S. (retired) 18, John Street, Adelphi, London, W. C. 2.

SERVANTS OF INDIA SOCIETY.—The Servants of India Society, founded by the late Hon. Mr. G. K. Gokhale in 1905, is a body of men who are pledged to devote all their lives to the service of the country on such allowances as the Society may be able to give. Its objects are to train national missionaries for the service of India and to promote, by all constitutional means the interests of the Indian people. Its present strength is 21 Ordinary members, 8 members under training, 2 permanent assistants, 1 Attache and 1 probationer. The Society has its headquarters in Poona with branches at Madras, Bombay, Allahabad and Nagpur and other centres of work at Dohad in Gujerat; Mayanur, Coimbatore, Mangalore and Calicut in the Madras Presidency; Lucknow in U. P., Lahore in the Punjab and Cuttack in Bihar and Orissa.

The Society's work is primarily political but as it believes in all round progress of the Indian people, it has always laid equal emphasis on social, economic, educational, labour and depressed class activities and has worked in these fields. The political work is done through the legislatures, the non-official political organizations, deputations to foreign countries and propaganda. The Right Hon. V. S. Srinivasa Sastri was in the old Imperial Legislative Council and in the new Council of State till 1924 and has to his credit many achievements. Pandit Hirday Nath Kunzru was a member of the U. P. Legislative Council and of the Legislative Assembly. He takes special interest in the questions of the Indianisation of Army, public services, education and Indians overseas. Mr. N. M. Joshi has been a nominated member of the Assembly since 1921 and has to his credit many a labour legislation. Mr. N. A. Dravid was for three years a member of the C. P. Council. Mr. Joshi was a member of Bombay Municipal Corporation and Mr. R. R. Bakhale a member of the Board of the Port of Bombay for a short period. Mr. Kunzru has been the General Secretary of the National Liberal Federation of India, and Messrs. Joshi, S. P. Andrews, Dube and K. P. Kaul are Secretaries of its Provincial branches and have all done the work of organising political conferences. Messrs. Sastri and Kunzru were members of the Liberal Party's deputation to England during the Reforms period of 1919-20. Mr. Sastri again toured some of the Dominions in 1921 on behalf of the Government of India to secure legitimate rights for Indians there; attended as India's representative the Assembly of the League of Nations and the Washington Naval Disarmament Conference; went to England in 1923 as a Leader of the Kenya Deputation of the Indian Legislature; went in 1927 to South Africa as Agent-General of the Government of India under the now famous Cape Town Agreement for eighteen months; and lastly went to Kenya in 1929 on behalf of Government to place the Kenya Indian's case before Sir Samuel Wilson. His achievements in South Africa are a marvel to the world and brought the White and Indian communities together. Mr. Kunzru went in 1929 to Kenya to preside over the East African Congress and to England as the spokesman of the Kenya Indians to put their case before the British Government. Mr. P. Kodand Rao was in South Africa with Mr. Sastri and in Kenya with Mr. Kunzru and has mastered the question of Indians there. Mr. Joshi was a member of the Nehru Committee which is the author of the now famous Nehru Report on Constitutional Reforms. Messrs. Sastri and Joshi were members of the Round Table Conference and Mr. Joshi of the Consultative Committee and a Delegate to the Joint Select Committee.

In the field of social economic and educational work, the Society's activities are equally varied. Some of its members are practically the founders of such institutions as the Poona Seva Sadan, Bombay and Madras Social Service Leagues, the U. P. Seva Samiti, the Bhil Seva Mandal catering for the needs and uplift of the aboriginal tribes in Gujerat. The Seva Sadan has been a model institution for the education of women which gives training to over 1,500 girls and women in all useful directions. It has many branches in different parts of India carrying on social and educational work. The Social Service League has done good co-operative, educational and welfare work for the mill workers in Bombay by starting Co-operative Societies, adult night and technical schools and conducting welfare centres. The Seva Samiti is an unique organization in Upper India

doing service to the pilgrims going to religious places such as Hardwar and Benares, and working in times of epidemics. Its Boy Scouts organization is a well-knit body recognised both by the public and Government. Mr. Chitalia conducts the Bhagini Samaj for social educational work among the Gujarati ladies. The Society has been conducting a model Depressed Class Mission in Mangalore and the Devadhar Malabar Reconstruction Trust activities at Calicut. In the Co-operative movement the Society has done the pioneering work in the Bombay and Madras presidencies. During natural calamities such as floods, famines and epidemics, the Society has done relief work in every part of India. By its work in the Moplah rebellion, the Society has become a household name in Malabar. Mr. Sastri was for many years a member of the Madras University Senate. Mr. Kunzru is a member of the Allahabad and Benares University Senates and Syndicates and Mr. Dube, a member of the Lucknow University Court and of the Lucknow District Local Board.

The Society has taken equally prominent part in various labour activities. Messrs. Joshi and Bakhale have been General and Assistant Secretaries of the All-India Trade Union Congress since 1925 and are greatly responsible for the shape given to the labour movement and for the organisational work particularly in Bombay. They have been President and General Secretary of the Bombay Textile Labour Union since 1926 and have conducted many Textile strikes. Mr. Joshi attended five times the International Labour Conference at Washington and Geneva as Indian Worker's Delegate and the British Commonwealth Labour Conference in 1925. Mr. Bakhale went to Europe in 1928 to attend on behalf of Indian Labour, the Geneva International Labour Conference, the British Commonwealth Labour Conference, the International Textile Worker's Congress, the Labour and Socialist International Congress and the British Trades Union Congress. He studied the Trade Union movement in Great Britain, Germany and Russia. Mr. Parulekar and a few other members of the Society are doing similar labour work. Messrs. Sastri and Joshi were members of the Royal Commission on Indian Labour.

The Society conducts three papers.—The *Servant of India*, an English weekly of which Mr. P. Kodanda Rao is Editor, the *Dnyan Prakash*, the oldest Marathi daily of which Mr. Limaye is the Editor and the *Hitawad*, a bi-weekly. Mr. Parulekar conducts the *All-India Trade Union Bulletin*, and Mr. A. V. Patwardhan, the *Sansthani Swaraj*, a Marathi weekly for the benefit of the subjects of Indian States. The Society has also published several pamphlets on public questions of the day.

The question of the subjects of the Indian States has also engaged the attention of the Society and some of its members, particularly Messrs. A. V. Patwardhan, S. G. Vaze, and A. V. Thakkar are devoting a part of their energies for that work.

Mr. G. K. Devadhar, M.A., C.I.E., is the President and Mr. H. N. Kunzru, is the Vice-President and Mr. P. Kodanda Rao, the Secretary. Messrs. V Venkatasubbaiya, Joshi, Kunzru and Dravid are senior members of the four branches.

The Society is a non-communal, non-sectarian body which does not recognise any caste distinctions.

SEVA SADAN.—The Seva Sadan Society was started on the 11th of July 1908, by the late Mr. B. M. Malabari and Mr. Dayaram Gidumal. It is the pioneer Indian ladies' society for training Indian sisters ministrant and serving (through them) the poor, the sick and the distressed. To spread its Gospel far and wide, the first branch was opened at Poona as early as 1909. The Society has its headquarters in Gamdevi, Bombay. The Society maintains the following departments of work: (1) Home for the Homeless: (2) Ashrams (Training Homes); (3) Marathi Normal Classes with a primary School: (4) Home Education Classes; (5) Industrial Department including a workroom, Sewing, Cutting, Hosiery, Cooking and Pastry and machine and hand Embroidery are among the chief industries taught. Total number of women in the different classes is nearly 300.

Secretary, Miss B. A. Engineer, M.A., LL.B., M.B.E., J.P.

CONSUMPTIVES' HOMES SOCIETY.—This Society was started by the late Mr. B. M. Malabari and Mr. Dayaram Gidumal on the 1st of June 1909. It was registered under Act XXI of 1860. Mr. Malabari secured a large grant of land in a Himalayan pine forest in Dharampur (Simla Hills) from H. H. the Maharaja of Patiala, for a Sanatorium for Consumptives. His Highness also gave a donation of Rs. one lakh. In 1911 by special permission the Sanatorium was named "The King Edward VII Sanatorium." The Sanatorium has its special water works known as the Lady Hardinge Water Works, presented by the late Sir Chinubhai Madhavlal, Bart., of Ahmedabad. The Sanatorium has a Guest House: The Noshirwan Adul Guest House for visitors to Dharampore. It has accommodation for 90 patients including the special Punjab Block built from a grant of the Punjab Government and reserved for European patients. Most of the blocks and cottages are built by Parsis. The Sanatorium has its own dairy and is called the Bai Pirojbai R. H. Patuck Dairy. The Recreation Hall is called "The Sir Bhupinder Singh Recreation Hall" after the name of the Maharaja of Patiala. Mr. Malabari collected an Endowment Fund of about Rs. 67,000 lodged with the Treasurer, Charitable Endowments, under Act VI of 1890. Nearly Rs. 2,87,000 have been spent on laying out the sites, buildings, etc., and the current annual expenditure is about Rs. 56,000. The Senior and Junior Medical Officers are in charge of the Sanatorium. The Office of this Society is situated at the Seva Sadan Buildings, Gamdevi, Bombay. Mr. S. P. Wadia is the Hon. Secretary and Diwan Bahadur K. M. Jhaveri is the Hon. Treasurer.

SOCIETY FOR THE PROTECTION OF CHILDREN IN WESTERN INDIA.—Office and Homes at King's Circle, Matunga.

Founded—To prevent the public and private wrongs of children and the corruption of their morals; to take action for the enforcement of the laws for their protection, and, if necessary,

to suggest new laws or amendments of the existing laws; to provide and maintain an organization for these objects; to promote education; and to do all other lawful things incidental or conducive to the attainment of the foregoing objects. Subscription for annual membership, Rs. 10; for Life Membership, Rs. 100. *President*: Dr. Sir Temuji B. Nariman, Kt.

Honorary Secretaries: Dr. Mrs. D. A. D'Monte, Mrs. R. P. Masani and Mrs. Maneklal Premchand. *Hon. Treasurer*: Khan Bahadur H. S. Katrak.

WESTERN INDIA NATIONAL LIBERAL ASSOCIATION.—(*Founded in* 1919).—The Association was formed, in pursuance of clause (*b*) of Resolution XI of the First Session of the All-India Conference of the Moderate Party, with a view to do sustained work for the political progress and the moral and material welfare of the people; to give expression from time to time to the considered opinion of the Party on matters of public interest; and to inform and educate public opinion in this presidency in support of its views, policy and methods.

The objects of the Association are the attainment by constitutional means of full Dominion Status for India at the earliest possible date. For the promotion of these objects, the Association shall adopt constitutional methods of agitation and work and shall foster a spirit of broadminded liberalism based on principles of liberty, equality and fraternity among the different classes and communities of the people. For the fulfilment of these objects the Association shall carry on educative, and propagandist work by means of leaflets, pamphlets and other publications, (*a*) representations to Government, (*c*) meetings or conferences, lectures and all such methods as may be deemed practicable and expedient to educate public opinion, and (*d*) for advancing the interests of the Liberal Party by organising and influencing elections to the legislatures, Central and Provincial, to Municipalities and District Local Boards.

The affairs of the Association are conducted by a Council consisting of 46 members who are elected every two years.

President: Sir Chimanlal H. Setalvad, K.C.I.E., LL.D.; *Vice-Presidents*: The Hon. Sir Phiroze C. Sethna, K.T., O.B.E. and Sir Cowasji Jehangir (Jr.), K.C.I.E.; *Hon. Secretaries*: Mr. Kazi Kabiruddin, Mr. J. R. B. Jeejeebhoy and Mr. A. D. Shroff; *Assistant Secretary*: Mr. V. R. Bhende.

Office:—107, Esplanade Road, Fort, Bombay.

WOMEN'S INDIAN ASSOCIATION (PANTHEON GARDENS, EGMORE, MADRAS).—This Association was started in Adyar, Madras, in July 1917, with aims of service.

Aims and Objects:—To present to women their responsibilities as daughters of India. To secure for every girl and boy the right of Education through schemes of Compulsory Primary Education, including the teaching of religion. To secure the abolition of child-marriage and to raise the Age of Consent for married girls to sixteen. To secure for women the vote for Municipal and Legislative Councils on the same terms as it is or may be granted to men. To secure adequate representation of women on Municipalities, Taluk and Local Boards, Legislative Councils and Assemblies. To secure for women the right to vote and to be elected for the Council of State. To establish equality of rights and opportunities between men and women. To help women to realise that the future of India lies largely in their hands; for as wives and mothers they have the task of training, guiding and forming the character of the future rulers of India. To band women into groups for the purpose of self-development and education and for the definite service of others.

It has 48 branches and over 4,000 members. Each branch is autonomous and works according to the needs of the locality.

The Association grants scholarships to girls, interests women in maternity and child-welfare work in the uplift of the depressed class and in other social and welfare activities for the general betterment of Indian society; has worked successfully for securing Franchise for women in India, (see pages 93 and 94 of the Simon Report, Vol. II) and compulsory education for girls and also actually helped in the passage of Child-Marriage Restraint Act in the Assembly and the Acts for the Suppression of Traffic in women and children and the abolition of the Devadasi system, in the local legislature. Holds regular monthly meetings of women to educate them as to their duties as wives, mothers and citizens, publishes a monthly magazine titled *Stri-Dharma*, now edited by Dr. (Mrs.) Muthulakshmi Reddi, for carrying out of the above objects. The Association is an All-India body. Its largest branch being in Bombay and its branches are spread throughout India and flourishing as far as Kashmir and Lashkar. It is found that women everywhere welcome the opportunities given for their self-development and self-expression. The Association is affiliated to all the important progressive women associations in India and throughout the world. It was the initiator of the All-India Women's Conference and the First All-Asian Women's Conference at Lahore. The Madras Seva Sadan and the Madras Children's Aid Society owe their origin to the efforts of this Association.

YOUNG MEN'S CHRISTIAN ASSOCIATION.—This Association, which was founded by the late Sir George Williams in 1844, is now a world-wide movement, well established in almost every country in both the hemispheres. The aim of the Association is, through its religious, social, educational, and physical work to answer the fourfold—spiritual, social, mental and physical—needs of young men and boys.

The Young Men's Christian Association, though relatively new to India, is spreading rapidly. The 'local' Associations are autonomous and governed by local Boards of Directors. These Associations in Convention elect a National Council which is responsible for the supervision and expansion of all forms of the Association work in India, Burma and Ceylon.

There are now over 60 Associations affiliated to the National Council and many other village Associations with many thousands of members of all races and creeds. The following Associations own one or more buildings which serve as the local headquarters:—Allahabad; Alleppey; Bangalore; Bombay; Calcutta; Calicut; Coimbatore; Colombo; Delhi; Galle; Hyderabad; Jubbulpore; Kandy; Karachi; Kunnamkulam; Kottayam; Lahore; Madras; Madura; Nagpur; Naini Tal; Ootacamund; Poona; Rangoon; Risalpur; Secunderabad; Simla; Trivandrum; Wellington. The others use rented or rent-free buildings.

The work of the National Council and of the local Association is carried on by numerous voluntary workers and Committees, assisted by 85 specially trained full-time Secretaries. A feature of the Y.M.C.A. in India is the international character of its Secretariat. It is made up of 7 Americans, 2 Canadians, 5 Englishmen, 3 Scotchmen, 1 Swiss, 1 Swedish, 4 Anglo-Indians, 1 Dane, 2 Australians, 1 Burman and 58 Indians and Ceylonese.

The classes of people reached by the Indian Y.M.C.A. and the lines of service it attempts to do for them may be stated as follows:—

Generally:—1. Literature:—Publication of original works and reprints Six series: "Heritage of India;" "Religious Quest of India;" "Religious Life of India;" "Builders of Modern India;" "Education of India;" "Heritage of Ceylon;" "Women of India."

2. Lecture Bureau:—Many thousands of slides on a wide variety of educational and recreational topics serving a clientele in over 700 centres in India.

3. Physical—Training Physical Directors for schools and colleges, fostering playground movement, Olympics.

Boys:—Scouting, Boys' Clubs, Camps, etc.

Students:—Hostels and Institutes in most University Centres.

Indian students in Britain:—Specially in London, Edinburgh and Glasgow.

"Citizens":—(*i.e.*, English-educated Indians, Ceylonese and Burmese): Reading Rooms, Libraries, Lectures, Group Conferences; Study-Circles; handling many subjects of vital interest—social, intellectual and religious.

Soldiers:—Institutes and Holiday Homes for British Soldiers in a number of centres including the N. W. Frontiers.

Anglo-Indians:—Hostels, Institutes, Employment Bureaux.

Europeans:—Hostels, Institutes, Employment Bureaux.

Labourers in Mills:—"Welfare" Work.

Rural Communities.—"Rural Reconstruction" work embracing Co-operative Banking, Distribution, Cattle Insurance and Arbitration, Cottage Industries, and Adult Education in four Selected Centres.

A monthly magazine, the YOUNG MEN OF INDIA, BURMA AND CEYLON is issued at Rs. 2-8-0 per annum, including postage.

The work of the National Council (excluding that of the 50 local Y.M.C.As.) called for a Budget of Rs. 1,25,662 in 1933. Of this sum Rs. 28,790 had to be raised from the public in India.

The Headquarters of the National Council is 5, Russell Street, Calcutta. The officers are:—

Patron:—His Excellency the Earl of Willingdon, G.M.S.I., G.M.I.E., G.C.M.G., G.B.E., Viceroy and Governor-General of India.

President of the National Council:—The Most Rev. Dr. Foss Westcott, Metropolitan of India.

General Secretary:—B. L. Rallia Ram, B.Sc., B.T.

The Bombay Association now possesses four well-equipped buildings:—Wodehouse Road, Lamington Road, Rebsch Street, and Reynolds Road. The President is The Hon. Mr. Justice K. Barlee and the General Secretary is Mr. H. W. Bryant, M.B.E. In connection with each branch there is a well managed hostel providing accommodation for over 200 young men. These branches are managed by a Committee working under the Board of Directors. Each Branch organisation directs many and varied activities designed to meet the physical, spiritual, social, and mental needs of their members. A Welfare Service agency for labourers started in 1924 is now conducting eight centres, serving mill workers, Municipal menial employees, Port Trust and Railway employees. A programme of education, lectures, physical culture, play and general uplift, profitably fills up the leisure time of the workers and their families. The Association is responsible for the direction of three public playgrounds in the city, which are financed by the Municipality.

YOUNG WOMEN'S CHRISTIAN ASSOCIATION OF INDIA, BURMA AND CEYLON.—This Association founded in the year 1875 was organised nationally in 1896.

The aim of the Association is to unite women and girls of India, Burma and Ceylon in fellowship and mutual service for their spiritual, intellectual, social and physical development. The Association exists for Indian, Anglo-Indian and European girls and women. There are members in the following Branches. General 41; Student 43, and Girl Guides 12. The needs of girls are met by physical drill, recreation, clubs and classes, lectures, commercial classes, Bible study and devotional meetings, and meetings for social intercourse. Hostels, some of them holding as many as 70 girls, are established were there is a demand for them and the Association, at present, owns 21 including 8 holiday homes in the hills. These hostels accommodate working girls, teachers, nurses, students, and apprentices. Rates vary according to the residents' salaries and accommoda-

tion, though all equally receive the benefits of a comfortable home, good food and wholesome surroundings. The holiday homes provide cheap holidays in healthy surroundings and also accommodate girls who work in the hills during the hot season. In addition to holiday homes Summer Conferences are held annually at Ananda-giri, the Conference estate owned by the Association, in Ootacamund. Special Girls' Camps are arranged from time to time in many centres.

Traveller's aid work is done in the large ports, especially Colombo, and a large number of transient guests and visitors are accommodated in the Homes in these centres. The Association also runs employment bureaux through the agency of which many girls find positions. The commercial schools train girls for office and business life. These larger Associations are manned by a staff of trained secretaries, some of whom come from Great Britain, America, Australia, New Zealand and Canada. The others are found and trained in India. In many of the smaller branches where the work is of a simpler nature, it is carried on by voluntary workers who render faithful service year by year. The Student Department is affiliated to the World's Student Christian Federation and has 43 branches in the various Schools and Colleges.

The Association, which is affiliated to the World's Young Women's Christian Associations, is international and interdenominational. Active membership is open to all who declare their faith in our Lord Jesus Christ and desire to serve others in His spirit of love, and Associate membership is open to any girl or woman, regardless of what her religion may be, who wishes to join the world-wide fellowship of the Y. W. C. A. and declare her sympathy with its purpose, and to share in its activities.

The Patroness of the Association is H. E. Lady Willingdon.

Copies of the annual reports and other printed matter can be obtained from the National Office which is at 134, Corporation Street, Calcutta. The official organ of the Association is the leaflet "Everymember" which is issued each month and sent to members and friends of the Association.

ASSOCIATION OF BRITISH UNIVERSITY WOMEN IN INDIA.

The Association of British University Women in India was established in 1913. Its objects are:—

(1) To facilitate Intercommunication and co-operation between women belonging to the universities of the United Kingdom, resident in India.

(2) To provide a means of keeping in touch with the universities of the United Kingdom by communication with the British Federation of University Women, and otherwise as may seem expedient.

(3) To act as an organisation which shall afford opportunity for the expression of united opinion and for concerted action by university women.

Membership is open only to those women who hold degrees in any university in the United Kingdom, or hold Oxford or Cambridge Honours Certificates; but Associate Membership is open to women who have studied at a British University for two years and each Branch may admit as Honorary Members women who have advanced the higher education and interests of women.

The Association of British University Women has two branches. The addresses of the Honorary Secretaries are as follows:—

Hony. Local Secretaries.

Bombay ..Mrs. A. J. Moore, 31, Pedder Road, Bombay.

Punjab ..Mrs. Skemp, Race Course Road, Lahore.

The Delhi and Punjab Branches came into existence in 1918. The Calcutta and Bombay Branches are influential and have repeatedly intervened with good effect to educate public opinion with regard to subjects affecting women. All Branches have, for instance, made investigations on behalf of the Education Department, Government of India, the Calcutta University Commission, etc., and have supplied, through the International Federation of University Women, information on Secondary Education in India to the League of Nations. They have been the means of introducing women on to University Senates and Municipalities. The Calcutta Branch carried through an important exhibition of Food Products.

The Bombay Branch has done good work in connection with the formation of the Social Purity Committee and has, through a special sub-committee, organized public meetings for women on subjects affecting their interests about which legislation was being or had been recently enacted.

A valuable part of the work of the Association was the establishment of **Women's Employment Bureau** in Calcutta and Bombay. They were remarkably successful. The Bombay Bureau was eventually merged into the employment Bureau established by the Women's Council; the Calcutta Bureau has ceased to exist.

As a means of promoting friendships between women from various parts of the United Kingdom, with widely differing tastes and interests and spheres of life in India, and as an instrument for affording opportunities for usefulness to educated women, the Association of University Women has a useful function to perform.

This Association is Federated to the "Federation of University Women in India," and thus forms one of the Units of the Indian Federation.

Federation of University Women in India.

This is an organization conceived to unite for service and fellowship all University Women of whatever race or University who may be resident in India. Units representing British Universities, Indian Universities and American Universities severally have existed since 1913 (Britain) and 1920 (India and America) respectively.

These Units are now affiliated to the F. U. W. I. and are as such affiliated to the International Federation of University Women which embraces 31 countries of the world and has its headquarters at Crosby Hall, Cheyne Walk, London.

This International Federation is then a kind of League of Nations in which the University is the Unit: and the opportunities it affords for better understanding for world-friendship, and world service, will easily be imagined.

As forming one Family, its Members help the common cause of women: they help one another by inspiration and interchange of service: they help the country for which as individual Units they stand, inasmuch as that country is swept forthwith by reason of its place within the International Federation alone, into world statistics and the dignity of recognition by the League of Nations at Geneva.

The benefit to Members individually also is great. The Club Houses of the Federation all over the world are open to them. Equally so are all Scholarships and Fellowships offered by the Federation.

During 1929 these last have included. Scholarships from Great Britain and America which gave free tuition, board and residence at certain Colleges to students for a degree: residential scholarships at Crosby Hall, valuable Fellowships and Prizes offered chiefly for Medical or Scientific research by Australia and America.

A special scholarship was offered in 1929 by Barnard College, Columbia University, to under-graduates from India.

Membership is open to Women Graduates of any University through the Unit representing that University. Colonial Graduates are at present attached to the British Unit. The Bombay Presidency Women Graduates' Union offers membership to a graduate of any recognised University in the whole world.

Subscriptions.—Each Unit pays capitation at 8 as. per head.

The Federation has Branches in Bombay, Lahore, Madras, Kodaikanal. Each Branch has its local Committee. But as a whole the Federation is under a Central Committee with Headquarters at Calcutta for the years 1928 and 1929. Headquarters are at Bombay from 1930.

OFFICE BEARERS, CENTRAL COMMITTEE.

President: Dr. Muthulakshmi Reddi, M.B., C.M.

LOCAL REPRESENTATIVES.

Bombay	..Mrs. Moore.
	Miss I. Baptist.
Punjab	..Mrs. Skemp
Madras	..Miss Joseph.
Kodaikanal	..Mrs. C. McClalland.

Honorary General Secretary: Mrs. Doctor, Hirji Mansions, Gowalia Tank Road, Bombay 6.

Applications for membership should be made to the Honorary General Secretary who will forward the same to the Local Secretary to whose Unit it may appertain.

Hon. General Secretary: Mrs. Gulbanu J. R. Doctor, Federation of University Women in India.

ASSOCIATION OF COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY ALUMNI IN INDIA.—This is an organization conceived to unite for service and fellowship all Columbia alumni who may be resident in India. It was founded in 1931, and is a constituent member of the Alumni Federation of Columbia University, New York, U.S.A. There are more than fifty such Columbia Associations including one in London, Paris, Madrid and Berlin. The India Association has its Headquarters in Bombay.

President of the Association: Dr. Jal Dastur C. Pavry, M.A., Ph.D., 63, Pedder Road, Malabar Hill, Bombay.

PRINCIPAL CLUBS IN INDIA.

Name of Club.	Established	Club-house.	Subscription.			Secretary.
			Ent.	Annual	Monthly.	
			Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	
ABBOTTABAD		Abbottabad, N. W. F. Provinces.	40	..	20	Capt. F. L. Roberts.
ADYAR	1890	Madras	75	12	6	C. Cayley.
AGRA	1863	Agra Cantonment ..	75	..	12	Captain J. J. Westmoreland.
AHMEDNAGAR ..	1889	.....	40	..	13	W. R. Cope.
AIJAL	1893	Lushai Hills, E. B. & Assam.	32	..	15	Capt. E. G. Sutten.
AJMERE	1883	Kaiser Bagh	100	..	12	Lt. P. W. Grant.
AKOLA	1870	Berar	100	..	15	R. K. Ramadhyani, I.C.S.
ALLAHABAD	1868	Allahabad	100	10	12	Capt. G. T. W. Horne.
AMRAOTI	..	.....	100	..	13	R. L. Johnston.
AMRITSAR	1894	Amritsar	30	..	12	Walter Dawson.
BANGALORE, UNITED SERVICE.	1868	38, Residency Road ..	100	..	12	T. S. Kemmis.
BAREILLY	1883	Municipal Gardens ..	50	..	9	Capt. J. W. T. Wooldridge, I.A. S.C.
BARISAL	1864	Backergunj, Barisal ..	32	..	13	W. K. Hodgen.
BARRACKPORE ..	1850	Grand Trunk Road, S. Riverside.	100	..	15	J. Wilson and F. S. Hillis.
BASSEIN GYMKHANA..	1881	Fytche Street, Bassein, Burma.	50	..	11	H. Crawford.
BELGAUM	1884	Close to Race Course..	50	..	13	Capt. R. H. Coad.
BENARES	..	.....	20	..	16	A. H. Gurney, I.C.S.
BENGAL	1827	33, Chowringhee Road, Calcutta.	500	25	20	P. B. Warburton.
BENGAL UNITED SERVICE.	1845	29, Chowringhee Road.	150	20	16	Dr. A. M. Heron.
BOMBAY	1862	Esplanade Road ..	100	12	10	H. F. Chard.
BOMBAY GYMKHANA..	..	.....	75	6	9	J. B. Barclay and G. S. Broadbent.
BYCULLA	1833	Bellasis Road, Bombay	200	24	12	H. F. Hobbs, D.S.O., M.C.
CALCUTTA	1907	241, Lower Circular Road.	200	120	10	Hon. Mr. J. Ghosal, C.S.I., C.I.E., I.C.S. (Rtd.) Mr. D. Y. Anderson.
CAWNPORE	1844	Cawnpore	50	..	10	G. Rose.
CHITTAGONG	1878	Pioneer Hill, Chittagong.	75	12	10	Capt. R. Deedes.
CLUB OF CENTRAL INDIA.	1885	Mhow	60	..	15	Lt. R. L. Lane.
CLUB OF WESTERN INDIA.	1865	Elphinstone Road, Poona.	..	12	10	Capt. J. H. Michell.
COCHIN	1876	.....	100	18	10	A. L. D. Lambe.
COCONADA	1856	Coconada	70	..	11	C. D. T. Shores (Chairman).
COIMBATORE	1868	Coimbatore	75	9	10	E. F. H. Gerrard.
COONOOR	1894	Coonoor, Nilgiris ..	50	12	8	A. K. Weld Downing
DACCA	1864	Dacca	50	..	20	C. W. Tandy Green.
DALHOUSIE	..	Dalhousie, Punjab ..	..	15	7	W. L. Stevenson.
DARJEELING	1868	Auckland Road ..	100	16	7½	G. Wraugham Hardy.
DELHI	1898	Ludlow Castle, Delhi..	100	15	15	G. C. L. Wadley.
IMPERIAL DELHI GYMKHANA.	..	Delhi	100	15	15	J. Hills

Name of Club.	Established.	Club-house.	Subscription.			Secretary.
			Ent.	Annual	Monthly.	
			Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	
JHANSI	1887	Next to Public Gardens, Jhansi.	50	..	12	Captain G. Salt.
MADRAS .. .	1831	Mount Road, Madras..	250	20	12	J. A. Thomson.
MADRAS COSMOPOLITAN.	1873	Mount Road	150	24	5	Rao Bahadur Dr. A. Lakshmanaswami Mudaliar, M.D.
MALABAR .. .	1864	Beach Road, Calicut..	100	..	12	....
MAYMYO .. .	1901	.....	100	12	20	J. R. Gould.
MOOLTAN	1892	Mooltan	50	..	12	Major J. M. Mackenzie, R.A.M.C.
NAINITAL ..	1864	.....	150	12	10	Col. J. de Grey, O.B.E.
OOTACAMUND	1840	Ootacamund, Nilgiri Hills.	150	18	12	Capt. A. Catling.
ORIENT	..	Chowpaty, Bombay..	300	72	6	Mr. C. W. E. Arbuthnot, B.A., B.E., C.I.E., Sir Currimbhoy Ebrahim, Bart.
PEGU	1871	Prome Road, Rangoon	300	20	12	R. O. B. Perrott.
PESHAWAR ..	1883	Peshawar	50	..	12	Major E. E. Hills.
PUNJAB	1879	Upper Mall, Lahore ..	150	15	12	Capt. R. G. Saulez.
QUETTA	1879	Quetta..	120	..	20	T. M. Walker, O.B.E., A.M.C., I.C.E.
RANGOON GYMKHANA..	1874	Halpin Rd., Rangoon.	75	6	10	R. H. Hughesdon, M.C.
RANGOON BOAT CLUB..	..	Royal Lakes, Rangoon	48	12	5	Edward Thomson.
RAJPUTANA	1880	Mount Abu	50	..	8	R. E. Coupland.
ROYAL BOMBAY YACHT CLUB.	1880	Apollo Bunder ..	300	18	12	Lt.-Col. C. Cobb, C.B.E.
ROYAL CALCUTTA TURF CLUB.	1861	11, Russell Street ..	300	25	..	Capt. The Hon. A Howard, M.C.
ROYAL WESTERN INDIA GOLF CLUB.	..	Nasik	75	15	12	D. C. A. Kincaid.
SATURDAY .. .	..	7, Wood Street, Calcutta.	175	12	12	F. A. Yearsley.
SECUNDERABAD ..	1883	Secunderabad(Deccan)	100	..	12	Capt. H.S. Morris, M.C
SHILLONG . .	1878	Northbrook Road, Shillong.	100	12	23	J. C. Ritter.
SIALKOT .. .	..	Sialkot, Punjab ..	32	..	21	Capt. L. H. Radwell.
SIND	1871	Karachi ..	200	12	12	Major J. C. Crocker.
TRICHINOPOLY ..	1869	Cantonment	90	12	12	H. C. Hodgson.
TUTICORIN	1885	Tuticorin	50	6	10	R. S. Kemp Scriven.
UNITED SERVICE CLUB.	1866	Simla	100	12	12	A. L. Mortimer, F.R.I.B.A.
UNITED SERVICE CLUB, LUCKNOW.	1861	Chutter Manzil Palace.	100	..	12	E. J. Hawkins.
UPPER BURMA ..	1889	Fort Dufferin, Mandalay.	50	12	20	A. Douglas Marshall.
WESTERN INDIA TURF.	..	Bombay and Poona ..	150	25	..	C. C. Gulliland.
WILLINGDON SPORTS	1917	Clerk Road, Bombay.	500	120	..	W. Botterill.
WHEELER	1863	The Mall, Meerut ..	50	..	17	Major R. E. Webb O.B.E.

ROTARY IN INDIA.

ROTARY CLUBS IN MIDDLE ASIA REGION.

H. W. Bryant, M.B.E., J.P., Honorary Commissioner, Middle Asia Region, Y.M.C.A., Wodehouse Road, Bombay.

INDIA.

AMRITSAR (1933): *President* W. Roberson-Taylor, *Hon. Secy.* D. May Arrindell, 65, The Mall, Amritsar. 2nd and 4th Tuesdays of each month, at 8-30 p.m., from the 15th October to 14th April; at 8 p.m. from the 15th April to 14th October. The Amritsar Hotel.

BOMBAY (1929): *President* S. T. Dockray. *Hon. Vice-President*:—H. W. Bryant, *Hon. Secretaries*:—R. G. Higham and Albert Raymond. Every Tuesday, 1-30 p.m., Taj Mahal Hotel.

CALCUTTA (1919): *President* A. R. Dalal. *Hon. Secy.* C. Warren Boulton, Stephen House, Dalhousie Square. Every Tuesday, 1-30 p.m., Great Eastern Hotel.

KARACHI (1933): *President* Sir Montagu De. P. Webb, C.I., C.B.E., Caxton House, Kutchery Road. *Hon. Secy.* Hatim B. Tyabji, Bar-at-Law, Sunny Side Road. Every 1st and 3rd Saturday 1-15 p.m. The Central Hotel.

LAHORE (1927): *President* G. T. Hamilton Harding, C. I. E., J. P. *Hon. Secy.* H. J. Rustomji, 6 High Court Chambers. Every Friday, 8-30 p.m., Nedou's Hotel.

MADRAS (1929): *President* R. D. Richmond *Hon. Secy.* C. Rajagopalachari, "Ardlui," 45, Spur Tank Road, Egmore, Madras. Every Friday, 1-30 p.m., Gymkhana Club.

BURMA.

RANGOON (1929): *President* Col. C. de. M. Wellborne. *Hon. Secy.* C. P. Wilton, Vacuum Oil Co., 581, Merchant Street. *Jt. Hon. Secy.* S. T. Sadasivan, 644, Merchant Street. Every Tuesday, 1 p.m., Strand Hotel.

THAYETMYO (1929): *President* U Than Tin, B.A., B.C.S. Deputy Commissioner, Thayetmyo. *Hon. Secy.* U Yon, Secretary, District Council, Thayetmyo. Every Saturday at 5 p.m., Rotary Club House.

CEYLON.

COLOMBO (1929): *President* A. Gammon, Hayley & Kenny, Colombo. *Hon. Secy.* R. A. Haines, P. O. Box No. 88 Colombo. Every Thursday, 1 p.m., The Grand Oriental Hotel.

STRAITS SETTLEMENTS.

SINGAPORE (1930): *President* W. Allan Eley, Esq. *Hon. Secy.* Major J. Lee, St. Andrew's School. Every Wednesday at 1 p.m., Adelphi Hotel.

PENANG (1930): *President* Dr. K. Md. Ariff. *Jt. Hon. Secretaries.* Dr. S. Rasanayagam & G. Maund. Address, c/o Health Office, Penang. Every Tuesday at 1 p.m., E & O. Hotel.

FEDERATED MALAY STATES.

KUALA LUMPUR (1930): *President* Mr. E. D. Butler. *Hon. Secy.* Mr. L. D. Gammans, M.C.S. P. O. Box 203, Kuala Lumpur. Every Wednesday at 1 p.m., Hotel Majestic.

SEREMBAN (1929): *President* Mr. H. P. Bryson, Malayan Civil Service. *Hon. Jt. Secretaries.* Mr. S. S. Chelvanayagam, c/o Chartered Bank. Seremban, F.M.S., and Dr. Eu Kay Hoe, International Dispensary, Birch Road, Seremban. Closed Meeting, 1st Thursday of each month at 7 p.m. Open Meeting, 3rd Thursday of each month, at 8 p.m., The Rest House, Seremban.

KLANG AND COAST (1929): *President* Goh Hoch Huat, J.P. *Hon. Secy.* C. J. H. Lowe, Secretary, Sanitary Board, Klang, F.M.S. Every Tuesday at 5 p.m., Chinese Merchants' Club, Klang.

JAVA.

BANDOENG: *President* Ing. D. W. Sparnaay. *Hon. Secy.* J. A. C. de Kock van Leeuwen. Riouwstraat 30, Bandoeng. Every Thursday at 8 p.m. Societeit Concordia.

DJOKJAKARTA: *President* Ir. P. A. G. Asselbergs. Class.—Railroad Equipment (Car rebuilding). *Address*, 1 Pengok, Djokjakarta, N. E. I. *Secretary*: J. C. L. Gotz van der vet. Class.—Agriculture (Educational extension). *Address*. 33 Gondokoesoeman, Djokjakarta, N. E. I. Sodeteit" de Vereeniging" Every Friday at 8 p. m.

MALANG (1930): *President* Prof. Dr. A. Leber. *Hon. Secy.* L. S. A. M. von Romer. Every Wednesday, 8 p.m., Club Concordia.

SOERABAYA (1930): *President* Th. A. van der Laan. *Hon. Secy.* K. K. J. L. Steinmetz, (M. R. I. C. E.). Every Thursday, 8 p.m., Orange Hotel, Soerabaya.

SUMATRA.

MEDAN (1930): *President* Dr. J. W. Wolff. *Hon. Secy.* G. G. Matthieu, Medan. Every 1st and 3rd Monday of the month at 8 p.m., Grand Hotel, Medan.

BUITENZORG.

BUITENZORG: *President* Dr. P. van Hulstijn. *Secretary*: Dr. J. G. J. A. Maas, van Imhoffweg 16, Buitenzorg club, Thursday, 7-30 p.m.

The Church.

The Church of England in India became on March 1, 1930, a self-governing branch of the Anglican Communion. Until that date it had been an integral part of the Church of England and its bishops were considered to be suffragans of the Archdiocese of Canterbury. This legal bond was severed by the passing of the Indian Church Act and Measure in 1927, and from the date of severance appointed under the Act, the Church of India, Burma and Ceylon has been free to manage its own affairs, although, as it states in the Preamble to its Constitution, it has no intention or desire "to renounce its obligations to the rest of the Holy Catholic Church and its fundamental principles, but on the contrary acknowledges that if it should abandon those fundamental principles it would break spiritual continuity with its past and destroy its spiritual identity."

Like all the other branches of the Anglican communion the Church of India, Burma and Ceylon is Episcopal. It is composed of fourteen sees, Calcutta, Madras, Bombay, Colombo, Lahore, Rangoon, Travancore and Cochin, Chota Nagpur, Lucknow, Tinnevelly and Madura, Nagpur, Dornakal, Assam and Nasik. Of these the first to be erected was Calcutta in 1814 and the last was Nasik in 1930. Vacancies on the Episcopal Bench are filled by election, each diocese electing its own bishop. The Bishops rule the Church and to them is reserved the final word in all matters of faith and order, but they rule in conjunction with a system of Councils which has been framed so as to give the greatest possible amount of representation to the whole body of the faithful. The foundation of the system is the **Parochial Council** of which the Parish Priest is the convenor and chairman. Every baptised, and confirmed member of the Church residing in the parochial area who contributes, in some recognised way, to the financial support of the Church, is a member of the Parochial Council of the ecclesiastical area in which he resides and is called a Qualified Elector.

Above the Parochial Councils come the **Diocesan Councils.** All Priests holding the Bishop's license are members of the Diocesan Council and to it are sent Lay Representatives elected by the Qualified Electors of every Parochial Council. The Diocesan Councils manage all purely domestic matters and have the right of petitioning the General Council about any subject of wider importance which may interest them. They elect a given number of priests and laymen to be their representatives on the General Council. General Councils are held not less than every three years and usually at Calcutta. They consist of three "Houses," Bishops, Priests and Laymen. Every Diocesan Bishop has a place in the House of Bishops. The other two Houses are formed by the elected representatives of the Diocesan Councils. The three Houses usually sit and vote together but any House has the right to meet alone if it desires to do so in order to formulate its policy or classify its opinions. A "Canon" of the Church is a Resolution passed with additional precautions ensuring due consideration by all three Houses. In all questions touching faith or Order the position of the episcopate as the divinely authorised teacher of the Church is most carefully safeguarded and the Bishops alone, without the concurrence of the other Houses, can issue Determinations about both subjects. But no Determination of the Bishops can be the subject of disciplinary action until it has become a Canon.

Every priest before being licensed to work in the Church of India, Burma and Ceylon takes an oath of obedience to the Canons.

The Ecclesiastical Establishment.—At the time of the passing of the Indian Church Act and Measure the Government of India acknowledged that it was responsible for providing for the spiritual needs of the Soldiers and Civilians whom it brought out to India. These responsibilities it discharges by maintaining an establishment of chaplains and churches for the four principal denominations of Christians—Anglican, Presbyterian, Roman Catholic and the Free Churches. The Chaplains of the two first named groups are appointed by the Secretary of State for India, the Anglicans on the recommendation of a Selection Committee of which the Archbishop of Canterbury is the Chairman. They are paid by Government and pensioned after a covenanted period of service. Although they form a definite Department of Government they are not subject to the orders of anyone save their own ecclesiastical superiors. The Presbyterian Chaplains are sometimes appointed to stations and sometimes to regiments. The Anglican chaplains are always chaplains of stations and have the pastoral care of all the inhabitants of the station who do not deliberately withdraw themselves from their ministrations, but when troops are included in the number of their parishioners Government orders that they shall have the first claim on their services. The chaplains and their congregations are members of the Church of India, Burma and Ceylon during their residence in India and have full rights of representation in the Councils of the Church. Their right to the use in worship of the Prayer Book of the Church of England is not only acknowledged in the Constitution of the Church but is also safeguarded by clauses in the Indian Church Act.

Government gives to the Metropolitan an annual block grant which is divided between the seven bishops whom Government recognises as having jurisdiction over the Establishment Chaplains and their congregations. These are the Bishops of Calcutta, Madras, Bombay, Lahore, Lucknow, Rangoon and Nagpur.

Before 1930 they formed part of the Establishment. One of the difficulties which the Church is facing is that the Government Block Grant is not large enough to provide for all the needs of these bishops. In consequence the Church is struggling to raise Diocesan Endowment Funds to make up deficits. More serious still, however, is the situation brought about by the action of Government in 1924, when in pursuance of a general policy of economy necessitated by post-war conditions it cut down the number of its chaplains by sixty. This set the dioceses a very difficult task. It became necessary suddenly to provide the salaries of Diocesan Chaplains and to furnish funds for the upkeep of the churches of many civil stations previously maintained by Government. Realising the magnitude of this burden Government agreed to help for a period of seven years by means of a very generous Block Grant. The question of the reduction of this grant is now under consideration. If the grant is considerably reduced the situation in most dioceses will be very serious. Either the Church must raise and devote to its European work a greatly increased sum of money or many of the churches in up-country stations will have to be closed. The chief sufferers will be the Anglo-Indian and Domiciled community which on account of "Indianisation" is less able than ever to carry the burden which it seems must inevitably be laid upon it. The difficulty of raising funds for the education of the children of this community and of obtaining priests to work for it becomes greater year by year. Nevertheless the Domiciled Community is the backbone of the Church in India and it is through this community that the conversion of India must come.

The Churches in India have not been wholly blind to these facts and have made desperate attempts to cope with the needs of the community in spite of lack of real support from home. The education of its children is very largely in the hands of the Christian denominations though there are a few institutions such as the La Martiniere Schools, on a non-denominational basis; but they are exceptional. In all the large centres there exist schools of various grades as well as orphanages, for the education of Europeans and Anglo-Indians under the control of various Christian bodies. The Roman Catholic Church is honourably distinguished by much activity and financial generosity in this respect. Her schools are to be found throughout the length and breadth of the Indian Empire; and they maintain a high standard of efficiency. The Anglican Church comes next, and the American Methodists have established some excellent schools in the larger hill-stations. The Presbyterians are also well represented in this field, particularly by the admirable institution for destitute children at Kalimpong, near Darjeeling. Schools of all denominations receive liberal grants-in-aid from Government, and are regularly inspected by the Education Departments of the various provinces. Thanks to the free operation of the denominational principle and its frank recognition by Government, there is no "religious difficulty" in the schools of the European and Anglo-Indian communities.

Christian Missions.

The tradition that St. Thomas, the Apostle, was the first Christian missionary in India is by no means improbable. History, however, carries us no further back than the sixth century, when a community of Christians is known to have existed in Malabar. Since then the so-called **Syrian Church** in south-west India has had a continuous life. Except in its infancy this Church (or rather these Churches or the Syrian Christians are now divided into four communions) has displayed little of the missionary spirit until quite recent times. Western Christianity was first introduced into India by the Portuguese, who established their hierarchy throughout their sphere of influence, Goa being the metropolitical see of the Indies. St. Francis Xavier, a Spaniard by race, took full advantage of the Portuguese power in Western India to carry on his Christian propaganda. His almost super-human zeal was rewarded with much success, but many of the fruits of his labour were lost with the shrinkage of the Portuguese Empire. It is really to the work of the missionaries of the **Propaganda** in the 17th century that the Papacy owes its large and powerful following in India to-day. The Roman Catholics in India number 1,823,000, of whom 332,000 were added during the decade 1911-1921. The total of "Syrian" Christians (exclusive of those who while using the Syrian liturgy, are of the Roman obedience) is 315,000, as against 367,000 in 1901. Protestant Christians (the term throughout this article includes Anglicans) number 2,950,000, an increase of 547,000 since 1911. Thus, the total number of Christians of all denominations in India is now close on five millions. In fact it probably exceeds that figure at the present moment, as these statistics are taken from the Census Report of 1911, and the rate of increase during the previous decade was nearly 100,000 per annum.

The Protestant Churches made no serious attempt to evangelise India till 1813. They have thus been at work in the Indian mission field for over 110 years, and the statistical results of their efforts are given above. It is now, however, generally recognized that Christian missions are producing indirect effects in India which lend themselves only incompletely to any sort of tabulation. The main agency of this more diffusive influence of Christianity is the missionary school and college. The **Protestant missions** fill a considerable part in the elementary education of the country. According to the 1923 *Report of the National Christian Council for India* they are teaching 420,255 children in 12,699 elementary schools, mostly situated in villages. The majority (243,895) of children in these schools are non-Christians. The same is true also of the secondary schools and in a still greater degree of the colleges. The former number 523 with 70,254 male and 25,303 female pupils. There are 40 colleges affiliated to Universities, containing 20,062 male and 1,309 female students. Of these as many as 14,148 are non-Christians. From the standpoint of missionary policy much importance is attached to these agencies for the indirect propagation of the Christian faith. The

statesman and the publicist are chiefly interested in the excellent moral effect produced by these institutions amongst the educated classes, and the higher educational ideals maintained by their staffs. The principal **University colleges** under Protestant auspices are the Madras Christian College; the Duff College, Calcutta; the Wilson College, Bombay; the Forman College, Lahore, and three women's colleges—the Women's Christian College at Madras, the Isabella Thoburn College at Lucknow, and the Women's Christian Medical College at Ludhiana. The Roman Catholics have a large number of educational institutions, ranging from small village schools to great colleges preparing students for University degrees But the proportion of Christian students in their institutions is very much larger than in those of the Protestant bodies. The proportion of literates amongst native Roman Catholics is probably lower than amongst the Protestant converts; but compared with Hindus and Mahomedans it is conspicuously higher. The Roman Catholics have some 3,000 elementary schools in which 98,000 boys and 41,000 girls are receiving instruction. In middle and high schools they have 143,000 boys and 73,000 girls and in University colleges about 5,000 students of both sexes. These figures, however, include a large proportion of Europeans and Eurasians, who are an almost negligible quantity in Protestant mission schools and colleges.

More recent, but producing even more wider spread results, is the **philanthropic work** of Christian missions. Before the great famine of 1878, missionaries confined themselves almost exclusively to evangelistic and educational activity. The famine threw crowds of destitute people and orphan children upon their hands. Orphanages and industrial schools became an urgent necessity. But the philanthropic spirit is never satisfied with one kind of organisation or method. A great stimulus was also given to medical missions. **Hospitals and dispensaries** have sprung up in all parts of the mission field; and leper asylums are almost a monopoly of Christian missionary effort. In 1911 the total number of medical missionaries working under Protestant societies in India was 118 men and 217 women, the majority of the former being also ordained ministers of religion. There are 184 industrial institutions in which 59 different arts and crafts are taught, ranging from agriculture to type-writing. In this department the **Salvation Army** hold a prominent place; and the confidence of Government in their methods has been shown by their being officially entrusted with the difficult work of winning over certain criminal tribes to a life of industry. The indirect effect of all this philanthropic activity under missionary auspices has been most marked. It has awakened the social conscience of the non-Christian public, and such movements as "The Servants of India" and the mission to the Depressed Classes are merely the outward and visible sign of a great stirring of the philanthropic spirit far beyond the sphere of Christian missionary operations.

Reunion.—For very many years Indian Christians have shown that they felt much more acutely than Europeans the scandal and disadvantage of the divisions of Christendom. These divisions are due to a very much greater extent than is always recognized to political causes, and in the political conflicts of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, when they became crystallised, India had no part. Even those differences amongst Christians which have a purely religious origin and foundation seem to be of very little account to Indian converts. For them the great dividing line is that between Christ and Mahommed or Shiva and Vishnu. Standing before a background of paganism they are conscious of a real fundamental unity in Christ. Compared with the greatness of the gulf which separates Christian from non-Christian, the differences of "confession" and "order" which separate Christian from Christian seem to be wholly artificial and negligible. In consequence the reunion movement, which is noticeable all over the world, is nowhere so strong as in India. In South India it has already resulted in the formation of the South India United Church, which is a group union of five of the principal Protestant communions, and as these bodies are in communion individually with all, or almost all, the other Protestant bodies at work in India the Union may be regarded as a Pan-Protestant Union. The S.I.U.C. is at present negotiating with the Anglican Church. If as seems probable the negotiations are successful the result will amount to a union of all the Christian bodies in South India, except the Roman Catholics, on the basis of the last Lambeth encyclical. This will mean that a real National Indian Church will come into being. Although it will be tolerant of almost every expression of Evangelical opinion and will retain the freedom of development characteristic of Protestantism, by its acceptance of the Catholic creeds and the Historic Episcopate, it will be linked up with the Catholic tradition of the Anglican Church.

Anglican Missionary Societies.

The Church Missionary Society carries on work in India in seven different missions—the United Provinces, South India, Travancore and Cochin, Bengal, Western India, Punjab and Sind and the Central Provinces and Rajputana. The names are in order of seniority. Work was begun in what are now called the United Provinces in 1813, in Bombay in 1820, in the Punjab in 1851, and in the Central Provinces in 1854. The Society has always kept Evangelistic work well to the fore; but it also has important medical missions, especially on the N.-W. Frontier, and many schools of the Primary, Middle and High standards. The Church of England Zenana Missionary Society is an offshoot of the C. M. S. controlling the work of 162 missionary ladies. The number of ordained European missionaries of the C. M. S. in India and Ceylon is 160, European laymen 30 and European laywomen 258. The Society claims a Christian community of 2,21,359 of whom 63,655 are adult communicants.

Society for the propagation of the Gospel.—Statistics of the work of this Society are not easily ascertained, as much of it is done through Diocesan institutions, which, while financed and in many cases manned by the S. P. G., are

entirely controlled by the Diocesan authorities. The best known of the S. P. G. missions is that at Delhi, commonly called the Cambridge Mission to Delhi, carrying on educational work at St. Stephen's College and School. At the College there are about 200 students under instruction, and at the High School 800. The College hostels accommodate 100 students. Missions to the depressed classes exist in Burma, in the Ahmednagar District and in several parts of South India, especially in the Diocese of Tinnevelly-Madura. The S. P. G. also maintains an important Criminal Tribes Settlement at Hubli, in the Bombay Carnatic. There are 116,000 Indian Christians under the aegis of the S. P. G.: 90 ordained European missionaries and 98 European lady workers.

Other Anglican Societies.—The Oxford Mission to Calcutta was started in 1880. It works in the poorest parts of Calcutta and also at Barisal. There are 11 mission priests of this Society, and 16 Sisters. In addition to its work amongst the poor, the Oxford Mission addresses itself to the educated classes in Bengal and issues a periodical called *Epiphany*, which is known all over India.

The Society of St. John the Evangelist (commonly known as the Cowley Fathers) has houses at Bombay and Poona, and small stations in the Bombay Konkan. In Bombay its missionary work centres upon the Church of Holy Cross, Umarkhadi, where there is a school and a dispensary. The Christians are chiefly drawn from the very poorest classes of the Bombay population. At Poona the Society co-operates with the Wantage Sisters and in Bombay with the All-Saints' Sisters. Other Anglican sisterhoods represented in India are the Clewer Sisters at Calcutta and the Sisters of the Church (Kilburn) at Madras. The St. Hilda's Deaconesses' Association of Lahore carries an important educational work (chiefly amongst the domiciled community) in the Punjab. The mission of the Scottish Episcopal Church at Nagpur, the Dublin University Mission at Hazaribagh, and the Mission of the Church of England in Canada working at Kangra and Palampur (Punjab) should also be mentioned under the head of Anglican Missions.

An interesting development has lately taken place in the Anglican communion. In 1922 the foundations were laid of a new Religious community called the Christa Seva Sangh or the Society of the Servants of Christ. The aim of its members is to enable Indians and Europeans to live together a common life based upon the three-fold vows of poverty, chastity and obedience and by living together to develop the Religious life along lines peculiarly suited to India. Indians appreciate fully the value of "renunciation". The Sangh hopes to commend Christianity to India by presenting it with a concrete illustration of Christian asceticism. The first Ashram of the Brotherhood was consecrated by Dr. Palmer, Bishop of Bombay, in 1928. It is situated in Poona and it contained at the time of consecration 13 Brothers, of whom 6 were Indians and 7 Europeans. It shows every sign of life and growth.

Bengal Ecclesiastical Department.

Westcott, Most Rev. Foss, D.D. .. .. .. Lord Bishop of Calcutta and Metropolitan of India.

SENIOR CHAPLAINS.

Grimes, Ven'ble Cecil John .. .. .. Archdeacon of Calcutta.
Birch, Rev. Canon Ormonde Winstanley, M.C. .. Chaplain, St. John's Church, Calcutta. Also Officiating Archdeacon of Calcutta.
Thomson, Rev. Thomas Albert .. .. .. (On leave.)
Williams, Rev. Henry Frank Fulford, M.A. .. Chaplain, Barrackpur.
Wilkinson, Rev. Ernest Roland, M.A. .. .. (On leave.)
Lee, Rev. Percy Erskine, M.A. .. .. .. Chaplain, St. Stephen's, Kidderpore.
Young, Rev. Ernest Joseph, B.A. .. .. .. Chaplain, Darjeeling.
McKenzie, Rev. Donald Stewart, M.A. .. .. Metropolitan's Chaplain.
Higham, Rev. Philip, M.A. .. .. .. Chaplain, Shillong, Assam.
Pearson, Rev. Cyril Greenwood, M.A. .. .. Senior Chaplain, St. Paul's Cathedral, Calcutta.

7 Junior Chaplains.

CHURCH OF SCOTLAND.

Dodd, The Rev. George Edward, M.A., B.D., J.P., H.C.F. — Presidency Senior Chaplain, Church of Scotland, Bengal. (On leave.)
Lee, The Rev. Robert Ewing, M.C., B.D., J.P. .. — Officiating Presidency Senior Chaplain, Church of Scotland, Bengal and Senior Chaplain, St. Andrew's Church, Calcutta.
McLellan, The Rev. Duncan Tait Hutchison, M.A. — Second Chaplain, St. Andrew's Church, Calcutta.

CHURCH OF ROME.

Perier, The Most Rev. Dr. Ferdinand, S.J. .. Archbishop, Calcutta.
Bryan, Rev. Leo, S.J. .. .. Chaplain, Alipore Central Jail.

Bombay Ecclesiastical Department.

Acland, The Right Rev. Richard Dyke, M.A. .. Lord Bishop of Bombay.
Martindale, Ven. Henry, M.A. .. .. .. Archdeacon.
Arthur Patrick Lillie .. .. Registrar of the Diocese.
Eastley, C. M. .. .. Ditto. (Officiating.)

SENIOR CHAPLAINS.

Harvey, Rev. Canon George Frederick, M.A. .. Senior Presidency Chaplain. (On leave.)
Mason, Rev. Charles Douglas Thomas, M.A., A.K.C. (On leave.)
Dart, Rev. Canon John Lovering Campbell, M.A.. Senior Presidency Chaplain, Bombay. (On leave.)
Wormald, Rev. Robert Leonard, M.A., M.B.E. .. Chaplain of Belgaum. (On leave.)
Ashley-Brown, Rev. W., L.T.H. .. .. .. Chaplain of St. Mary's, Poona. Officiating Archdeacon of Bombay (in addition) and Chaplain of Mahableshwar (in addition.)
Dossetor, Rev. F. E., M.A. .. .. .. Chaplain of Deolali.
Fortescue, Rev. C. F., L.T.H. (Dur.) .. .. Senior Presidency Chaplain. Comp.
Seaman, Rev. Alfred Jonathan, M.A. .. .. Chaplain of Ahmedabad.

6 Junior Chaplains.

CHAPLAINS ON PROBATION.

Stansfield, Rev. H. R. .. .. Chaplain of Ghorpuri.

FIELD SERVICE POST.

Nil.

CHURCH OF SCOTLAND.

Chaplains.

MacKenzie, Rev. D. F., M.A. .. .. .. Senior Chaplain, St. Andrew's Church, Bombay Presidency Senior Chaplain.
Rennie, Rev. J. Y., M.A., B.D., D. LITT. .. .. Chaplain, St. Andrew's Church, Karachi.

CHAPLAIN OF THE CHURCH OF ROME.

Lima, The Most Rev. Dr. Joachim R. .. .. Presidency.

Assam Ecclesiastical Department.

CHAPLAINS.

Higham, The Rev. Phillip, M.A. .. .. .. Shillong.
Mathew, The Rev. F. W. .. .. Lakhimpur.
Waite, The Rev. A., B.A. .. .. Silchar.
Wyld, The Rev. F., B.A. .. .. Sibsagar.

Bihar and Orissa Ecclesiastical Department.

CHAPLAINS.

Halliday, Rev. S. .. .. Chaplain of Bankipore.
Tilney Bassett, Rev. H. F. E. .. .. .. Chaplain, Dinapore.

ADDITIONAL CLERGY.

Perfect, Rev. H. .. .. Bhagalpur.
Beasley, Rev. J. S. .. .. Monghyr and Jamalpur.
Ethelred Judah, Rev. .. .. Muzaffarpur and Darbhanga.
Dauncey, Rev. K. E. D. .. .. Ranchi.
Molony, Rev. A. C. B. .. .. Cuttack (visiting).

Burma Ecclesiastical Department.

Tubbs, The Right Reverend Norman Henry, M.A., D.D. Bishop of Rangoon.

SENIOR CHAPLAINS.

Anderson, The Ven'ble Nicol Keith .. .. Archdeacon, Rangoon and Bishop's Commissary.
Park, Rev. William Robert, C.I.E., O.B.E. .. (On leave.)
Thursfield, Rev. Gerald Arthur Richard.. .. Chaplain, Mandalay.
Delahay, Rev. William .. .. Chaplain, Rangoon Cantonment.
Lee, Rev. Arthur Oldfield Norris .. .. .. Chaplain, Maymyo.

JUNIOR CHAPLAINS.

Stevenson, Rev. G. E. .. .. Chaplain, Mingaladon Cantonment.

Central Provinces Ecclesiastical Department.

Wood, The Right Rev. Alex, M.A., P.H.D., D.D., O.B.E.	Lord Bishop of Nagpur.
Roberts, The Ven'ble Arthur Betton	(On leave, preparatory to retirement.)
Martin, Rev. Frederick William, M.A.	Archdeacon, Nagpur.
Day, Rev. Edward Ridlay, M.A.	Cheprata, U. P.
Warmington, Rev. Guy Wilson, M.A.	Garrison, Chaplain, Jubbulpore.
Streatfield, Rev. S. F., B.A.	(On leave.)
Sanders, Rev. Harold Martin, M.A.	Central India, Mhow.
Eastwick, Rev. Rowland, B.A.	(On leave.)
Williams, Rev. W. P., B.A.	Nasirabad.
Gash, Rev. I. J.	Kamptee.
Heber Clare, Rev.	Garrison Chaplain, Jubbulpore.

Madras Ecclesiastical Department.

CHURCH OF ENGLAND.

Waller, Right Reverend Edward Harry Mansfield, D.D.	Lord Bishop of Madras.
Crichton, Rev. Walter Richard	Archdeacon.

SENIOR CHAPLAINS.

Edmonds, Rev. Canon Herbert James, M.A. ..	Junior Chaplain, Madras. (On leave.)
Wheeler, Rev. Charles Ernest Ruapehu	Chaplain of Trimulgherry.
Langdale Smith, Rev. Richard Marmaduke, B.A.	Chaplain, St. Thomas' Mount.
Trench, Rev. Albert Charles, M.C.	Chaplain, Holy Trinity Church, Bangalore.
Gaul, Rev. A. C.	Chaplain, Ootacamund.
Coldman, Rev. A. T.	Chaplain. (On leave.)
Hayward, Rev. W. G.	Senior Chaplain, St. George's Cathedral.

6 Junior Chaplains.

CHURCH OF SCOTLAND.

McLean, Rev. L.	Presidency Senior Chaplain, Madras.
Short, Rev. G. M. D.	Chaplain, St. Andrew's Church, Bangalore.

North-West Frontier Ecclesiastical Department.

SENIOR CHAPLAIN.

Vacant	

JUNIOR CHAPLAINS.

Strip, Rev. E. A. K., M.A.	Chaplain of Kohat.
Claydon, Rev. E., M.A	Chaplain of Abbottabad.
Nicholl, Rev. E. M.	Chaplain of Peshawar.
Bartels, Rev. R. C.	Chaplain, Razmak (Waziristan).
Salisbury, Rev. Dr.	Chaplain of Nowshera.
Devlin, Rev. T. S.	Chaplain of Risalpur.
Rose, Rev. T. P.	Assistant Chaplain of Peshawar.

Punjab Ecclesiastical Department.

Carden, The Ven'ble Henry Craven, M.A. ..	Archdeacon of Lahore. Bishop's Commissary, (On leave.)
Kerr, Rev. George Henry Bruce, M.A. (Durham).	(On leave.)
England, Rev. Canon Herbert George, M.A. (Durham).	(On leave.)
McKelvie, Rev. Robert Fritz Stanley, M.A., D.D. (Oxon.)	(On leave.)
Lister, Rev. Canon J. G., M.A.	Ambala.
Tambling, Rev. F. G. H.	Hyderabad, Sind.
Marshall, Rev. Norman Edwyn, M.A.	Ambala (Assistant).
Storrs-Fox, Rev. E. A.	Murree.
Gorrie, Rev. L. M., TH. L.	New Delhi.
Johnston, Rev. Canon G. F., M.A.	Karachi.
Devenish, Rev. R. C. S., B.A.	(On leave.)
Rennison, Rev. Eric David Robert, B.A.	Jullundur.
Jones, Rev. G. W., B.A.	West Ridge, Rawalpindi.
Nicholl, Rev. E. M., M.A., M.C.	Peshawar.
Mackenzie, Rev. D. S., M.A.	Serving under G. I. as Metropolitan Chaplain.
Morgan, Rev. B. I., M.A.	Sialkot.
Evers, Rev. Rev. M. S., M.A., M.C.	Quetta.
Devlin, Rev. T. S., M.A.	Risalpur.
Salisbury, Rev. Mark, LL.D.	Nowshera.
Waterbury, Rev. F. G., L.TH., B.D.	Karachi (Assistant).

20 Junior Chaplains.

United Provinces Ecclesiastical Department.

Saunders, The Right Rev. Charles John Godfrey, M.A.	Bishop of Lucknow, Headquarters, Allahabad.
Bill, The Ven'ble Sydney Alfred, M.A.	Archdeacon of Lucknow, Headquarters, Naini Tal.
Westmacott, R., V.D., Bar-at-Law	Registrar of the Diocese of Lucknow, Headquarters, Calcutta.

SENIOR CHAPLAINS.

Bill, The Ven'ble Sydney Alfred, M.A.	Naini Tal.
Cohu, The Rev. Canon Clifford John, M.A. ..	Ranikhet. (Almora).
Talbot, The Rev. Alfred Dixon	(On leave, preparatory to retirement).
Dunlop, The Rev. Canon Douglas Lyall Chandles, M.A.	(On leave, preparatory to retirement).
Maynard, The Rev. Bertram Martin, A.K.C. ..	(On leave, preparatory to retirement).
Broughton, The Rev. Arthur Hardwicke, M.A. ..	Dehra Dun.
Rigg, The Rev. Arthur Cecil Pietroni, M.A. ..	Lucknow (Cantt.).
Hare, The Rev. Arthur Neville, B.A.	(On leave.)
Patrick, The Rev. Alexander, B.A.	Jhansi.
Porter, The Rev. John	(On leave.)
Douglas, The Rev. Percy Sholto, M.A.	Fyzabad.
Southern, The Rev. Gerald Holte Bracebridge, M.A.	Allahabad Garrison.
Luckman, The Rev. Sydney, B.A.	Agra.
Burn, The Rev. John Humphrey, B.A. ..	Cawnpore.

8 Junior Chaplains.

THE ROMAN CATHOLIC CHURCH.

With regard to numbers, the *Catholic Directory of India* gives the following tables:—

	1911	1921	1931
1. *British India and Indian States*—			
(*a*) Latin Rite	1,614,620	1,851,408	2,164,918
(*b*) Syriac Rites.. ..	364,666	440,488	549,981
2. *French India*	25,918	25,489	25,492
3. *Portuguese India*	296,148	288,741	326,690
Total, India	2,301,346	2,606,117	3,067,031
4. Ceylon	322,163	363,986	394,993
Total, India and Ceylon ..	2,623,509	2,970,102	3,462,074

NOTE (1):—In 1860, the total for India and Ceylon was 1,170,854. In 1880 it had risen to 1,610,265 and in 1900 to 2,201,674.

NOTE (2):—In 1860 there were 1,504 priests. In 1921 there were 3,156. In 1931 there were 3,625.

The Catholic community as thus existing is composed of the following elements:—

(1) The "Syrian" Christians of the Malabar Coast, traditionally said to have been converted by the Apostle St. Thomas. They were brought under allegiance to the Pope by the Portuguese in 1599, and placed first under Jesuit bishops and then under Carmelite Vicar-Apostolics. They are at present ruled by an Archbishop and three suffragan Bishops of their own Syriac rite.

(2) Converts of the Portuguese missionaries from 1500 and onwards, starting from Goa and working in the south of the peninsula and up the west coast, Ceylon, Bengal, etc.

(3) European immigrants at all times, including British troops.

(4) Modern converts from Hinduism and Animism in recent mission centres.

(5) Recent converts from the Jacobite community in Malabar, of which 2 Bishops, 50 priests and Some 10,000 laity have been "united" to the Catholic Church.

The Portuguese mission enterprise, starting after 1500, continued for about 200 years, after which it began to decline. To meet this decline fresh missionaries were sent out by the Congregation *de propaganda fide*, till by the middle of the 19th century the whole country was divided out among them except such portions as were occupied by the Goa clergy. Hence arose a conflict of jurisdiction in many parts between the Portuguese clergy of the "Padroado" or royal patronage, and the propaganda clergy. This conflict was set at rest by the Concordat of 1886 (amended by the Agreement of 1928, abolishing "double jurisdiction"). At the same time the whole country was placed under a regular hierarchy, which after subsequent adjustments now stands as follows:—

Under the Sacred Congregation of **Extraordinary Ecclesiastical Affairs**:—

The archbishopric of Goa and Damaun (having some extension into British territory) with suffragan bishoprics at Cochin and Mylapore (both in British territory).

Under the Sacred Congregation of **Oriental Churches**:—

The archbishopric of Ernakulam, with Suffragan bishoprics of **Changanacherry, Kottayam and Trichur.**

The archbishopric of Trivandrum, with suffragan bishopric of **Tiruvella.**

Under the Sacred Congregation of **Propaganda Fide**:—

The archbishopric of Agra, with suffragan bishoprics of Allahabad and Ajmere.

The archbishopric of Bombay, with suffragan bishoprics of Poona, Mangalore, Calicut, Trichinopoly and Tuticorin.

The archbishopric of Calcutta, with suffragan bishoprics of Ranchi, Dacca, Chittagong, Krishnagar, Dinajpur and Patna and the Prefectures Apostolic of Assam and Sikkim.

The archbishopric of Madras, with suffragan bishoprics of Nellore, Hyderabad, Vizagapatam and Nagpur, the Prefecture-Apostolic of Jubbulpore, and the Missions of Cuttack and Bellary.

The archbishopric of Pondicherry (French), with suffragan bishoprics of Mysore, Coimbatore, Kumbakonam, Salem and Malacca.

The archbishopric of Simla, with suffragan bishopric of Lahore and the Prefecture-Apostolic of Kashmere.

The archbishopric of Verapoly, with suffragan bishoprics of Quilon, Kottar and Vijayapuram.

The archbishopric of Colombo (Ceylon), with suffragan bishoprics at Kandy, Galle, Jaffna and Trincomalee.

Three Vicariates Apostolic and one Prefecture Apostolic of Burma.

The European clergy engaged in India almost all belong to religious orders, congregation or mission seminaries, and in the great majority are either French, Belgian, Dutch, Swiss, Spanish or Italian by nationality. They number about 1,300 besides which there is a body of secular clergy mostly Indian, etc.,

numbering about 2,200, and probably about 2,000 nuns. The first work of the clergy is parochial ministration to existing Christians, including railway people and British troops. Second comes education, which is not confined to their own people; their schools being frequented by large numbers of Hindus, Mahomedans, Parsis, etc. Among the most important institutions are St. Xavier's College, Calcutta, St. Peter's College, Agra, St. Xavier's College, Bombay, St. Joseph's College, Trichinopoly, St. Aloysius College, Mangalore, Loyola College, Madras, teaching university courses; besides a large number of high schools and elementary schools. The education of girls is supplied for by numerous convent schools worked by religious congregations of nuns to say nothing of orphanages and other charitable institutions. The total number under education amounted in 1904 to 143,051 boys and 73,164 girls, later figures being unavailable. As to missionary work proper, the country is covered with numerous modern mission centres, among which those in the Punjab, Chota-Nagpur, Krishnagar, Gujerat, the Ahmednagar district and the Telugu coasts may be mentioned. (Full particulars on all points will be found in the Catholic Directory already quoted.) The mission work is limited solely by shortage of men and money, which if forthcoming would give the means to an indefinite extension. The resources of the clergy after the ordinary church collections and pay of a few military and railway chaplaincies are derived mainly from Europe, that is, from the collections of *the Society for the Propagation of the Faith* and of *the Holy Childhood*, helped out by private or other donations secured from home by the different local missionaries. In mission work the fathers count as enrolled only those who are baptised and persevering as Christians, and no baptism, except for infants or at point of death, is administered except after careful instruction and probation. This, while keeping down the record, has the advantage of guaranteeing solid results.

The Holy See is represented by a Delegate Apostolic of the East Indies who resides at Bangalore. At present this post is occupied by the Most Rev. Archbishop Kierkels, D.D., appointed in 1931.

THE CHURCH OF SCOTLAND.

The Church of Scotland and the United Free Church have become one. The Union, effected in October 1929, has already exerted a profound influence upon the life of the Church of Scotland in India. The Chaplaincy work of the Church of Scotland dates from 1814, when the Rev. Dr. Bryce landed in Calcutta, and organised a congregation of his Scottish fellow countrymen. The centenary of the churches in the three Presidency towns was celebrated: Calcutta, 1914; Bombay, 1919; Madras, 1921. Since 1903 there have been eighteen chaplains on the staff, of whom nine belong to the Bengal Presidency, five to Bombay, and four to Madras. These minister both to the Scottish troops and to the civil population of the towns where they are stationed, but when there is a Scottish regiment the chaplain is attached to the regiment, instead of being posted to the station where the regiment happens to be placed and as a rule moves with the regiment. There are three Presidency senior Chaplains in charge of Bengal, Bombay, and Madras respectively. There are churches in the chief towns of the Presidencies, and churches have also been built, in all considerable military stations, *e.g.*, Chakrata, Lucknow, Peshawar, Ranikhet, Rawalpindi, Sialkot, Umballa and Jubbulpore. In addition to the regular establishment there are a number of acting Chaplains sent out by the Colonial Committee of the Church of Scotland, and these are serving in such stations as Rawalpindi, Lahore, Cawnpore, Meerut, Mhow and Quetta. The Additional Clergy Societies in India contribute towards the cost of this additional establishment. In other places such as Sialkot, Murree, Dalhousie, and Darjeeling, regular services are provided by Scottish Missionaries. Simla has a minister of its own sent out from Scotland.

The Mission work of the Church of Scotland dates from 1829, when Alexander Duff, one of the greatest of modern missionaries, was sent to Calcutta. He was the first to open schools where English was made the medium for instruction, and where religious teaching was given daily. Similar educational missions were soon afterwards started in Bombay and Madras. Educational work is still an important branch of the mission work of the Church, but the Bombay College was closed in 1819 and in 1907 the College in Calcutta was united with the College of the United Free Church of Scotland, to form the Scottish Churches College. In the Punjab Evangelistic work is being carried on from eight centres under seventeen missionaries. The baptised Christian community now numbers over 14,000. Work commenced in Darjeeling in 1870 is now carried on throughout the whole Eastern Himalayan district, and there is a Christian community there of over 8,000. In the five mission districts of Calcutta, the Eastern Himalayas, Madras, Poona, and the Punjab there were at the end of 1919 over 24,787 baptised Indian Christians. In connection with these missions the Women's Association of Foreign Missions does invaluable service in school, medical and zenana work, having in India 41 European missionaries, 163 teachers, over 50 schools, three hospitals and six dispensaries.

The Church of Scotland has also done much to provide education for European children in India. Its two Churches in Bombay have six representatives on the governing body of the Anglo-Scottish Education Society, and the two churches exercise pastoral supervision over the Bombay Scottish Orphanage. In Bangalore there is the St.

Andrew's High School, and both in Bangalore and in Madras the local congregation supports the school for poor children. The Ayrcliff Girls' Boarding and High School is under the care of the Kirk-Session of St. Andrew's Church, Simla. The now well-known St. Andrew's Colonial Homes at Kalimpong, Bengal, though not directly part of the work of the Church of Scotland, were initiated by and are being locally managed by missionaries of that Church. The homes exist for the benefit of the domiciled European Community, and are doing magnificent work. There are now twenty cottages, and about 600 children in residence. Further information may be found in "Reports of the Schemes of the Church of Scotland," Blackwood & Sons; "The Church of Scotland Year Book" and "The Handbook of the Church of Scotland in India and Ceylon."

Though the former Churches of the United Free Church now belong to the Church of Scotland they remain independent of the establishment recognised by Government. They have only three purely European congregations in India, two in Calcutta, and one in Bombay.

The Church carries on Mission work in seven different areas. They are Bengal (Calcutta, Kalna and Chinsura); the Santal Parganas, with five stations; Western India (Bombay, Poona and Alibag); Hyderabad State (Jalna, Bethel and Parbhani); Madras (Madras City, Chingleput, Sriperumbudur and Conjeeveram); the Central Provinces (Nagpur, Bhandara, Wardha, and Amraoti); Rajputana, where the extensive work instituted by the United Presbyterian Church in 1860 is now carried on from eleven centres.

The work falls into three main divisions, evangelistic, medical, and educational. The Christian community has been organised in all the chief centres into congregations which form part of the Indian Presbyterian Church, and this Church is seeking to take an increasing share in the work of evangelism. There are nineteen Mission Hospitals, among which are four excellently equipped and staffed Women's Hospitals, in Madras, Nagpur, Ajmer, and Jaipur. From the days of Duff in Calcutta and Wilson in Bombay the Mission has given a prominent place to education. It has many schools in all parts of its field and it has also made a large contribution to the work of higher education through four Christian Colleges. The Scottish Churches College, Calcutta, is well known. The Madras Christian College, which owes so much to the work of Dr. William Miller, is now under the direction of a Board representing several Missionary Societies. Other Colleges are Wilson College, Bombay, and Hislop College, Nagpur.

BAPTIST SOCIETIES.

THE BAPTIST MISSIONARY SOCIETY OF GREAT BRITAIN.—Formed in 1792, largely through the efforts of Dr. Wm. Carey, operates mainly in Bengal, Bihar and Orissa, the United Provinces, the Punjab and Ceylon. The Baptist Zenana Mission and the Bible Translation Society have been united with this Society. The staff of the united Mission in India and Ceylon numbers 211 missionaries and about 1,070 Indian and Singhalese workers. Connected with the Society are 347 Indian and Singhalese Churches, 299 Primary Day Schools, 20 Middle and High Schools, and 1 Theological Training College. The Church membership at the close of 1931 stood at 22,128 and the Christian community at 60,344. The membership during the past ten years has increased by about 53 per cent. and the community by 50 per cent. in the same period. Amongst the non-caste people great progress has been made in recent years, and many of the Churches formed from amongst these peoples are self-supporting.

Special work amongst students is carried on in Calcutta, Dacca, Cuttack, Patna and Delhi, where hostels have been erected for the prosecution of this form of work.

EDUCATIONAL WORK.—Ranges from Primary School to Colleges. Serampore College, the only College in India able to bestow a theological degree granted under Royal Charter by His Danish Majesty in 1827, confirmed by the British Government in the Treaty of purchase of the Settlement of Serampore in 1845, and placed in 1856 by the College Council at the disposal of the Baptist Missionary Society to become a part of its Missionary Educational operations, in Arts and Theology. It was affiliated in 1857 to the newly-formed Calcutta University; reorganised in 1910 on the lines of its original foundation with the appointment of a qualified Theological Staff on an Inter-denominational basis for the granting of Theological Degrees to qualified students of all Churches.

As the only College in India granting a Theological Degree a large number of students are now resident in the College. In Arts, the College prepares for the Calcutta Arts Examinations. *Principal*: Rev. G. H. C. Angus, M.A., B.D.

There is a vernacular institute also at Cuttack for the training of Indian preachers and Bible schools in several centres.

There are 9 or 10 purely English Baptist Churches connected with the Society, but English services are carried on in many of the stations. Medical work connected with the Society is carried on in 9 Hospitals, and 6 Dispensaries. Two large Printing Presses for both English and Vernacular work are conducted at Calcutta and Cuttack. The Secretary of the Mission is the Rev. D. Scott Wells; 44, Lower Circular Road, Calcutta.

The Headquarters of the Mission are at 19, Furnival Street, Holborn, London. The total expenditure of the Society for 1931 amounted to £196,827.

THE CANADIAN BAPTIST MISSION.—Was commenced in 1873, and is located in the Telugu Country to the north of Madras, in the Kistna, Godavari, Vizagapatam and Ganjam Districts. There are 22 stations and 553 outstations with a staff of 104 missionaries including 9 qualified physicians, and 1,379 Indian workers, with Gospel preaching in 1,536 villages. Organised Churches number 120, communicants 25,728 and adherents 19,000 for the past year. Forty-one Churches are entirely self-supporting. In the Educational department are 560 village day schools, with 20,371 children, 15 boarding schools, 2 High schools, 2 Normal Training schools, a Bible Training School for Women, a Theological Seminary providing in all for 1,000 pupils, and an Industrial school. There are 6 Hospitals, two leper asylums and an Orphanage. The Mission publishes a Telugu newspaper. Village Evangelisation is the central feature of the Mission, and stress is laid upon the work amongst women and children. During the last decade membership has increased by 63 per cent., the Christian community by 20 per cent., and scholars by 105 per cent. Indian Secretary is the Rev. A. Arthur Scott, Tuni, East Godawari.

AMERICAN BAPTIST FOREIGN MISSION SOCIETY, organized in 1814, has Missions in Burma begun 1813; Assam 1836; Bengal and Orissa 1836; South India 1840. It owes its rise to the celebrated Adoniram Judson. Until 1910 the Society was known as the American Baptist Missionary Union. There are 33 main stations in Burma, 13 in Assam, 10 in Bengal Orissa, 29 in South India, besides many outstations. All forms of missionary enterprise come within the scope of the Society.

The great work of the Mission continues to be evangelistic and the training of the native preachers and Bible-Women, and extends to many races and languages, the most important of which, in Burma, has been the practical transformation of the Karens, whose language has been reduced to writing by the Mission. The work in Assam embraces 9 different languages and large efforts are made amongst the employees of the tea plantations. The Mission Press at Rangoon is the largest and finest in Burma.

Last year the field staff numbered 314 missionaries, 7,064 Native workers. There were 1,892 Churches of which 1,272 were self supporting. Church members number 1,27,828. In the 2,107 Sunday Schools were enrolled 9,60,000 pupils. The Mission conducted 2,741 schools of all grades with 91,091 students enrolled. 14 Hospitals and 34 Dispensaries treated 6,364 in-patients and 1,05,879 out-patients. Indian Christians contributed over Rs. 6,74,000 for this religious and benevolent work during the year.

THE AMERICAN BAPTIST ASSAM MISSION, was opened in 1836, and has 12 main stations staffed by about 50 missionaries. There are 1,038 native workers, 891 organized churches, 53,186 baptised members, 442 schools of all grades including 2 High, 2 Normal, 3 Bible and 14 station schools. 3 Hospitals and 5 Dispensaries treated 1,249 in-patients and 24,147 out-patients during the year. Mission work is carried out in 10 different languages.

Treasurer and Corresponding Secretary: Miss Marion G. Burnham, Gauhati, Assam.

AMERICAN BAPTIST, BENGAL-ORISSA MISSION, commenced in 1836. Area of operation: Midnapore district of Lower Bengal, Balasore district of Orissa and Jamshedpur Mission staff 36, Indian workers 310. Two English Churches and 32 Vernacular Churches, Christian Community 2,686. Educational: Two Boys' High Schools and two Girls' High Schools and 115 Elementary Schools, pupils 4,220. One Industrial School, known as Balasore Technical School, for carpentering, iron work and motor mechanics. The Vernacular Press of this mission printed the first literature in the Santali language.

Secretary—Mr. W. S. Dunn, Bhudrak, Orissa.

THE AMERICAN BAPTIST TELUGU MISSION—Was commenced in the year 1836, and covers large parts of Nellore, Guntur, Kistna, and Kurnool Districts, parts of the Deccan and an important work in Madras and the surrounding vicinity. Its main work is evangelism, but there are also Educational and Medical Institutions of importance. Industrial Settlement work for the Erukalas is carried on at Kavali and vicinity. Industrial departments are maintained also in connection with the Mission High Schools at Nellore, Ongole and Kurnool. Organized Telugu Churches number 326, with 105,596 baptized communicants. There are 88 missionaries, and 2,720 Indian workers. The mission maintains a Theological Seminary at Ramapatnam for the training of Indian preachers. A Bible Training School for the training of Telugu women is located in Nellore. A total of 36,942 receive instruction in 1,270 primary schools, 16 secondary schools and 4 high schools. In Medical work 7 Hospitals and 11 Dispensaries report 5,391 in-patients, 95,108 out-patients, and 115,073 treatments during the year.

Secretary—Rev. F. Kurtz, D.D., 39, Oxford Street, Secunderabad, Deccan.

THE AUSTRALIAN BAPTIST FOREIGN MISSION.—(Incorporated) Embracing the societies representing the Baptist Churches of the States of the Australian Commonwealth. The field of operations is in East Bengal. The staff numbers 42 Australian workers. There are 3,021 communicants and a Christian community of 5,639.

Secretary, Field Council: The Rev. W. G. Crofts, B.A., Biri Siri Mission House, P. O. Hatshipganj, Dist. Mymensingh.

THE STRICT BAPTIST MISSION.—Has 18 European Missionaries, and 223 Indian workers in Madras, Chingleput, Salem, Ramnad and Tinnevelly Districts. Communicants number 1,366; organised churches 51; elementary schools 82, with 3,043 pupils.

Treasurer and Secretary: Rev. D. Morling, Kovilpatti, Tinnevelly District.

PRESBYTERIAN SOCIETIES.

THE IRISH PRESBYTERIAN CHURCH MISSION.—Operates in Gujarat and Kathiawar with a staff of 36 Missionaries, of whom 13 are clerical, 14 Educationalists, 6 are Doctors and 2 Nurses. The Indian staff numbers 524, of whom 15 are Pasters, 87 Evangelists, 4 Colporteurs, 41 Bible-women, and 348 are Teachers. There are 19 Organised Churches, a communicant roll of 2,358, and a Christian Community of 7,739. In Medical work there are 4 Hospitals and several Dispensaries, with 1,714 in-patients, 17,377 new cases, and a total attendance of 67,819. The Mission conducts 3 High Schools, 1 Anglo-Vernacular School, 1 Preparatory School at Parantij and 131 Vernacular schools affording tuition for 6,724 pupils; also, 1 créche, 4 Orphanages, an Industrial School at Borsad, a Teachers' Training College for Women at Borsad, a Divinity College at Ahmedabad, and a Mission Press at Surat. The Mission has made a speciality of Farm Colonies, of which there are about a score in connection with it, most of them thriving.

The Jungle Tribes Mission with 7 Missionaries is a branch of the activities of the above, working in the Panch Mahals and Rewa Kantha districts, with Farm Colonies attached.

Secretary: Rev. George Wilson, B.A., Ahmedabad.

THE UNITED PRESBYTERIAN CHURCH OF NORTH AMERICA.—The Sialkot Mission of this Church was established at Sialkot in the Punjab, in 1855. It is now carrying on work in ten civil districts in the Punjab and two in the North-West Frontier Province. Its missionaries number 113, including married ladies and its Indian workers 316. Its educational work composes one Theological Seminary, one College, four High Schools, one Industrial school, seven Middle schools and 134 Primary schools. The enrolment in all schools in 1930 was 13,209. Medical work is carried on through five Hospitals and four Dispensaries. The communicant membership of the Church which has been established was 44,753 in 1931 and the total Christian community 95,216.

General Secretary: Rev. H. C. Chambers, D.D., Gordon College, Rawalpindi.

THE AMERICAN PRESBYTERIAN MISSION operates in three main sections known as the Punjab, North India and Western India Missions. The American staff, including women, numbers 256, and the Indian staff 1,135. There are thirty-four main stations and 229 out-stations. Organised churches number 100, of which thirty-two are self-supporting. There are 13,826 communicants and a total baptized community of 61,487.

Educational work as follows:—Two men's colleges and an interest in the Isabella Thoburn and Kinnaird Colleges for Women, students about 1,820; one Theological College, students thirty-four; two Training Schools for Village Workers, students about 180; twelve High Schools, students about 3,400; three Industrial Schools; three Agricultural Demonstration Farms; five Teachers' Training Departments; The Miraj Medical School and an interest in the Ludhiana Medical College for Women, students about 170; 280 Elementary Schools; 241 Schools of all grades, pupils about 12,023.

Medical Work:—Seven Hospitals; twenty-four Dispensaries.

Evangelistic Work:—331 Sunday Schools, with an attendance of 11,503 pupils. Contributions for church and evangelistic work, on the part of the Indian church, Rs. 71,254.

The Hospital at Miraj, founded by the late Sir William J. Wanless and now under the care of C. E. Vail, is well-known throughout the whole of S.W. India, and the Forman Christian College at Lahore, under the principalship of Dr. S. K. Datta, is equally well-known and valued in the Punjab. The Ewing Christian College (Dr. C. H. Rice, Principal) has grown rapidly in numbers and influence.

Secretary of Council of A. P. Missions in India:—Rev. J. L. Dodds, D.D., "Lowriston", Dehra Dun, U. P.

Secretary, North India Mission:—Rev. W. L. Allison, B.A., B.D., Gwalior, C.I.

Secretary, Punjab Mission:—Rev. J. B. Weir, M.A., Ewing Hall, Lahore.

Secretary, Western India Mission:—Rev. D. B. Updegraff, M.A., D.D., Nipani, Belgaum District.

THE NEW ZEALAND PRESBYTERIAN MISSION—Commenced as recently as 1910 at Jagadhri, Punjab.

Secretary: Miss B. J. Hardie, Jagadhri, Dist. Amballa.

THE UNITED CHURCH OF CANADA MISSION.—Commenced in 1877 has 14 main stations in Indore, Gwalior, Rutlam, Dhar, Jaora, Sitamau, Bhopal and Banswara States. The Mission staff numbers 80, Indian workers 200. This Mission works in conjunction with the Malwa Church-Council of the United Church of Northern India, which reports for this part of its territory:—Organised churches 21; Unorganised churches 8; Communicants 2,158; Baptised non-communicants 5,387; Unbaptised adherents 649; Total Christian Community 8,194.

Educational work comprises Elementary and Middle Schools for boys and girls; a High School for girls, an Arts College for students of both sexes (The Indore Christian College), a Normal School for girls, and the Malwa Theological Seminary. Women's industrial work is carried on in Mhow and Rutlam, and Vocational Training for boys is a feature of the Rasalpura Boys' School, where training is provided in printing, tailoring, carpentry and motor mechanics.

The Medical work is large. There are three General Hospitals, where both men and women are treated, and five Women's Hospitals, and also a number of dispensaries in central and out-stations.

General Secretary of Mission:—Rev. A. A. Scott, M.A., B.D., B. Paed., Indore, C.I.

Associate Secretary of Mission:—Miss F. E. Clearihue, Kharua, C. I. (*Via* Mehidpur Rd. Station).

Secretary of Malwa Church-Council:—Rev. F. H. Russell, M.A., D.D., Rutlam, C. I.

The Canadian Presbyterian Mission operates in two sections, the Northern Section with headquarters at Jhansi in the U.P., and the Central India Section, known as the Southern Bhil Field.

In Central India the five central stations are located in the States of Alirajpur and Jobat and Barwani, but the Mission comprises within its area the States of Jhabua and Kathiawar, also part of Chhota Udaipur in the Bombay Presidency and parts of Dhar, Indore and Gwalior States bordering on the Jobat-Barwani Road. The Staff in Central India consists of 20 missionaries and 42 Indian workers. There are several elementary schools in the area and a central and vernacular School for boys and girls at Amkhut and Alirajpur States. At Amkhet also there is a Children's Nursery Home and dispensary and a General Hospital for the area is located at Jobat. In the district there are five organised and 2 unorganised churches with 239 communicant members and a baptised community of 805.

Secretary.—Thomas Draper, M.R.C.S. (Lond.), M.R.C.P. (Ed). Jobat, *Via* Dohad, Central India.

The Jhansi Section formerly known as the Gwalior Mission was founded by the late Dr. J. Wilkie in 1905. There is now a staff of twelve missionaries and twenty-five Indian workers who are engaged in Jhansi city, Esagarh, Baragaon and the surrounding villages.

Activities include Anglo-vernacular middle schools for both boys and girls and hostels for Christian pupils in each. There is also an orphanage for children under school age, a dispensary and an industrial school for boys. There is an agricultural settlement at Esagarh where the Mission has a farm of 1,200 acres.

There are two organised churches having a communicant membership of 150.

Secretary.—The Rev. A. A. Lowther, M.A., B.D.

THE WELSH CALVINISTIC METHODIST (PRESBYTERIAN) MISSION established in 1840 with a staff of 40 Missionaries, 950 Indian workers, occupies stations in Assam in the Khassia and Jaintia Hills, the Lushai Hills and at Sylhet and Cachar. The Khassia language has been reduced to writing, the Bible translated, and many books published in that language by the Mission. A large amount of literature has also been produced in the Lushai language. Communicants number 35,396; the total Christian community 92,923; organised Churches 721; Elementary schools number 678, Scholars 20,243 in addition to Industrial Schools and Training Institutions 3 Theological Seminaries, Sunday Schools 822 and Scholars 54,047. Four Hospitals and several Dispensaries provide annually for more than 10,000 patients.

Secretary: Rev. F. J Sandy, Durtlang, Aijal.

THE ARCOT MISSION OF THE REFORMED CHURCH.—In America organised in 1853 occupies most of the North and South Arcot and Chittoor districts in S. India with a staff of 55 Missionaries and 801 Indian workers. Churches number 16, Communicants 7,452; Total Christian Community 26,442; Boarding Schools 17, Scholars 1,129; Theological School 1, students 31; Voorhees College, Vellore, students 137, High Schools 4, Scholars 1,887; Training Schools 2, students 120; Industrial Schools 2, Agricultural Farm and School 1, total pupils 280; Elementary schools 225, Scholars 9,716. Two Hospitals and 4 Dispensaries with a staff of 68 provided for 2,617 in-patients and 29,571 out-patients excluding the Union Medical College Hospitals and Dispensaries, Vellore.

The Union Mission Medical College for South India and a Union Mission Training School are located at Vellore, the headquarters of the Mission. The Union Mission Tuberculosis Sanitarium for S. India is near Madanapalle, Arogiavaram, P.O., Chittoor District.

Secretary:—Rev. W. H. Farrar, Arni, S. India.

CONGREGATIONAL SOCIETIES.

THE AMERICAN BOARD OF COMMISSIONERS FOR FOREIGN MISSIONS.—Has two large Missions, the American Marathi Mission, and the Madura Mission. The Marathi Mission covers a considerable part of the Bombay Presidency, with centres at Bombay, Ahmednagar, Satara and Sholapur. It was commenced in 1813, the first American Mission in India. Its activities are large and varied. The staff at the beginning of 1932 consisted of 52 missionaries in all, and 506 Indian workers operating in 9 stations and 99 outstations. Organized churches number 65 with 6,406 communicants, and 1,831 unbaptized adherents. There is a work for lepers at Sholapur. The educational work includes 10 secondary and training schools, with 1,151 pupils; and 68 primary schools, with 4,145 pupils, three-fifths of whom are non-Christians. Zenana work and industrial work are vigorously carried on, the latter embracing carpentry and lace work. A school for the blind is conducted in Bombay on both educational and industrial lines. In the hospitals and dispensaries of the Mission last year, 60,622 patients were treated. This Mission was the first to translate the Christian scriptures into the Marathi tongue. At Sholapur a settlement for Criminal Tribes is carried on by the Mission under the supervision of Government. *Secretary:* Rev. W. Q. Swart, Ahmednagar.

THE MADURA MISSION.—In the south of the Presidency, founded in 1834, has a staff of 58 missionaries and 930 Indian workers, operates in the Madura and Ramnad Districts and has a communicant roll of 11,854 and a total Christian community of 33,754 and 34 organized Churches most of which are entirely self-supporting and self-governing. These Churches are an integral part of the South India United Church. Schools number 287 with 15,834 pupils. In Madura there are a First Grade College, High and Training schools for girls and hospitals for men and women. At Pasumalai, three miles from Madura, a High School, Training School, Union Theological Seminary and Trade School. Five elementary Boarding Schools are found in as many out-stations, industrial work is increasingly a part of the curricula of all schools above the lower grade. The *Secretary* is the Rev. John J. Banninga, M.A., D.D., Pasumalai.

The Mission celebrates its Centenary in January, 1934, and immediately thereafter will cease to exist as an authoritative body but will hand over its authority for the conduct

of all its work to a body to be known as The Madura Mission Sangam, which will consist of some 45 members, the majority of whom must be Indian. The American College, Madura, will be reorganised under an independent Council.

THE SCANDINAVIAN ALLIANCE MISSION OF NORTH AMERICA.—The mission staff in Khandesh is represented by seventeen missionaries, and 39 Indian workers. There are 253 church members in good standing with 637 in Sunday Schools. 14 Elementary Schools provide for 376 pupils.

Secretary :—Miss Olga E. Noreen, Navapur, West Khandesh.

THE SWEDISH ALLIANCE MISSION.—Working among Bhils, Hindus and Muhammedans in West Khandesh, has 28 missionaries and 68 Indian workers. There are 8 congregations with a total membership of 942 of whom 435 are communicants. There are 9 Elementary Schools, 2 Training Schools and 5 School Homes. The pupils in all schools are 380.

Secretary :—The Rev. S. Ohlson, Mandalwar, *Via* Taloda, W. Khandesh.

FREE CHURCH OF FINLAND MISSION.—Total Mission staff is represented by 6 Missionaries, 1 native pastor, 2 Catechists, 5 teachers. There are about 130 communicants and total community 450. Four day schools, 1 evening school, 2 dispensaries and weaving and wool-cord industries.

Secretary :—Rev. E. A. Ollila, Ghum, D. H. Railway.

THE LONDON MISSIONARY SOCIETY.—Commenced work in India in 1798 and occupies 3 centres in N. India, 12 in S. India and 7 in Travancore. The Mission engages in every form of Missionary activity.

The European staff numbers 87, Indian workers 2,450, Organised Churches 520; Communicants 25,311 and Christian Community 177,795. There are 1 Christian College, students 159; 2 Theological Institutions, students 70; 4 Training Institutions, pupils, 114; 12 high schools, pupils 4,849; 25 Boarding schools, scholars, 1,167 and 862 Elementary schools with 46,371 scholars. In medical work Hospitals number 6, Nurses 7 Europeans and 33 Assistants, 14 qualified doctors, 9 Europeans and 62 Assistants and 10,413 in-patients and 206,276 out-patients for the year.

The main centres of the Mission in N. India are at Calcutta and Murshidabad. L.M.S. work in the United Provinces has been closed but a Union Mission of the W. M. S., C. M. S. and L. M. S. has been opened in Benares City with the Rev. J. C. Jackson of the L. M. S. as Superintendent. This Mission concentrates especially on work amongst pilgrims and students. Special efforts are made amongst the Nama Sudras. The S. India district and Travancore are divided into the Kanarese, Telugu, Tamil, and Malayalam fields with 19 stations and 959 outstations. At Nagercoil (Travancore) is the Scott Christian College and High School with 985 students, a Church and congregation said to be the largest in India, and a Printing Press, the centre of the S. Travancore Tract Society.

Bengal Secretary : Rev. H. A. Wilson, B.A., 1C, Ashutosh Murkerji Road. Calcutta.

South India—Secretary and Treasurer—Rev. George Parker, M.A., B.D., 18, Lavelle Road, Bangalore.

Benares Superintendent.—Rev. J. C. Jackson, Benares, U. P.

ALL-INDIA MISSIONS.

THE CHRISTIAN AND MISSIONARY ALLIANCE.—Dates from the year 1893 under the name of the International Missionary Alliance, but in number of its missionaries were at work Berar Province much earlier. Work is carried on in the Provinces of Berar, Khandesh and Gujarat. There is a staff of 58 missionaries and 128 Indian workers. The number of mission stations is 16 with additional outstations. There is a Christian community of 2,339 adults. There are 4 Boarding Schools, 2 for boys and 2 for girls. 1 Training School for Indian workers and 1 English congregation at Bhusawal.

Executive Secretary :—Rev. K. D. Garrison, Akola, Berar, C.P.

THE CHURCH OF THE BRETHREN (AMERICAN) —Opened work in 1895, and operates in Broach, Surat and Thana Districts, also in Baroda and Rajpipla States. Its staff number 49 foreign workers including missionaries' wives, and 200 Indian workers. The Baptized (immersed) membership stands at 4,871. Education is carried on in 7 Girls' Boarding Schools, 7 Boarding Schools for Boys, and 121 Village Day Schools. Females under instruction number 719, males 2,927, total under instruction 3,698. There are 47 Sunday Schools having 200 teachers and a total enrolment of 4,711. There were 32,052 calls at mission dispensaries in 1932. The foreign medical staff consists of 3 doctors, 4 nurses. Industrial work is carried on in eight of the Boarding Schools. A vocational school, including teachers' training, village trades and agriculture for boys and a school of practical arts for girls are conducted at Anklesvar. Evangelistic, Temperance and Publication work receive due emphasis.

Secretary :—L. A. Blickenstaff, Bulsar, Surat District.

THE POONA AND INDIAN VILLAGE MISSION—Founded in 1893. Mission Stations :—Khed Shivapur, Poona District, Nasrapur (Bher State), Poona District; Lonand, M.S.M. Ry., Satara District; Phaltan, Satara District; and Pandharpur and Nateputa Sholapur District. The staff consists of 46 European and 47 Indian workers, with a community of about 67 Indian Christians and their families. The main work is evangelising in the villages, women's zenana work, and primary education. Medical work is conducted at each station, with a hospital at Pandharpur. Headquarters: 44, Sassoon Road, Poona.

Secretary :—J. W. Stothard.

THE AMERICAN CHURCHES OF GOD MISSION —Has four missionaries at Bogra, one at Khan-

janpur, Bogra District, Bengal, and two at Ulubaria, Howrah District.

Executive Secretary:—Rev. H. W. Cover, M.A., Bogra, E.B.R.

Recording Secretary:—Rev. A. E. Myers, B.A., Ulubaria, Howrah Dist.

THE INDIA CHRISTIAN MISSION.—Founded in 1897, has 41 Organised Churches, 17 Missionaries, 53 stations and out-stations, 1,759 Communicants, 51 Primary schools and one Industrial School and Bible School in the Ellore District, also Station at Dodballapur, near Bangalore, S. India, also Colony for young people of mixed parentage, Champawat, *via* Almora, U. P. stations also in Nuwara Eliya Mulpotha Uva Province and Polgahawella, Ceylon; Girls' Orphanage at Nuwara Eliya; Industrial Homes for children of mixed parentage, Nuwara Eliya. Total Christian community 4,092. Magazines:—English *Missionary Notes* and Telugu *I. C. M. Messenger*.

Directors:—Rev. Arnold Paynter, Champawat, Almora, U. P. and Mrs. A. L. Paynter, Nuwara Eliya, Ceylon.

THE CHURCH OF THE NAZARENE MISSION.—Has its headquarters for India at Buldana, Berar, where it has a Boys' Boarding School, In Chikhli, 14 miles from Buldana there is a Girls' Boarding School. At present there are six missionaries in India and a force of 31 Indian Preachers, teachers and Bible women.

President of the Council:—Rev. L. S. Tracy, Buldana, Berar.

THE HEPHZIBALE FAITH MISSIONARY ASSOCIATION:—Has five missionaries in India. They are Rev. and Mrs. D. W. Zoak, and Rev. and Mrs. W. J. Brown Adra, B. N. Rly., and Miss E. K. Laudis Raghunathpur Manbhum District.

THE TIBETAN MISSION—Has 3 Missionaries with headquarters at Darjeeling, and Tibet as its objective. *Secretary*—Miss J. Ferguson, Darjeeling.

THE INDIAN MISSIONARY SOCIETY OF TINNEVELLY (DORNAKAL MISSION)—Opened in 1903 operates in the Warangal District of the Nizam's Dominions as well as among the hill tribes called Paliars in the British and Travancore Hills. It is the missionary effort of the Tamil Christians of Tinnevelly. There are now nearly 7,078 Telugu Christians in 133 villages and 379 Paliar Christians in the hills. *Secretary*—Rev. D. J. Devapiriam, Palamcottah.

THE MISSION TO LEPERS—Founded in 1874, is an inter-denominational and international Society for the establishment and maintenance of Homes and Institutions for Lepers and of their untainted children working in 15 countries but largely in India, China, Korea and Japan. Its work in India is carried on through co-operation with 30 Missionary Societies. In India alone the Mission now has 36 Asylums of its own with upwards of 6,000 inmates and is aiding or has some connection with work for lepers at 22 other places in India. Altogether in India over 7,000 lepers are being helped.

The Mission also provides for the segregation of the healthy children of lepers from their diseased parents. More than 800 children are thus being saved from becoming lepers.

An important feature of the work of the Mission is the measure of successful medical treatment whereby early cases both adults and children are now benefiting.

Most of the Mission's income is received from voluntary contributions. Some funds are raised in India, but the bulk of the money expended by the Mission in India is received from Britain, although the provincial Government give regular maintenance grants.

There is an Indian Auxiliary of the Mission to Lepers, of which H. E. Lady Sykes, who represents the Bombay Presidency, is a Vice-President.

Hon. Treasurer:—Henry F. Lewis, Esq., 12, Dalhousie Sq., Calcutta.

Hon. Treasurer, Bombay:—R. C. Lowndes, Esq., C/o Messrs. Killick, Nixon & Co., Bombay.

The General Secretary of the Mission is Mr. W. H. P. Anderson, 7, Bloomsbury Square, London, W. C. The Secretary for India is Mr. A. Donald Miller, Purulia, Bihar.

THE REGIONS BEYOND MISSIONARY UNION,—An inter-denominational Society commenced work at Mothihari, Bihar, in 1900, and now occupies 6 stations and 9 out-stations in the Champaran and Saran Districts, with a staff of 17 European and 2 Indian Missionaries and 40 other Indian workers. The Mission maintains 1 Hospital, 1 Girls' Orphanage, 1 Boys' Orphanage and Boarding School with Carpentry industrial department, 1 M. E. School with 200 pupils. Communicants number 80. *Secretary*: Rev. P. O. Wynd, Laukaria Hospital, Bagaba P. O., Champaram District.

THE RANAUL MEDICAL MISSION, affiliated with the Regions beyond Missionary Union has 1 Hospital at Raxaul, Champaran District, with 1 married European Doctor, 1 European Nursing Sister, and 7 Indian workers.

Secretary—Dr. H. C. Duncan.

THE NATIONAL MISSIONARY SOCIETY OF INDIA—Established 1905, started, financed and managed by Indian Christians, has a staff of 27 Missionaries and 93 helpers and Voluntary workers operates in Montgomery District (the Punjab), Sirathu and Khaga, (U.P.), Haluaghat, Mymensingh District (Bengal), Jharsugudah (B. & O.), Murwahi (C.P.), North Kanara, Mirajgaon and Karmala, Talukas (Bombay), Parkal Taluk (Nizam's Dominions) and Tirupattur Taluk (N. Arcot) Thirty-four Elementary Schools and 1 High School with hostel, one printing press, three Dispensaries and two Hospitals. Annual expenditure Rs. 80,000. *The National Missionary Intelligencer* (a monthly journal in English sold at Re. 1 per year post free), *Qasid* (a monthly journal in Persian-Urdu) at Rs. 2-8-0, *Deepekai* (a monthly journal in Tamil and Kanarese) at 8 annas per year, post free.

Address:—N. M. S. Office, Vepery, Madras.

President:—The Rt. Rev. Abraham Mar Thoma, M.A., D.D.

General Secretary:—Rai Bahadur A. C. Mukerji, B.A. *Associate Secretary*: Thos. David, B.A., B.D.

THE SEVENTH-DAY ADVENTIST MISSION—The Seventh-day Adventists commenced mission work in India in 1893, and now employ a staff of five hundred and eighty workers, European and Indian, including one hundred and forty ordained and licensed ministers. Evangelistic and educational work is conducted in sixteen vernaculars, beside work for English-speaking peoples in the large cities. For administrative purposes, there are five branch organizations located as follows :—

Seventh-day Adventist Mission—Western India. (J. S. James, Superintendent). *Office Address :* 8, Dhondy Road, Devlali, Nasik District.

Seventh-day Adventist Mission—Burma. (J. L. Christian, Superintendent). *Office Address :* 30, Voyle Road, Rangoon Cantonment, Burma.

Seventh-day Adventist Mission—North-East India. (G. G. Lowry, Superintendent). *Office Address :* Hinoo P.O., Ranchi.

Seventh-day Adventist Mission—North-West India. (A. H. Williams, Superintendent). *Office Address :* 17, Abbott Road, Lucknow.

Seventh-day Adventist Mission—South India. (E. M. Meleen, Superintendent). *Office Address :* 10, Cunningham Road, Bangalore

The general headquarters for India and Burma is located at Salisbury Park, Poona. A. W. Cormack, President; C. L. Torrey, Secretary and Treasurer. (Office Address: Post Box 15, Poona). On the same estate is an up-to-date publishing house devoted entirely to the printing of health, evangelical, and associated literature. (Address: Oriental Watchman Publishing Association, Post Box 35, Poona).

A large number of day and boarding vernacular and Anglo-Vernacular schools are conducted in different parts of the country; and at Vincent Hill School, Mussoorie, European education is provided, a regular high school course, with more advanced work for commercial and other special students, being available. In all the denominational boarding schools increasing emphasis is being laid on vocational work, the students being required to share in the domestic work of the institutions, and in many cases, to engage in some trades or other work.

Nine physicians, one maternity worker, (C.M.B.) and a number of qualified nurses are employed, regular medical work being conducted at twenty stations.

The baptised membership (adult) is about 4,000, organized into 96 churches; and in addition a substantial community of enquirers is receiving systematic instruction. 261 Sabbath Schools are conducted with an enrolled membership of about 8,000.

The Bombay address is 1, Kamal Mansions, Colaba.

THE AMERICAN MENNONITE MISSION.—Established 1899, works in the C. Provinces Mission staff numbers 35, Indian workers 55, Church members 1,400, Industrial Training Institutions 2, Academy including High School, Normal School and Bible School—Anglo-Vernacular Schools 2, Elementary Schools 11, Orphanages 2, Widows' Home 1, Hospital 1, Dispensaries 7, Leper Home 1, Home for untainted children of lepers 2, Leper Clinic 5.

Secretary: Rev. J. N. Kaufman, Dhamtari, C. P.

THE GENERAL CONFERENCE—MENNONITE MISSION—Started in 1901 in the C. Provinces. Workers number 23; Leper, Medical Orphan, Zenana, Evangelistic and Educational work carried on. *Secretary*: Rev. P. W. Penner, Janjgir, C. P.

THE KURKU AND CENTRAL INDIA HILL MISSION.—Established 1890 in the C. P. and Berar, has a mission staff of 17, Indian workers 20, Churches 9, Communicants 304; Christian Community 509; 2 Boarding Schools with 72 boarders and 2 elementary schools.

Secretary.—Rev. Carl Wyder, Ellichpur, Berar, C. P.

THE CEYLON AND INDIA GENERAL MISSION.—Established 1892, occupies stations in Mysore State, in the Coimbatore and Anantapur Districts and also stations in Horana, Ceylon. Mission staff 36; Indian workers 130; Churches 13; Communicants 900; Christian community 3,100; Orphanages 4; Elementary Schools 35; Pupils 1,300.

Secretary.—N. F. Silsbee, Ali Asker Road, Bangalore.

THE BOYS' CHRISTIAN HOME MISSION.—Owes its existence to a period of famine, was commenced in 1899. Mission staff 17, Indian workers 125. There are elementary schools with three orphanages, two boys and one girl, and a Widows' Home, where Industrial training is given. There are four main stations—At Dhond, in the Poona District and at Bahraich, Orai and Benares in United Provinces. At Benares there is an Industrial Training Institution with about one hundred attendants learning the Motor, Electrical and Carpentry trades. There are also 34 out-stations. *Director*: Rev. John E. Norton, Dhond, Poona District. *Secretary*: W. K. Norton, Benares, U. P.

Ladies' Societies.

ZENANA BIBLE AND MEDICAL MISSION.—This is an inter-denominational society, with headquarters, 33, Surrey Street, London, working among women and girls in 5 stations in the Bombay Presidency, 10 in United Provinces, and 4 in the Punjab. There are 74 European Missionary ladies on the staff and 22 Assistant Missionaries, 247 Indian teachers and nurses and 56 Bible women. During 1932 there were 4,777 in-patients in the three hospitals supported by the Society (Nasik, Lucknow and Patna), but the Victoria Hospital, Benares, and Jaunpur, were closed. There were 24,908 out-patients, 86,968 attendances at the Dispensaries. In their 31 schools were 3,173 pupils and there is a University Department at Lahore. The evangelistic side of the work is largely done by house to house visitations and teaching the women in Zenanas, 1,315 women were regularly taught and 1,342 houses were visited. The 56 Bible women visited 467 villages; the number of houses was 147; major operations 620; minor operations 780. Total expenditure £57,732.

Hon. Treasurer: The Lord Meston of Dunottar.

President.—The Lady Kinnaird.

Secretaries:—Rev. E. S. Carr, M.A. (Hon.) Rev. Canon L. B. Butcher, Lieut. Commander, N. H. Bonham-Carter.

WOMEN'S CHRISTIAN MEDICAL COLLEGE, WITH WHICH IS INCORPORATED THE PUNJAB MEDICAL SCHOOL FOR WOMEN.—In 1894 the North India School of Medicine for Christian Women was opened in Ludhiana in order to give a Medical Education under Christian influences to Indian Women. Doctor Edith Brown, D.B.E., M.A., M.D., was its Founder and Principal. The School was Inter-denominational, and trained students for various Missionary Societies.

Clinical work was at first given at the Charlotte Hospital which belonged to the Ludhiana Zenana and Medical Mission. The Memorial Hospital was opened in 1900, and has now 200 beds. In 1913 non-Christian Students were also admitted for training, and the name was modified to its present title given above.

In 38 years 236 medical students have qualified as doctors, besides 127 as compounders, 157 as nurses and 434 as dais and midwives.

At present 283 are in training—129 as medical students, 17 as compounders, 53 as nurses and 84 as nurse dais.

New laboratories have been built for Clinical Pathology, for Physiology, and for Chemistry and Physics. New quarters for Sisters, Nurses, Assistant staff and also a new Babies' Ward. The new Dispensary for out-patients has now become very popular.

THE MISSIONARY SETTLEMENT FOR UNIVERSITY WOMEN was founded in Bombay in 1896. Its work is religious, social and educational. The Settlement supplies a hostel for University students of all nationalities and a few Indian professional women. Classes for educated girls are provided and teaching is also given in pupils' homes. The Settlement staff take part in many of the organised activities for women's work in the city. The Social Training Centre is located at the Settlement. The course, lasting a year, includes both theoretical and practical work.

Warden:—Miss R. Navalkar, B.A., Reynolds Road, Byculla, Bombay.

THE RAMABAI MUKTI MISSION (affiliated with the Christian and Missionary Alliance Mission in 1925) the well known work of the late Pandita Ramabai, shelters about 600 deserted wives, widows and orphans, educating and fitting them to earn their living. The Mission is worked on Indian lines and carried on by Indian and European workers. Evangelistic work is carried on in the surrounding villages of Kedgaon, Poona District.

Miss Eunice Wells, *Secretary-Treasurer*.

Disciple Societies.

The India Mission Disciples of Christ, under the United Christian Missionary Society, Indianapolis, Indiana, U.S.A., began work in India in 1882. It works in the Central Provinces and South United Provinces. There are 60 missionaries, including missionaries' wives, and 266 Indian workers. There are 17 organized churches with the membership of 2,524. There is a Christian community of 5,000. There are 5 hospitals and 8 dispensaries, in which 2,152 in-patients, and 50,742 out-patients were treated last year, with a total of 2,17,698 treatments. There is an orphanage for children under 8 years of age, with the older orphans provided for in the boarding schools and hostels. Two boarding schools for girls and one for boys, with 2 hostels for boys and one for girls show 640 inmates. There is one Leper Asylum with 120 inmates. A Tuberculosis Sanatorium admitted 120 patients during the year. An Industrial School is Conducted at Damoh in connection with which a 400 acre farm is used for practical work. In the Training Home for women at Kulpahar, needlework, gardening, etc., are taught in connection with which a large business is done each year. The Mission Press at Jubbulpore printed about 3,000,000 pages of Christian Literature. 1 Normal, 2 Industrial Schools, 2 High Schools; 5 Middle Schools and 15 Primary Schools, with about 1,916 under instruction.

The Australian Branch has 3 Mission Stations in the Poona District. The Great Britain and Ireland Branch in Mirzapur District of U.P. and Palamau District in Orissa. These two have no organised connection with the India Mission Disciples of Christ.

Secretary and Treasurer: D. A. McGavran, Ph. D., Jubbulpore, C. P.

Inter-denominational Missions.

THE CENTRAL ASIAN MISSION. United with worldwide Evangelical Crusade. Objective: Salvation of Central Asia: from Afghanistan to Tibet (including N. E. portion of Peshawar District, North Kashmir, etc.) Protestant Evangelical, Inter-denominational. Headquarters in India, Mardan, N. W. F. P.; in London 19, Highland Road, upper Norwood Branch Stations Bandapur, and Gurez N. Kashmir; Kargil, Shigar and Khapalu Baltistan, Kashmir. Seven European Missionaries on field on furlough. Founded and managed chiefly by officers who have served in Frontier parts.

THE FRIENDS' SERVICE COUNCIL.—The Friends' Service Council (until recently the Friends' Foreign Mission Association) works in seven stations of the Hoshangabad District, and in Nagpur, where there is a Hostel for College and High School boys.

The Church, which is organised largely on the lines of the Society of Friends in England, is composed of Six Monthly Meetings, united in the Mid-India Yearly Meeting.

There are fifteen Missionaries, of whom two are retired, and four on furlough and the principal activities are: a hospital with dispensary and one village dispensary; a boarding school for girls having an Anglo-Vernacular Middle and Primary Departments; a hostel for boys; Anglo-Vernacular and three Primary Day Schools for boys, and two farming villages in the Seoni Malwa tahsil of the Hoshangabad District. A Weavers Colony at Itarsi, C. P.

There are 170 full members, and 1,387 Christian adherents.

Mission Secretary: T. R. Addison, Itarsi, C.P.

Church Secretary: Dhan Singh, Friends Mission. Sohagpur, C. P.

THE AMERICAN FRIENDS' MISSION.—With Missionaries is working in Bundelkhand, with Hospital for Women and Children at Chhatarpur, with Dispensary and Boys' school at Harpalpur, Orphanage, evangelistic and industrial work at Nowgong.

Secretary: Miss E. E. Baird, Nowgong, C.I.

THE OLD CHURCH HEBREW MISSION was established in 1858, in Calcutta, and is said to be the only Hebrew Christian Agency in India. *Secretary:* E. C. Jackson, Esq., 11, Mission Row, Calcutta.

THE OPEN BRETHREN—Occupy 46 stations in the U. Provinces, Bengal, S. Mahratta, Godaveri, Delta, Kanarese, Tinneveily, Malabar Coast, Coimbatore and Nilgiri Districts. They hold an annual Conference at Bangalore.

Lutheran Societies.

THE INDIA MISSION OF THE UNITED LUTHERAN CHURCH IN AMERICA.—Commonly known as the United Lutheran Church Mission. Now working in close co-ordination with the Andhra Evangelical Lutheran Church, which was organized in 1927. The mission and Church together carry on work in East Godavari, West Godavari, Guntur, Nellore and Kurnool Districts Foreign staff on the field in 1933, 78; Indian staff of all grades, 2,991; Baptised membership, 161,010; schools, 1,088; pupils, 38,974. There are a First Grade College, three High Schools for boys, one High School for girls, two Normal Training Schools for Masters and one for Mistresses, a Theological Seminary, an Agricultural School, five Hospitals, a School for the Blind, a Tuberculosis Sanatorium, and a Printing Press.

President of the U. L. C. Mission: Rev. L. A. Gotwald, Chirala, Guntur District.

President of Andhra Evangelical Lutheran Church: Rev. J. R. Fink, Rentichintala, Guntur District.

THE EVANGELICAL NATIONAL MISSIONARY SOCIETY OF STOCKHOLM, SWEDEN.—A Church of Sweden Society, founded in 1856, occupies the Districts of Saugor, Betul, and Chhindwara in the Central Provinces.

There are about 2,450 Church members constituted into an indigenous Church called the Evangelical Lutheran Church of the Central Provinces. The European and Indian Staff numbers 31 and 176 respectively. One Theological Seminary for training of Pastors and Catechists, and one Training School for training Women Workers. 25 Primary and Anglo-Vernacular Middle Schools with 1,173 Children, 12 Sunday School with 675 Christians and 1,145 non-Christian Children, 9 Dispensaries with 36,035 patients during 1929. 3 Workshops, one of them with an aided Carpentry School. One Female Industrial School. One Widows Home with 63 Women. 9 Orphanages with 158 boys and 236 girls. One Boarding School for Christian Girls on the Middle School Standard. Three Farms where the S. C. Modern Village Uplift is attempted.

Secretary—Rev. G. A. Bjork, B.D., Chhindwara, C.P.

THE BASEL EVANGELICAL MISSION with its headquarters at Mangalore, South Kanara, was founded in 1834 and has taken over again the whole field occupied before the War, with the exception of North Kanara and the Nilgiris. The Kanarese Evangelical Mission, which for the time being maintained part of the field of the Basel Mission has retired from the field and dissolved. The Mission has at the beginning of 1932, 28 chief stations and 84 outstations with a total missionary staff of 43 European and about 900 Indian workers. The membership of the churches is 23,720. Educational work embraces 128 schools, among which a Theological Seminary a Second Grade College and 7 High Schools. The total number of scholars is 19,010 Medical work is done at Betgeri—Gadag, Southern Mahratta, where a hospital for men and women and at Udipi, South Kanara, where a hospital for women and children is maintained. The Mission maintains a Home Industrial Department for women's work and a large Publishing Department with a Book Shop and a Printing Press with about 150 workers at Mangalore, S. Kanara, and is doing work in English and in a number of Indian languages.

President and Secretary:—Rev. J. C. Meyer, residing at Mangalore, South Kanara.

THE CHURCH OF SWEDEN MISSION was founded in 1874. It operates in the Trichinopoly, Coimbatore, Madura and Ramnad Districts with diaspora congregations in Ceylon. In conjunction with the Leipzing Evangelical Lutheran Mission (L.E.L.M.) it co-operates with the Tamil Evangelical Lutheran Church which was constituted an autonomous Church on 14th January 1919. The C. S. M. maintains an eye-hospital at Tirupatur, high schools for boys at Madura and Pudukotah, conducts in conjunction with the L. E. L. M. a high school for girls, at Tanjore.

The European staff is 37; Schools 125; Teaching staff 246; Pupils, boys 4,491 and girls 1,635.

President.—Right Rev. J. Sandegren, M.A. D.D., Bishop of Tranquebar. Address.—Trichinopoly.

LEIPZIG EVANGELICAL LUTHERAN MISSION.—European staff 14; Schools 11; Teaching staff 107; Pupils, boys 1,286 and girls 772.

President.—Rev. R. Frœlich, D. D., Kilpauk, Madras.

INSTITUTIONS COMMON TO BOTH MISSIONS.—Schools 2; Teaching staff 24; Pupils, boys 91 and girls 322.

TAMIL EVANGELICAL LUTHERAN CHURCH.—Organised Churches 47; Ordained Indian Ministers 34; other Indian workers 101; Baptised membership 29,174; Schools 257; Teaching staff 457; Pupils, 9,030 boys and 2,334 girls.

President:—Rt. Rev. Bishop D. Bexell, Trichinopoly.

MISSOURI EVANGELICAL LUTHERAN INDIA MISSION, (MELIM).—Is located in North Arcot (Ambur, Vaniyambadi), Salem (Krishnigiri), Tanjore (Tanjore, Negapatam), Madura (Madura, Aralsuranpatti, Pathupatti, Vellakulam,

Pekulam), Tinnevelly (Vallioor Vadakangulam) Districts, in Mysore (Kolar Gold Fields), in Travancore (Nagercoil, Trivandrum, Alleppey).

There are 45 missionaries (6 of these on furlough in America), 1 lady doctor (American), 1 male doctor (Indian), 2 nurses, 3 zennana workers, 1 American teacher in charge of a School home for the children of the missionaries, 1 lady educationist, two training institutes for teacher-catechists, 1 Seminary for the training of Pastors. Two complete High Schools. One hospital with 16 beds, in Ambur.

Statistics, November 1934: Souls, 15,594; Baptized 9,319, Catechumens 2,938; adherents, 3,337; Indian pastors 2; 7 evangelists; 74 catechists; 180 teachers belonging to the Mission, 23 outside teachers; 9 boarding schools.

General Secretary—The Rev. George C. Schroeder, Nagercoil, Travancore, South India.

THE DANISH MISSIONARY SOCIETY, established 1863 in South Arcot, working there and in North Arcot, on the Shervaroi Hills, and in Madras, has a total staff of 369 Indian and 42 European workers, communicants 2,472, Christian community 6,170, one High School, one secondary school, one Bible school for Women, three Boarding School, three Industrial schools, one Orphanage, one hostel, 120 Elementary schools, and two Hospitals; total scholars 4,945.

President.—Rev. The Rev. P. Lauge, Nellikuppam.

Treasurer.—Rev. K. Heiberg, Madras.

THE SANTAL MISSION OF THE NORTHERN CHURCHES (formerly known as the Indian Home Mission to the Santals)—Founded in 1867, works in the Santal Parganas, Birbhum, Murshidabad, Malda, Rajshahi, Dinajpur and Goalpara. Work is principally among the Santals. Mission staff numbers 46 of whom 3 medical missionaries. Indian pastors 31, other Indian workers 500 Christian community in organized congregations 18,500. 6 boarding schools with 900 pupils, 130 elementary schools with 2,300 pupils, 1 industrial school with 60 pupils, 1 printing press, 1 orphanage with 30 orphans, 2 hospitals, 4 dispensaries, 1 leper colony with 300 lepers, 1 tea garden. *Acting Secretary:* Rev. J. Gausdal, Dumka, Santal Parganas.

MISSIONS AND ENEMY TRADING ACT.—In May 1918, the following notice regarding Missions was published in the "Gazette of India":—"The following missions or religious associations are declared companies under Act 2 (the Enemy Trading Act) of 1916:—The Leipzig Evangelical Lutheran Mission, Madras, the Hermansberg Evangelical Lutheran Mission, Madras, the Schleswig-Holstein Evangelical Lutheran Mission, Madras, the Gosner Evangelical Lutheran Mission of the United Provinces and Behar and Orissa, the German Evangelical Lutheran Mission of Ranchi, Behar and Orissa. The Governor-General in Council notifies that the powers conferred under Section 7 of the said Act shall extend to the property, movable and immovable, of these missions or religious associations."

In June, 1919, the Government of India stated:—"Effect is already being given to the suggestion that enemy missions in India should be taken over by British societies. The properties and undertakings of hostile missions have been vested in the Provisional Custodian of Enemy Property with a view to their transfer to boards of trustees composed partly of non-official members nominated by the National Missionary Council of India with the approval of the Government of India and partly of Government officials, and those Boards of Trustees will in due course transfer the undertakings and properties to a missionary society to be selected by them with the approval of the Governor-General in Council."

Methodist Societies.

The Methodist Episcopal Church is the organization in the United States of America which grew out of the Wesleyan revival in England and her American colonies during the latter part of the eighteenth century. This Church began its work in India in 1856, at first confining its activities to what is now the United Provinces. From that centre it spread until the outposts of its work were found in Baluchistan, Burma, Malaysia, Netherlands, Indies and the Philippine Islands. In 1920 a rearrangement of the mission field of the Church separated India, Burma and Baluchistan into what is now known as the Southern Asia division. Within this present field the Church now has a total baptized Christian community of 525,668.

The avowed task of the Church has been the uplift of the depressed classes, and its work has been largely among that class. As a matter of fact, however, it has large numbers who came from the Mohammedans and the caste Hindus, and among such its influence is extending.

The educational work of the Church is extensive, it having in this area a total of 1,181 schools of all grades, including three colleges, twenty-two high schools, and numerous normal training and theological institutions. The registered attendants in these schools number 44,524.

Special effort is made for the instruction and development of the young people of the Church, there now being 336 chapters of the Epworth League with 13,394 enrolled members, and 4,021 organized Sunday Schools with an enrolment 139,422.

The publishing interests of the Church are represented in two presses at Madras and Lucknow, the former doing work in four vernaculars and the latter in six. The periodicals issued cover the interests of both the evangelistic and the educational field, the Indian Witness, the Junior Methodist and Christian Education being in English, while the Kaukab-i-Hind, and other periodicals are issued in several of the vernaculars.

The governing body of the Church is the General Conferences held quadrennially in America in which the eleven conferences now existing in India are represented by twenty-four delegates. The polity of the Church in India looks forward to complete independence under the general governing body, there at present being

but about three hundred and fifty American men and women as compared to 645 ordained and 4,598 unordained Indian and Burmese workers. At present the area is divided into seventy-two districts each in charge of a superintendent and among whom are many Indians. The work is supervised by three Bishops, elected by the General Conference, and resident as follows: Bishop John W. Robinson, Delhi; Bishop Brenton T. Badley, Bombay and Bishop Jashwant Rao Chitambar, Jubbulpur.

THE AMERICAN WESLEYAN METHODIST MISSION, Sanjan, Thana District Headquarters. Stations with Missionaries, Dandi Maroli, *via* Nargole, District Thana. Pardi, District Surat. Six Missionaries on field. Two on furlough. Four main stations. Two Boarding schools. One industrial school. One Bible School. One village farm project. Eight village schools. Chairman of Field Committee, Rev. P. D. Doty, Sanjan, District Thana.

The Methodist Protestant Mission began work in India in 1919, has a staff of six missionaries. The work is confined to Dhulia Taluka, with one Main station, Dhulia. There are two boarding schools, district evangelistic work and medical work. *Secretary*: Mrs. Paul Cassen, Dhulia, West Khandesh.

THE WESLEYAN METHODIST MISSIONARY SOCIETY commenced work in India in 1817 (Ceylon in 1814). The Mission in India, apart from Ceylon, is organised into 7 District Synods with 2 Provincial Synods. There is a large English work connected with the Society, 20 ministers giving their whole time to Military work and English churches.

The districts occupied include 68 main stations in Bengal, Madras, Mysore, Bombay, Punjab, Central Provinces, Hyderabad (Nizam's Dominions), United Provinces and Burma. The Burma Synod has recently been attached to the Ceylon Provincial Synod for purposes of administration. Its statistics are no longer included in this statement. The European staff numbers 102 with 75 Indian Ministers and 791 Indian workers; Communicants 18,513, and total Christian community 101,245. There are 7 large numbers of organised Churches many of which are self-supporting.

Educational work comprises 3 Christian Colleges. students, 2,033; 5 Theological Institutions, students, 329; 7 High Schools, pupils, 3,427; 14 Industrial schools, pupils, 400; 923 Elementary schools, with 26,189 scholars. In Medical work there are 3 hospitals, 12 dispensaries, 1,127 in-patients and 65,431 out-patients.

The Women's Auxiliary carry on an extensive work in the places occupied by the W. M. M. S. There are 93 women workers from abroad of whom 16 are qualified doctors. The Indian women workers number 382. There are 109 girls' day schools with 13,377 pupils and 28 boarding schools with 1,979 boarders. There are several philanthropic institutions for the rescue and training of women. The Women's Auxiliary manage 12 hospitals and 9 dispensaries, which had 8,041 in-patients and 97,583 out-patients. The cost of the work to the Women's Auxiliary in 1925 was nearly £25,000.

THE FREE METHODIST MISSION of North America—Established at Yeotmal, 1893, operates in Berar with a staff of 11 Missionaries and 40 Indian workers. Organised churches 5, 1 Theological school, 1 Girls' Boarding School, 1 Vernacular Middle school, 8 Elementary Schools, 1 Dispensary and 5 centres for Clinical and village health work.

Secretary: Persis M. Phelps, Yeotmal, Berar.

THE SALVATION ARMY.

The work of the Salvation Army in India and Ceylon was commenced in 1882 by the late Commissioner Booth-Tucker; and was for many years under his control, with Headquarters in India. For some time now, the areas occupied have been divided for administrative purposes into 5 Territories, each under a Territorial Commander; and two smaller Commands.

Northern Territory, with Headquarters at Lahore.

Western Territory, with Headquarters at Bombay.

Madras and Telugu Territory, with Headquarters at Madras.

Southern Territory, with Headquarters at Trivandrum, in Travancore State.

Ceylon Territory, with Headquarters at Colombo.

Eastern Command, with Headquarters at Calcutta.

Burmah Command, with Headquarters at Rangoon.

The Commanders are directly responsible to the International Headquarters in London.

Northern Territory.—The area in this Territory is the Salvation Army work in the Punjab, Delhi and United Provinces. The Territory is controlled from Lahore.

Evangelistic work, especially among the "depressed classes," is extensively carried on, both in the Punjab and the U. P.

A number of Settlements for the reformation of "Criminal Tribes" are under the control of the Salvation Army in the United Provinces (where this important reformative work was commenced), and also in the Punjab, great progress has been made. A special Settlement has also been opened in the Andamans during the last few years.

A land colony 2,000 acres in extent is in existence in the Multan District, where a population of 1,800 has been settled. The land will ultimately become the property of the holders.

Medical work is carried on in two Hospitals, one of which is in the Punjab and the other in the United Provinces; and also in one dispensary.

Other institutions include, Day and Boarding Schools, Weaving Schools, Agricultural Colonies, a Hospital for British Military Soldiers, and Civilians at Delhi.

Village centres at which the S. A. Works	1,776
Officers and Employees	580
Social Institutions	22

Territorial Headquarters: Ferozepur Road, Lahore, Punjab.

Territorial Commander: Commissioner N Muthiah.

Chief Secretary.—Lt.-Colonel W. D. Pennick

Western India.—The Western India Territory comprises Bombay, Gujerat, Panch Mahals and the Maharashtra.

Besides the distinctly evangelistic operations, there are established a large General Hospital—Emery Memorial, Anand—and several Dispensaries, at which during the year about 41,906 patients are treated, 222 Day Schools, 4 Boarding Schools, a Home for Juvenile Criminals, and Industrial and Rescue Home for Women, a conditionally Released Prisoners' Home, the management of the Bombay Helpless Beggars' Camp, Weaving Schools, a Factory for the making of Weaving, Warping, and Reeling Machines, and a Land Colony having a population of about 390 Salvationists.

Corps, 280; Outpsts, 457; Societies, 508; Officers and Cadets, 746; of whom 675 are Indian; Employees and Teachers, 61; Social Institutions, 16.

Territorial Headquarters: The Salvation Army, Morland Road, Byculla, Bombay.

Territorial Commander: Colonel Gnana Dasen (Alfred H. Barnett).

Madras and Telugu Territory.—This Territory comprises the city of Madras and work situated in the Nellore, Guntur, Kistna and West Godavari Districts of the Northern Circars of the Madras Presidency, also Bangalore.

There are the following agencies at work, *viz.*, places in which work is systematically done, both evangelical and education and social:—290 Corps and Outposts; 116 village primary schools; 1 Criminal Tribes Settlement; 2 institutions for the training of Officers; 1 Leper Colony at Bapatla taken over by us in 1928; a Women's Industrial Home in Madras; a Boarding Schools for girls, and another for boys of the Salvation Army.

Territorial Headquarters: The Salvation Army, Broadway, Madras. G. P.O. Box 206.

Territorial Commander: Colonel Herbert B. Colledge.

General Secretary: Brigadier H. H. Rawson.

The South India Territory.—The Southern (India) Territory embraces the Native States of Travancore and Cochin extending in the South into the Tinnevelly District of British India.

A well-consolidated and growing work for the spiritual and social advancement of the peoples being prosecuted at more than 1,200 centres and appeals are constantly received urging extension to new districts. Marked advances are being made with the erection of Halls and Quarters for Officers.

Training Garrisons for men and women are established at Trivandrum and Nagercoil. A monthly edition of the "War Cry" is published in Tamil and Malayalam, and other vernacular literature is circulated among the people with gratifying results.

Educational activities provide religious and secular instruction for boys and girls at some 300 schools for about 17,000 children. The Boarding School for boys and another for girls at Nagercoil, and a similar institution for boys in Trivandrum, are greatly appreciated, as also is the Student's Hospital for young men at Nagercoil.

The Lace and Needlework section of the Industrial Department at Nagercoil, continues a useful work, as also does the Industrial Department in Trivandrum, where boys attached to the Boarding School are taught Bookbinding.

Meetings are held regularly in the Trivandrum Goal with encouraging results.

Work at the Catherine Booth Hospital, Nagercoil, and the seven Branch Hospitals is greatly appreciated by all sections of the community. A splendid and up-to-date Tuberculosis Ward is in course of erection at the Catherine Booth Hospital, also an excellent Administrative Block which will make for increased efficiency. An excellent work is also being done at the Cochin Leper Colony where more than 250 lepers are accommodated. Consideration is being given to the establishment of a Leper Colony in Travancore State.

Territorial Headquarters.—The Salvation Army, Kuravanconam, Trivandrum.

Territorial Commander.—Lieut.-Commissioner Priva (Mrs. Trounce).

Laws and the Administration of Justice.

The indigenous law of India is personal and divisible with reference to the two great classes of the population, Hindu and Mahomedan. Both systems claim divine origin and are in extricably interwoven with religion, and each exists in combination with a law based on custom. At first the tendency of the English was to make their law public and territorial, and on the establishment of the Supreme Court at Calcutta in 1773 and the advent of English lawyers as judges, they proceeded to apply it to Europeans and Indians alike. This error was rectified by the Declaratory Act of 1780, by which Parliament declared that as against a Hindu the Hindu law and usage, and as against a Mahomedan the laws and customs of Islam should be applied. The rules of the Shastras and the Koran have been in some cases altered and relaxed. Instances can be found in the Bengal Sati Regulation Act of 1829; the Indian Slavery Act, 1843; the Caste Disabilities Removal Act of 1850; the Hindu Widows' Remarriage Act, 1856; and other Acts and Codes. To quote the Imperial Gazetteer, "A certain number of the older English statutes and the English common law are to a limited extent still in force in the Presidency Towns as applicable to Europeans, while much of the old Hindu and Mahomedan law is everywhere personal to their native fellow subjects; but apart from these, and from the customary law, which is as far as possible recognised by the Courts, the law of British India is the creation of statutory enactments made for it either at Westminster or by the authorities in India to whom the necessary law-giving functions have from time to time been delegated."

Codification.

Before the transfer of India to the Crown the law was in a state of great confusion. Sir Henry Cunningham described it as "hopelessly unwieldy, entangled and confusing." The first steps toward general codification were taken in 1833, when a Commission was appointed, of which Lord Macaulay was the moving spirit, to prepare a penal code. Twenty-two years elapsed before it became law, during which period it underwent revision from his successors in the Law Membership, and especially by Sir Barnes Peacock, the last Chief Justice of the Supreme Court of Calcutta. The Penal Code, which became law in 1860, was followed in 1861 by a Code of Criminal Procedure. Substantially the whole criminal law of British India is contained in these two Codes. One of the most eminent lawyers who ever came to India, Sir James Stephen, said "The Indian penal code may be described as the criminal law of England freed from all technicalities and superfluities, systematically arranged and modified in some few particulars (they are surprisingly few) to suit the circumstances of British India. It is practically impossible to misunderstand the code." The rules of Civil Procedure have been embodied in the Code of Civil Procedure. The Indian Penal Code has from time to time been amended. The Code of Civil Procedure was remodelled in 1908 and the Code of Criminal Procedure in 1898. These Codes are now in force.

Statute Law Revision.

In October, 1921, a committee was appointed under the presidency of the Hon. Mr. A. P. Muddiman, I.C.S., to deal with the question of statute law revision. The functions of the Committee are to prepare for the consideration of Government such measures of consolidation and clarification, as may be necessary to secure the highest attainable standard of formal perfection in the statute law of India. In several branches of the law consolidation has long been overdue, and it is suggested that the preparation of a Bill consolidating the existing law relating to merchant shipping, with such amendments therein as are necessitated or rendered desirable by the enactment of the English statutes since 1894 on the same subject should form the first duty undertaken by the Committee. Under the conditions resulting from the establishment of the reformed Constitution, increasing importance will attach hereafter to the periodical examination and revision of the Statute Book and the Government of India hope that the Committee will take its place as a permanent feature of the legislative machinery of the country.

European British Subjects.

Whilst the substantive criminal law is the same for all classes, certain distinctions of procedure have always been maintained in regard to criminal charges against European British subjects. Until 1872 European British subjects could only be tried or punished by one of the High Courts. It was then enacted that European British subjects should be liable to be tried for any offences by magistrates of the highest class, who were also justices of the peace, and by judges of the Sessions Courts; but it was necessary in both cases that the magistrate or judge should himself be a European British subject. In 1883 the Government of India announced that they had decided "to settle the question of jurisdiction over European subjects in such a way as to remove from the code at once and completely every judicial disqualification which is based merely on race distinctions." This decision, embodied in the Ilbert Bill, aroused a storm of indignation which is still remembered. The controversy ended in a compromise which is thus summarised by Sir John Strachey ("India"). "The controversy ended with the virtual, though not avowed, abandonment of the measure proposed by the Government. Act III of 1884, by which the law previously in force was amended, cannot be said to have diminished the privileges of European British subjects charged with offences, and it left their position as exceptional as before. The general disqualification of native judges and magistrates remains; but if a native of India be appointed to the post of district magistrate or sessions judge, his powers in regard to jurisdiction over European British subjects are the same as those of an Englishman holding the same office. This

provision however is subject to the condition that every European British subject brought for trial before the district magistrate or sessions judge has the right, however trivial be the charge, to claim to be tried by a jury of which not less than half the number shall be Europeans or Americans.....Whilst this change was made in the powers of district magistrates, the law in regard to other magistrates remained unaltered." Since 1836 no distinctions of race have been recognised in the civil courts throughout India.

After a discussion on this subject in the Legislative Assembly in September 1921, the following motion was adopted:—"That in order to remove all racial distinctions between Indians and Europeans in the matter of their trial and punishment for offences, a committee be appointed to consider what amendments should be made in the provisions of the Code of Criminal Procedure, 1898, which differentiate between Indians and European British subjects and American and Europeans who are not British subjects in criminal trials and proceedings and to report on the best methods of giving effect to their proposals." As a result of the recommendations of the Racial Distinctions Committee the law on the subject was further modified, and by the Criminal Law Amendment Act XII of 1923 in place of the old Chapter XXXIII (55443-463) the new Chapter XXXIII (55443-449) with certain supplementary provisions were substituted. This has in some measure reduced the differences between the trials of Europeans and of Indians under the Code.

High Courts.

The highest legal tribunals in India are the High Courts of Judicature. These were constituted by the Indian High Courts Act of 1861 for Bengal, Bombay and Madras, and later for the United Provinces and the Punjab superseding the old supreme and Sudder Courts. More recently High Courts have been constituted for Patna and Rangoon as well. The Judges are appointed by the Crown; they hold office during the pleasure of the Sovereign; at least one-third of their number are barristers, one-third are recruited from the judicial branch of the Indian Civil Service, the remaining places being available for the appointment of Indian lawyers. Trial by jury is the rule in original criminal cases before the High Courts, but juries are never employed in civil suits in India.

For other parts of India High Courts have been formed under other names. The chief difference being that they derive their authority from the Government of India, not from Parliament. In Burma there is a Chief Court, with three or more judges; in the other provinces the chief appellate authority is an officer called the Judicial Commissioner. In Sind the Judicial Commissioner is termed Judge of the Sudder Court and has two colleagues.

The High Courts are the Courts of appeal from the superior courts in the districts, criminal and civil, and their decisions are final, except in cases in which an appeal lies to His Majesty in Council and is heard by the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council in England. The High Courts exercise supervision over all the subordinate courts. Returns are regularly sent to them at short intervals and the High Courts are able, by examining the returns, by sending for proceedings, and by calling for explanations, as well as from the cases that come before them in appeal, to keep themselves to some extent acquainted with the manner in which the courts generally are discharging their duties.

Lower Courts.

The Code of Criminal Procedure provides for the constitution of inferior criminal courts styled courts of session and courts of magistrates. Every province, outside the Presidency towns, is divided into sessions divisions consisting of one or more districts, and every sessions division has a court of session and a sessions judge, with assistance if need be. These stationary sessions courts take the place of the English Assizes, and are competent to try all accused persons duly committed, and to inflict any punishment authorised by law, but sentences of death are subject to confirmation by the highest court of criminal appeal in the province. Magistrates' courts are of three classes with descending powers. Provision is made and largely utilised in the towns, for the appointment of honorary magistrates; in the Presidency towns Presidency magistrates deal with magisterial cases and benches of Justices of the Peace or honorary magistrates dispose of the less important cases.

Trials before courts of session are either with assessors or juries. Assessors assist, but do not bind the judge by their opinions; on juries the opinion of the majority prevails if accepted by the presiding Judge. The Indian law allows considerable latitude of appeal. The prerogative of mercy is exercised by the Governor-General-in-Council and the Local Government concerned without prejudice to the superior power of the Crown.

The constitution and jurisdiction of the inferior civil courts varies. Broadly speaking one district and sessions judge is appointed for each district: as District Judge he presides in its principal civil court of original jurisdiction, his functions as Sessions Judge have been described. For these posts members of the Indian Civil Service are mainly selected though some appointments are made from the Provincial Service. Next come the Subordinate Judges and Munsiffs, the extent of whose original jurisdiction varies in different parts of India. The civil courts, below the grade of District Judge, are almost invariably presided over by Indians. There are in addition a number of Courts of Small Causes, with jurisdiction to try money suits up to Rs. 500. In the Presidency Towns, where the Chartered High Courts have original jurisdiction, Small Cause Courts dispose of money suits up to Rs. 2,000. As Insolvency Courts the chartered High Courts of Calcutta, Bombay and Madras have jurisdiction in the Presidency towns. In the mofussil similar powers were conferred on the District Courts by the Insolvency Act of 1906.

Coroners are appointed only for the Presidency Towns of Calcutta and Bombay. Elsewhere their duties are discharged by the ordinary staff of magistrates and police officers unaided by jurors.

Legal Practitioners.

Legal practitioners in India are divided into Barristers-at-Law, Advocates of the High Court, Vakils and Attorneys (Solicitors) of High Courts, and Pleaders, Mukhtiars and revenue agents. Barristers and Advocates are admitted by each High Court to practise in it and its subordinate courts; and they alone are admitted to practise on the original side of some of the chartered High Courts. Vakils are persons duly qualified who are admitted to practise on the appellate side of the chartered High Courts and in the Courts subordinate to the High Courts. Attorneys are required to qualify before admission to practise in much the same way as in England. The rule that a solicitor must instruct counsel prevails only on the original side of certain of the High Courts. Pleaders practise in the subordinate courts in accordance with rules framed by the High Courts.

Organisation of the Bar.

At Calcutta, Madras, and Bombay there is a Bar Committee presided over, *ex-officio*, by the Advocate-General. This body is elected by the barristers practising in each High Court, and its functions are to watch the interests of the Bar and to regulate its etiquette. At Allahabad, Lahore, Nagpore, and Rangoon a similar Bar Committee exists, but the electorate is extended to include the vakils or native pleaders, and the president is either the senior practising member of the Bar or the Government Advocate. In the larger Districts and Sessions Courts, an organisation representing the Bar is usually to be found, and in the subordinate Courts, including the Revenue Courts similar machinery is generally in use. Pending an opportunity of detailed inquiries in India, these general descriptions must suffice. The recommendations of the Indian Bar Committee of 1923 relating to the constitution of Bar Councils for the several High Courts in India have been recently adopted by the Indian Bar Courts Act, XXXVIII of 1926.

Composition of the Bar.

A considerable change is occurring in the composition of the Indian Bar. The following extract from an informing article in the *Times* (May 25, 1914) indicates the character and incidence of this development. "During the last forty years, a striking change has taken place in the professional class. The bulk of practice has largely passed from British to Indian hands, while, at the same time, the profession has grown to an enormous extent. One typical illustration may be quoted. Attached to the Bombay High Court in 1871 there were 38 solicitors, of whom 10 were Indian and 28 English, and 24 advocates, of whom 7 were Indian and 17 English. In 1911, attached to the same High Court, there were 150 solicitors, of whom more than 130 were Indian and the remainder English, and 250 advocates, of whom 16 only were English and the remainder Indian."

Law Officers.

The Government of India has its own law colleague in the Legal Member of Council. All Government measures are drafted in this department. Outside the Council the principal law officer of the Government of India is the Advocate-General of Bengal, who is appointed by the Crown, is the leader of the local Bar, and is always nominated a member of the Provincial Legislative Council. In Calcutta he is assisted by the Standing Counsel and the Government Solicitor. There are Advocates-General and Government Solicitors for Bombay and Madras, and in Bombay there is attached to the Secretariat a Legal Remembrancer and an Assistant Legal Remembrancer, drawn from the Judicial Branch of the Indian Civil Service. The Government of Bengal consults the Bengal Advocate-General, the Standing Counsel and the Government Solicitor, and has besides a Legal Remembrancer (a Civil Servant) and a Deputy Legal Remembrancer (a practising barrister); the United Provinces are equipped with a civilian Legal Remembrancer and professional lawyers as Government Advocate and Assistant Government Advocate; the Punjab has a Legal Remembrancer, Government Advocate and a Junior Government Advocate; and Burma a Government Advocate, besides a Secretary to the Local Legislative Council.

Sheriffs are attached to the High Courts of Calcutta, Madras and Bombay. They are appointed by Government, selected from non-officials of standing, the detailed work being done by deputy sheriffs, who are officers of the Court.

Law Reports.

The Indian Law Reports are now published in seven series—Calcutta, Madras, Bombay, Allahabad, Patna, Lahore and Rangoon under the authority of the Governor-General-in-Council. They contain cases determined by the High Court and by the Judicial Committee on appeal from the particular High Court. These appeals raise questions of very great importance, and the Council of Law Reporting for England and Wales show their appreciation by printing the Indian Appeals in a separate volume, and have also compiled a digest of Indian Appeals covering the period 1874-1893. The other Provinces and States have series of reports issued under the authority either of the Judiciary or the State.

Legislative Power.

The supreme power of Parliament to legislate for the whole of India cannot be questioned in practice, however, this power is little used, there being a majority of officials on the Imperial Legislative Council—a majority deliberately reserved in the India Councils Act of 1909—the Secretary of State is able to impose his will on the Government of India and to secure the passage of any measure he may frame, regardless of the opinion of the Indian authorities. Legislative Councils have been established both for the whole of India and for the principal provinces. Their constitution and functions are fully described in detailing the powers of the Imperial and Provincial Councils (q.v.). To meet emergencies the Governor-General is vested with the power of issuing ordinances, having the same force as Acts of the Legislature, but they can remain in force for only six months. The power is very little used. The Governor-General-in-Council is also empowered to make regulations, having all the cogency of Acts, for the more backward parts of the country, the object being to bar the operation of the general law and permit the application of certain enactments only.

Bengal Judicial Department.

Rankin, The Hon'ble Sir George Claus, Kt., K.C., Bar-at-Law.	Chief Justice.
Ghose, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice Charu Chunder, Kt., Bar-at-Law.	Puisne Judge.
Buckland, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice Phillip Lindsay, Kt., Bar-at-Law.	Do.
Mukharji, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice Manmatha Nath, M.A., B.L.	Do.
Costello, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice Leonard Wilfred James, M.A., LL.B., Bar-at-Law.	Do.
Lort-Williams, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice John, K.C. ..	Do.
Mallik, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice Satyendra Chandra, I.C.S.	Do.
Jack, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice Robert Ernest, I.C.S. ..	Do.
Mitter, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice Dwarkanath, M.A., D.L.	Do.
Ghose, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice Sarat Kumar, M.A., I.C.S.	Do.
Panckridge, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice Hugh Rahere, Bar-at-Law.	Do.
Patterson, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice David Clarke, I.C.S .	Do.
Ameer Ali, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice Torick, Bar-at-Law..	Do.
Ghosh, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice Mahim Chandra, I.C.S., Bar-at-Law.	Do.
Guha, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice Surendra Nath, Rai Bahadur.	Do.
Ali, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice, Nasim	Do. Additional.
Bartley, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice Charles, I.C.S., Bar-at-Law.	Do. (Officiating.)
McNair, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice George Douglas, Bar-at-Law.	Do. do.
Roy, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice Asoke Kumar, Bar-at-Law.	Do. do.
Sircar, Sir N. N., Kt., Bar-at-Law	Advocate-General.
Roy, A. K., Bar-at-Law	Standing Counsel. (Officiating Judge High Court.)
Bose, S. M., Bar-at-Law	Do. (Officiating.)
Basu, A. K., Bar-at-Law	Government Counsel.
Hodson, S. S.	Do. Solicitor.
Morgan, H. Carey	Do. do. (Officiating.)
Edgley, N. G. A., I.C.S.	Superintendent and Remembrancer of Legal Affairs and Judicial Secretary to Government.
Khundkar, N. A., Bar-at-Law	Deputy Superintendent and Remembrancer of Lega Affairs.
Basak, Dr. Sarat Chandra	Senior Government Pleader.
Sadhu, Rai Tarak Nath Bahadur, C.I.E.	Public Prosecutor in the Courts of th Presidency Magistrates in Calcutta.
Sen, Binod Chandra	Junior Public Prosecutor, Calcutta.
Mitra, Sarat Kumar	Editor of Law Reports.
Collet, Mr. A. L.	Registrar (Original Side).
Ghatak, N., M.B.E., Bar-at-Law	Master and Official Referee.
Banarji, Sachindra Nath	Assistant Master and Referee.
Ghosh, J. M., Bar-at-Law	Registrar in Insolvency.
Mitra, Kanai Lal	Deputy Registrar.
Palsett, F.	Assistant Registrar.
Das-Gupta, Manmatha Bhusan, M.A., B.L.	Do.
Ahmed, O. U. M.A., (Cal.), LL.B. (Bel.), Bar-at-Law ..	Do.
De, Jatindranath	Do.
Ghatak, Niroj Nath, Bar-at-Law	Do.
Sen-Gupta, Subodh Chandra	Do.

D'Abrew, P. A.	Secretary to the Hon'ble Chief Justice and Head Clerk, Decree Department.
Moses, O., Bar-at-Law	Clerk of the Crown for Criminal Sessions.
Hindley, N. L., M.A., I.C.S.	Registrar and Taxing Officer, Appellate Jurisdiction.
Counsell, Frank Bertram	Deputy Registrar.
Badr-ud-din Ahmad, Khan Bahadur, B.A.	Assistant Registrar, Appellate Side, English Office.
Young, J. J.	Assistant Registrar (Paper Book and Accounts Departments).
Chakrabatti, Bijay Krishna	Senior Bench Clerk, and *Ex-officio* Assistant Registrar, Appellate Side. (On probation.)
Morgan, C. Carey	Administrator-General and Official Trustee. (Officiating.)
Surita, O. R.	Deputy Administrator-General and Official Trustee. (Officiating.)
Falkner, George McDonald, Bar-at-Law	Official Assignee.
Mukharji, Kanti Chandra (Advocate)	Official Receiver.

Bombay Judicial Department.

Beaumont, The Hon'ble Sir J. W. F., Kt., K.C., M.A. (Cantab).	Chief Justice.
Blackwell, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice Cecil Patrick, Bar-at-Law.	Puisne Judge.
Rangnekar, The Hon'ble Mr. Sajba Shankar, B.A., LL.B., Bar-at-Law.	Do.
Murphy, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice Stephen James, I.C.S.	Do.
Broomfield, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice R. S., B.A., Bar-at-Law, I.C.S.	Do.
Wadia, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice Bomanji Jamshedji ..	Do.
Barlee, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice Kenneth William, B.A. (Dub.), Bar-at-Law, I.C.S.	Do.
Kania, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice Harilal Jaykisandas, LL.B.	Do.
Divatia, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice Harsidbhai Vajubhair M.A., LL.B.	Do. (Officiating Additional Judge.)
Wadia, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice, Naowroji Jahangir, Bar-at-Law, I.C.S.	Do. (Officiating.)
Kanga, Sir Jamshedji Behramji, Kt., M.A., LL.B. ..	Advocate-General.
Godfrey Davis, I.C.S.	Remembrancer of Legal Affairs.
Rajadhyaksha, G. S., M.A., Bar-at-Law, I.C.S.	Deputy Secretary to Government, Legal Department. Also Secretary to the Legislative Council, Bombay. (In addition.)
Louis Walker, G.	Government Solicitor and Public Prosecutor. (On leave.)
Charles M. Eastly	Do. (Officiating.)
Vakil, J. H., Bar-at-Law	Clerk of the Crown.
O'Gorman, G. C., Bar-at-Law	Editor, Indian Law Reports.
Mallabari, Khan Bahadur P. B., Bar-at-Law	Official Assignee.
Abuvala N. B.	Deputy Official Assignee.
Vesuvala N. A.	1st Assistant to Official Assignee.
Vaidya G. A.	2nd Assistant to Official Assignee.
Shingne, The Hon'ble Padmanabh Bhaskar, LL.B. ..	Government Pleader, Bombay.
Lobo, C. M., LL.B.	Government Pleader and Public Prosecutor, Karachi.

Mitchell, H. C. B.	Administrator-General and Official Trustee, in addition to his duties as Registrar of Companies.
Ranchhodbhai Bhaibabhai Patel, R. B., M.A., LL.B., Bar-at-Law.	Prothonotary and Senior Master.
Ratanji Sorabji Dadachanji, LL.B., Bar-at-Law	Master and Registrar in Equity and Commissioner for taking Accounts and Local Investigator.
Fahey, E.	Master and Assista t Prothonotary. (On leave.)
Vacant	Taxing Master.
Kundanmal Alumal Bhojwani, LL.B., Bar-at-Law ..	Insolvency Registrar.
Sequeira, A. F., B.A., LL.B., Attorney-at-Law	Assistant Taxing Master. (Officiating Taxing Master.)
Vakil, H. A., Bar-at-Law	First Assistant Master. (Officiating Master and Assistant Prothonotary.
Tahir Ali Fatehi, LL.B.	Second Assistant Master. (Officiating First Assistant Master.)
Majmudar, J. H., Bar-at-Law	Third Assistant Master. (Officiating 2nd Assistant Master.)
Nakra, N. B., K. S.	Associate Offg. 3rd Assistant Master.
Gadre, J. G.	Do. (On leave.)
Rahimtoola, S. J., B.A., LL.B., Bar-at-Law	Do.
Mahadevia, M.A., LL.M.	Do. (Officiating.)
Ayyar, A. R. N.	Officiating Associate.
Kirtikar, A. H., Bar-at-Law	Do.
Suleman Cassum, Haji Mitha, The Hon'ble Sir Sardar, Kt., C.I.E.	Sheriff.
Ardeshir Phirozshah Mehta, K. B.	Deputy Sheriff.
Nagarkar, C. B., I.C.S., J.P.	Registrar, High Court, Appellate Side.
Ahirajlal Lalbhai Mehta, B.A., LL.B.	Deputy Registrar and Sealer, Appellate Side, and Secretary to Rule Committee.
Ahalye, K. A., B.A., LL.B.	Assistant Registrar (Officiating.)

COURT RECEIVER AND LIQUIDATOR AND ASSISTANTS.

Wadia, H. H., M.A., Bar-at-Law	Court Receiver and Liquidator.
Chinoy, A. F. J., LL.B.	First Assistant to do.
Appabhai G. Desai, Bar-at-Law	Second Assistant to do.
Engineer, S. E., B.A., LL.B.	Third Assistant to do.

COURT OF THE JUDICIAL COMMISSIONER OF SIND.

Ferrers, V. M., M.A. (Cantab), I.C.S.	Judicial Commissioner of Sind.
Aston, Arthur Henry Southcote, M.A. (Oxon), Bar-at-Law	Additional Judicial Commissioner of Sind.
Rupchand Bilaram, B.A., LL.B.	Addl. Judicial Commissioner of Sind.
Milne, R. B., M.A. (Aber.), I.C.S.	Do. do. (On leave preparatory to retirement..
Mehta, Dadiba C., M.A., LL.B.	Do. do. (Officiating.)

Madras Judicial Department.

Beasley, The Hon'ble Justice Sir H.O.C., Kt., Bar-at-Law	Chief Justice.
Ramesam, The Hon'ble Sir V., Kt.	Judge.
Venkatasubba Rao, The Hon'bleMr. Justice M., B.A., B.L..	Do.
Madhavan Nair, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice C., Bar-at-Law	Do.
Dr. Krishnan Pandalai, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice (Bar-at-Law), Rao Bahadur.	Do.
Jackson, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice G. H. B., I.C.S. ..	Do.
Reilly, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice H. D. C., I.C.S.	Do.
Ananthakrishna Ayyar, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice C. V., Rao Bahadur.	Do.

Curgenven, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice A. J., I.C.S. ..	Judge (On leave.)
Cornish, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice H. D.	Do.
Sundaram Chetti, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice K., Diwan Bahadur.	Do.
Stone, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice Gilbert	Do.
Walsh, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice E. P.	Do.
Krishnaswami Ayyar, Sir Alladi, Kt., B.A., B.L.	Advocate-General.
Rangaswami Ayyangar, S., B.A., B.L.	Administrator-General.
Thomas, Arthur	Government Solicitor.
Nayudu, Venkataramana Rao P., B.A., B.L.	Government Pleader.
Rama Rao, K. W.	Law Reporter.
Bewes, L. H., Advocate	Public Prosecutor.
Madhava Menon, K. P., Bar-at-Law	Crown Prosecutor.
Aingar, R. N., Bar-at-Law	Editor, Indian Law Reports, Madras Series.
Rajagopalan, G., B.A., M.L.	Law Reporter.
Viswanatha Ayyar, A. S., B.A., B.L.	Do.
Sesha Ayengar, K. V.	Secretary, Rule Committee.
Balasundaram Nayudu, M.	Sheriff of Madras.
White, G. S.	Registrar, High Court.
Srinivasa Ayyer	Assistant Registrar, Appellate Side.
Appa Rao, D., Bar-at-Law	Master, High Court.
Satyamurti Aiyar, R., M.A., M.L.	Deputy Registrar, Appellate Side.
Sankaranarayana, B. C., M.A., LL.B., Bar-at-Law ..	Official Referee
Ganapati, K. N., Bar-at-Law	First Assistant Registrar, Original Side.
Jayaram Ayyar, R., M.A., B.L.	Assistant Registrar, Appellate Side.
Nambiyar, K. C., Bar-at-Law	Acting Second Assistant Registrar, Original Side.

Assam Judicial Department.

Lethbridge, M. H. B., I.C.S.	Officiating Secretary to Government, Legislative Department, and Officiating Secretary to the Assam Legislative Council, Superintendent and Remembrancer of Legal Affairs, Administrator-General and Official Trustee, Assam.
Masih, Syed Mahomed, Bar-at Law	District and Sessions Judge, Sylhet and Cachar.
Mitra, B. M., I.C.S.	Officiating District and Sessions Judge, Assam Valley Districts.
Murshid, K. G., I.C.S.	Temporary Second Additional Judge, Sylhet and Cachar.
Ghosh, Rajani Kumar	Additional District and Sessions Judge, Sylhet and Cachar.
Biswas, Debendra Chandra	Temporary Third Additional Judge, Sylhet and Cachar.
Barua Srijut Jogendra Nath	Temporary Additional District and Sessions Judge, Assam Valley Districts.

Bihar and Orissa Judicial Department.

Terrell, The Hon'ble Sir Courtney, Kt.	Chief Justice.
Wort, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice Alfred William Ewart, Bar-at-Law.	Puisne Judge.
Sahay, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice Kulwant	Do. Leave preparatory to retirement.
Macpherson, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice Thomas Stewart, C.I.E., I.C.S., Bar-at-Law.	Puisne Judge.
Fazl Ali, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice Saiyid, Bar-at-Law ..	Do.
Khwaja Muhammad Nur, C.B.E., The Hon'ble Mr. Justice, Khan Bahadur.	Do.
James, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice John Francis William, I.C.S., Bar-at-Law.	Do.

Dhawle, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice Sankara Balajee, I.C.S.	Puisne Judge. Leave preparatory to retirement.
Agarwala, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice Clifford Manmohan, Bar-at-Law.	Do.
Saunders, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice John Alfred, B.A., I.C.S.	Do. Acting Additional.
Sukhdev Prashad, Varma, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice, Bar-at-Law.	Do. Acting.
Meredith, H. R., I.C.S.	Registrar.
Saudagar Singh	Deputy Registrar.
Naresh Chandra Ray, M.A., B.L.	Assistant Registrar.
Rudra Prasanna Misra, B.L.	Assistant Registrar, Orissa Circuit Court.
Saiyid Sultan Ahmad, Sir, Kt., Bar-at-Law	Temporary Additional Munsif of Cuttack, in addition to his own duties.
Saiyid Jaffar Imam, Bar-at-Law	Government Advocate.
Rai, Guru Sharan Prashad	Assistant Government Advocate.
	Government Pleader.

Burma Judicial Department.

Page, The Hon'ble Sir Arthur, Kt., K.C.	Chief Justice, Rangoon.
Heald, The Hon'ble Sir Benjamin Herbert, M.A., I.C.S., V.D.	Judge. (On leave)
Cunliffe, The Hon'ble Sir John Robert Ellis, Bar-at-Law.	Do. Rangoon.
Das, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice Jyotis Ranjan, Bar-at-Law.	Do. do.
Bu, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice Mya, Bar-at-Law	Do. do.
Shaw, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice Joseph, Bar-at-Law. ..	Do. do.
Baguley, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice John Minty, Bar-at-Law, I.C.S.	Do. (On leave.)
Sen, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice Surendra Nath, Bar-at-Law.	Do. Rangoon.
Mosely, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice A. G., I.C.S.	Do. (On eave.)
U. The Hon'ble Mr. Justice Ba, Bar-at-Law	Do. Rangoon.
Leach, the Hon'ble Mr. Justice Alfred Henry Lionel, Bar-at-Law.	Do. do.
Dunkley, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice H. F., Bar-at-Law..	Do. do.
Mackney, the Hon'ble Mr. Justice Herbert Hoddy, I.C.S.	Do. do.
Eggar, A., M.A., Bar-at-Law	Government Advocate.
Dun, U Ba, Bar-at-Law	Deputy Government Advocate and Secretary to Burma Legislative Council.
Gaunt, C. H., LL.B.	Assistant Government Advocate.
Byu, U Tun, Bar-at-Law	Do.
Pe, U On, Bar-at-Law	Administrator-General and Official Trustee, Burma and Official Assignee and Receiver, High Court, Rangoon. (Officiating).
Thein, U Myint, M.A., LL.B., Bar-at-Law..	Public Prosecutor, Rangoon.
Tun, U Ba, Bar-at-Law	Assistant Public Prosecutor, Rangoon.
Barretto, Charles Lionel	Public Prosecutor, Moulmein.
Lutter, Henry Millard, V.D.	Public Prosecutor, Mandalay.
Mitter, K. L., B.L.	Assistant Public Prosecutor, Mandalay.
Murphy, J. J. C., Bar-at- Law, I.C.S.	Registrar, High Court, Rangoon.
Goldsmith, W. S.	Registrar, Original Side, High Court, Rangoon.
Maung, U. San, B.SC., I.C.S...	Deputy Registrar, General Department.
Maung, U Thein, (B5), B.L.	Registrar, Small Cause Court, Rangoon.
Sein, L. Hoke, B.A., B. L.	First Deputy Registrar.
Me, U, A.T.M.	Second Deputy Registrar. On leave preparatory to retirement.
Kirkham, G.P., B.SC., B.L.	Third Deputy Registrar. (Officiating, 2nd Deputy Registrar.
Kha, U, B.A.	Assistant Registrar, Appellate Side.
Thein, U Ba (5)	Assistant Registrar, Original Side.
Kyan, L. Hone, B.L.	Assistant Registrar, Original Side (Officiating third Deputy Registrar.)
Khin, Daw Me Me, B.L.	Assistant Registrar, Original Sid e.
Monteiro, R. P. W., B.L.	Do. Co.

Central Provinces Judicial Department.

Macnair, Sir Robert Hill, Bar-at-Law, Kt., I.C.S. ..	Judicial Commissioner. (On leave.)
Grille, Frederick Louis, M.A. (Cantab.), Bar-at-Law, I.C.S.	Officiating Judicial Commissioner.
Jackson, R. J., B.A. (Oxon.), Bar-at-Law, I.C.S., J.P. ..	Additional Judicial Commissioner. (On leave preparatory to retirement.)
Subhedhar, Ganpat Lakshman, Bar-at-Law	Additional Judicial Commissioner.
Niyogi, M. Bhawanishankar, M.A., LL.B.	Additional Judicial Commissioner. (On leave.)
Staples, F. H., M.A. (Oxon.), Bar-at-Law, I.C.S., J.P. ..	Additional Judicial Commissioner.
Pollock, R. E., I.C.S.	Officiating Additional Judicial Commissioner.
Bose, Vivian, Bar-at-Law	Officiating Additional Judicial Commissioner.
Emeon, C. R., I.C.S.	Legal Remembrancer.
Deo, V. N., B.SC., LL.B.	Assistant Legal Remembrancer.
Lobo, P.	Government Advocate and *ex-officio* Standing Counsel.
Sundaram, K. V. K., I.C.S.	Registrar.
Kaer, R. K., B.A., LL.B.	Deputy Registrar.

N.-W. Frontier Province Judicial Department.

Middleton, L., I.C.S.	Judicial Commissioner.
Saad-ud-Din Khan, K. B., B.A., LL.B.	Additional Judicial Commissioner.
Narain Dass, L.	Registrar.

Punjab Judicial Department.

Young, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice John Douglas, Bar-at-Law.	Chief Justice.
Addison, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice James, M.A., B.SC. (Aberd).	Judge, High Court.
Tek Chand, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice Bakshi, M.A., LL.B.	Do.
Coldstream, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice John, B.A. (Oxon.) I.C.S.	Do.
Jai Lal, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice, Rai Bahadur, B.A. ..	Do.
Dalip Singh, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice Kanwar, B.A., Bar-at-Law.	Do.
Agha Haidar, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice Syed, M.A. (Alld.), M.A., LL.B. (Cantab.), Bar-at-Law.	Do.
Monroe, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice, J. H., B.A., LL.B. (Dublin), K.C., Bar-at-Law.	Do.
Skemp, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice F. W., M.A. (Manchester), I.C.S.	President, Sikh Gurdwara Tribunal.
Abdul Qadir, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice Shaikh Sir, B.A., Bar-at-Law, Kt.	Additional Judge, High Court.
Bhide, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice M. V., B.A. (Bombay and Cantab), I.C.S.	Do.
Hilton, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice G. C., B.A. (Oxon). I.C.S.	Do.
Currie, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice M. M. L., B.A. (Oxon), I.C.S.	Do.
Abdul Rashid, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice Mian, M.A., Bar-at-Law.	Do.
Rangilal, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice, M.A. (Pb.)	Do.
Creagh Coen, Mr. T. B., M.A. (Oxon.), I.C.S.	Registrar.
Webb, Mr. Kenneth Cameron	Deputy Registrar.
Ranjit Rai, Lala, B.A. (Hons.), LL.B.	Assistant Registrar.
Evennette, Mr. George Bertram Charles	Assistant Deputy Registrar.
Anderson, J. D., B.A., (Oxon.) I.C.S.	Legal Remembrancer and Secretary, Legislative Department.
Ram Lal Diwan, B.A. (Oxon.), Bar-at-Law	Government Advocate, Punjab.
Din Mohammed, Khan Bahadur, M.A., LL.B., Advocate	Assistant Legal Remembrancer (Legislative, Punjab).
Edmund, Norman, Bar-at-Law	Assistant Legal Remembrancer, (Cases) Punjab Administrator-General and Official Trustee, Punjab.
Des Raj, Mr., Sawney, Bar-at-Law	Public Prosecutor, High Court.

United Provinces Judicial Department.

HIGH COURT JUDICATURE AT ALLAHABAD.

Sulaiman, The Hon'ble Sir Shah Muhammad, Kt., M.A., LL.B., Bar-at-Law.	Chief Justice.
Mukharji, The Hon'ble Sir Lal Gopal, Kt., Rai Bahadur, B.A., LL.B.	Puisne Judge.
Kendall, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice Charles Henry Bayley, J.P., I.C.S.	Do.
King, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice Carleton Moss, C.I.E., J.P., I.C.S.	Do.
Thom, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice John Gibb, M. A., LL.B., D.S.O., M.C.	Do.
Niamat-Ullah, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice Chaudhri B.A., LL. B.	Do.
Bennet, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice Edward, B.A., LL.D., Bar-at-Law, J.P., I.C.S.	Do.
Iqbal Ahmad, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice B..A. L.L.B. ..	Do.
Kisch, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice Barthold Schesinger, B.A., C.I.E., J.P., (I.C.S.)	Acting Puisne Judge.
Bajpai, The Hon'ble, Umashankar Mr. Justice, M.A., LL.B.	Do. do.
Joshi, Dr. Lachhmi Dat, Rai Bahadur, B.SC., LL.D., Bar-at-Law.	Registrar (Offg.)
Mills, Standley Edward Jervis	Deputy Registrar.
Bower, Denzil Mowbray	Assistant Registrar.
Muhammad Ismail, Khan Bahadur, Bar-at-Law. ..	Government Advocate.
Wali-Ullah, Dr. M., M.A., B.C.L., LL., B., Bar-at-Law ..	Assistant Government Advocate.
Shanker Saran, M.A. (Oxon.), Bar-at-Law	Government Pleader.
Mukharji, Benoy Kumar, M.A., LL.B.	Law Reporter.
Mukhtar Ahmad, B.A., LL.B.	Assistant Law Reporter.
Desanges, H. C., Bar-at-Law	Administrator-General and Official Trustee.
Chiene, O. M.	Ditto (Officiating.)

CHIEF COURT OF OUDH—LUCKNOW.

Wazir Hasan, The Hon'ble Sir Saiyid, Kt., B.A., LL.B. ..	Chief Judge.
Muhammad Raza, The Hon'ble Justice Khan Ba hadu Saiyid, B.A., LL.B.	Judge.
Srivastava, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice Bisheshwar Nath, B.A., LL.B., O.B.E.	Do.
Nanavutty, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice Erach Manekshah, B.A., I.C.S.	Do.
Smith, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice Harold Gordon, J.P., I.C.S.	Acting Judge.
Upadhya, Rai Bahadur Pandit Manmatha Nath, B.A., LL.B.	Registrar.
Phillips, Samuel	Deputy Registrar.
Thomas, George Hector, Bar-at-Law	Government Advocate.
Ghosh, Hemanta Kumar, Bar-at-Law	Asstt. Govt. Advocate.
Srivastava, Bishambhar Nath Babu, B.A., LL.B. ..	Law Reporter.

Number and Value of Civil Suits Instituted.

Administrations.	Number of Suits instituted.							Number of Suits the value of which cannot be estimated in money.	Total Number of Suits instituted.	Total Value of Suits.
	Value not exceeding Rs. 10.	Value Rs. 10 to Rs. 50.	Value Rs. 50 to Rs. 100.	Value Rs. 100 to Rs. 500.	Value Rs. 500 to Rs.1,000.	Value Rs. 1,000 to Rs.5,000.	Value above Rs.5,000.			
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)
										Rs.
1. Bengal	113,500	311,082	141,387	138,904	13,404	8,695	1,960	656	729,588	12,77,43,142
2. Bihar and Orissa	38,451	78,925	36,880	43,781	6,201	4,071	819	38	209,166	4,58,19,693
3. United Provinces	7,968	75,582	66,906	91,813	12,111	9,210	2,104	89	265,783	13,50,70,111
4. Punjab	9,680	56,139	55,225	90,358	17,431	8,272	1,307	145	238,557	8,23,03,730
5. Delhi	159	2,865	2,156	4,356	403	582	149	6	10,676	51,05,352
6. North-West Frontier Province ..	1,851	4,349	4,344	7,067	784	828	182	..	19,405	69,58,546
7. Burma	1,067	10,574	10,394	23,373	4,753	3,457	820	518	54,956	3,29,90,661
8. Central Provinces and Berar ..	8,734	43,820	28,347	40,410	6,126	4,874	889	1	133,201	4,07,73,182
9. Assam	2,830	18,335	10,901	13,964	1,638	701	94	82	48,545	81,61,397
10. Ajmer-Merwara	1,437	2,943	2,155	2,848	122	96	14	21	9,636	11,93,961
11. Coorg	178	1,116	651	589	52	36	12	1	2,635	4,31,897
12. Madras	86,192	258,202	85,123	136,217	18,134	13,437	1,914	623	599,842	11,09,54,857
13. Bombay	16,226	74,887	50,553	80,147	13,560	9,641	1,345	3,438	249,797	7,23,15,291
14. British Baluchistan	388	1,872	1,104	704	104	56	31	161	4,420	5,58,510
TOTAL, 1931..	288,661	940,961	496,126	674,531	94,823	63,956	11,640	5,779	(a)2,576,207	67,03,80,330
1929 ..	272,604	869,581	488,856	690,635	99,280	69,898	12,990	6,307	2,510,151*	70,50,07,505
1928 ..	255,191	830,343	480,340	677,267	97,800	70,303	13,217	6,815	*2,431,276	79,69,43,759
1927 ..	258,452	811,721	458,360	630,470	93,715	67,539	12,682	7,216	(c)	
1926 ..	246,508	791,116	430,346	603,587	90,602	64,441	12,756	7,582	*2,349,155	72,50,41,516
TOTALS .. 1925 ..	259,430	849,294	471,970	644,536	102,751	66,737	12,777	7,761	*2,246,938	82,46,99,560
1924 ..	243,786	791,991	423,613	563,777	84,169	60,301	12,245	7,374	*2,415,356	71,39,35,486
1923 ..	232,538	775,769	415,058	541,405	80,846	57,955	11,786	6,551	2,187,256*	63,56,48,827
1922 ..	226,196	799,914	432,905	567,826	86,270	62,467	12,865	5,933	(b)2,121,908	67,78,34,777
1921 ..	212,499	752,504	424,410	552,240	82,843	60,271	12,621	7,096	*2,194,376	70,90,84,504
									*2,104,484	68,50,21,154

* Details not given of 21,206 Madras suits in 1921 and of 6,437 Bombay suits in 1921, 7,104 in 1922, 6,574 in 1923, 6,014 in 1924, 5,628 in 1925, 4,899 in 1926, 4,581 in 1927, 4,047 in 1928, 3,693 in 1929 and 3,785 in 1930.

(*a*) Excludes 3,304 suits of "Superior Courts."

(*b*) ,, 43 cases transferred to Settlement Courts.

(*c*) ,, 2 suits instituted in the court of one Hony. Munsif.

THE INDIAN POLICE.

Origins.—Cornwallis was the first Indian administrator to take the burden of policing the country off the zemindars and to place it on Government. He ordered the District Judges of Bengal in 1793 to open a Thana (Police Station) for every 400 square miles of their jurisdiction, and to appoint stipendiary Thanadars (Police Station Officers) and subordinates.

In Madras in 1816, Sir Thomas Munro took superintendence of police out of the hands of the sedentary judges and placed it in the hands of the peripatetic Collector, who had the indigenous village police system already under his control. In this way the Revenue Department controlled the police of the districts and still to some extent does so, especially in Bombay Presidency.

In Khandesh from 1826-36 Outram of Mutiny fame showed how a whole time military commandant could turn incorrigible marauders into excellent police; and Sir George Clerk, Governor of Bombay in 1848, applied the lesson by appointing full-time European Superintendents of Police in many Districts.

Madras had a torture scandal in 1853 which showed that 3 Collectors had no time for real police superintendence; in 1859 the principle of full-time European superintendence was introduced in a Madras Act of that year and the control of the Collector was removed.

The Mutiny led to general police overhaul and retrenchment and the Madras Act was mainly followed in India Act V of 1861, "An Act for the Regulation of Police", which still governs police working everywhere in India except Madras and Bombay, which has its own Police Act (IV of 1890).

Working.—Strictly speaking there is no Indian Police. With the doubtful exceptions of the Delhi Imperial Area Police, and the advisory staff of the Intelligence Bureau attached to the Home Department, the Government of India has not a single police officer directly under its control. The police provided for by the 1861 Act is a provincialised police, administered by the Local Government concerned, subject only "to the general control" of the Governor-General.

Within the Local Government area the police are enrolled and organised in District forces, at the head of each of which is a District Superintendent of Police with powers of enlistment and dismissal of constabulary; and Police Station Officers may also be dismissed by the D.S.P.

The D. S. P. is subject to dual control. The force he commands is placed at the disposal of the District Magistrate for the enforcement of law and the maintenance of order in the District. But the departmental working and efficiency of the force is governed by a departmental hierarchy of Deputy Inspector-General of Police, Inspector-General of Police, and Home Department. Generally speaking, the D. S. P. has to correspond with his District Magistrate on judicial and magisterial topics, and with his departmental chiefs on internal working of his force.

The C. I. D.—The Curzon Police Commission of 1902-3 modernised police working by providing for the direct enlistment and training of Educated Indians as Police Station Officers, and by creating specialised police agencies under each Local Government for the investigation of specialist and professional crime. These agencies are known as **Criminal Investigation Departments** and work under a Deputy Inspector-General. They collate information about crime, edit the *Crime Gazette*, take over from the District Police crimes with ramifications into several jurisdictions, and they control the working of such scientific police developments as the Finger Print Identification Bureaux.

Headquarters and Armed Police.—At the chief town of each District the D. S. P. has his office and also his Headquarter Police Lines and parade ground. This is the main centre for accumulation and distribution to the Police Stations and Outposts of the District of clothing, arms, ammunition, and accoutrements. Here are the Stores and the Armoury. Here also constabulary recruits enlisted by the D. S. P. are taught drill, deportment, and duties and are turned out to fill vacancies. The Headquarter Lines also contain the two hundred or so armed police who mount guard on Treasuries in the District, and also provide prisoner and treasure escort. Actually they form a small and mobile local army equipped with muskets (single loading) and bayonets. The most highly trained section of them go through a musketry course and are armed with 303 service rifles. At most head-quarters, but by no means all, there is also a reserve of mounted and armed police.

Thanas and Thanadars.—Almost throughout India the popular terms for Police Station and Police Station Officer are "Thana" and "Thanadar." It is at the Police Station that the public are most in touch with the police and the police with the public. Whether it be in a large city or in a mofussil hamlet the Thana is the place where people come with their troubles and their grievances against their neighbours or against a person or persons unknown. In dealing with such callers, the Thanadar, who like police of all ranks, is supposed to be always on duty, is chiefly guided by the Fourteenth Chapter of the Code of Criminal Procedure, and the Second Schedule at the end of that Code. This schedule shows nearly all penal offences and states whether or not they are "cognisable by the police." The fourteenth Chapter lays down that a cognisable complaint must then and there be recorded, visited, and investigated. A non-cognisable complaint is merely noted in a separate book and the complainant is told to go to court.

Police Prosecutors.—The complainant in a cognisable case not only has his complaint recorded but investigated without payment of fee. If the Thanadar succeeds in establishing a *prima facie* case against the accused, the prosecution in court is conducted free of charge by a police prosecutor, who is generally a junior pleader, engaged by Government to conduct police cases in the lower courts. Cases committed

to the Sessions are conducted by the Public Prosecutor or one of his Assistants, and the reports of these officers and the comments of the judge are a means for the D. S. P. to know whether his Thanadars are doing their work properly.

Out Posts.—When the Police Commission of 1860 devised the plan of police that still holds the field, they laid down two criteria of the numbers required. One was one policeman per square mile; the other was one per thousand of population. In towns it is well enough to have the available police concentrated at the police station. But in the mofussil the Thana is very often fifty miles distant from portions of its jurisdiction. It is in such cases profitable to detach a portion of the police station strength under a head constable to man an outpost where complaints can be received and investigation begun without the injured party having to undertake a long journey to the distant Thana. The secret of good mofussil police working in normal times is dispersion. A single policeman, however junior, represents the rule of law and is an agent of Government.

The Chain of Promotion.—Ordinarily the constable may aspire to become a jamadar, or with ability and luck, a Police Station Officer or even Inspector. The directly recruited matriculate who comes in through the Police Training School as a Thanadar may ordinarily become an Inspector or a Deputy Superintendent, or exceptionally a Superintendent. The direct Deputy, an office reserved for Indians, has a good chance of becoming Superintendent, and perhaps Deputy Inspector-General. The direct Assistant Superintendent, whether from England, or from India, is sure of a Superintendentship, and has chances of D. I. G. after 25 years' service. The period of service for all ranks for full pension is thirty years, and if an officer dies in the process of earning full pension his pension dies with him and all his dependents get his provident fund.

Presidency Police.—In the Presidency Towns there is unified police control for the Police Commissioner is responsible for both law and order and for departmental training and efficiency.

The Commissioner of Police of a Presidency Town is not the subordinate of the Provincial Inspector-General of Police and he deals direct with Government, just as the Presidency Magistrates deal directly with the High Court. The Criminal Procedure Code of India is superseded in the Presidency Towns by special police Acts which prescribe police procedure. Justice in criminal cases in Presidency Towns is somewhat rough and ready, not only from this cause, but also because Presidency Magistrates can give upto six months or Rs. 200 fine summarily, *i.e.*, without formal record of proceedings; and if only whipping or fine up to Rs. 200 is inflicted there need be not even any statement of reasons for the conviction.

Round Figures.—The process of reorganisation and retrenchment goes on ceaselessly, annual administration reports for the ten major provinces and four minor administrations appeared tardily, and there are no unified statistics for the police of India and Burma. The following figures are therefore merely to be regarded as approximations, giving a general idea of the numbers of police and the volume of work put through yearly:—There are about 30,000 Military Police, chiefly in Burma, Assam, and Bengal, and these cost about one and a third crores. The maintenance of them is a departure from the principles laid down by the 1860 Commission and the 1861 Act.

Provincial Police including Burma total about 200,000 and cost ten and a half crores or an average of about one crore per major Province.

There are about 10,000 Thanas or Police Stations which annually investigate from five to six thousand murders, four thousand dacoities, twenty-five thousand cattle thefts, one hundred and seventy thousand ordinary thefts and as many burglaries. They place on trial every year about three-quarters of a million persons, of whom about half a million or more are convicted. The jail population of India, which is over a hundred thousand, consists of many habituals who on release proceed to prey on the public until such time as the police again secure their conviction and incarceration.

Statement (1) "Military Police" for 1930.

Assam Rifles.

Commandants.	Assist. Comm.	Sub. and Jam.	Hav. and Naiks.	Sepoys.	Total.	Cost. Rs.
5	15	76	380	3,420	3,896	17,94,019
Eastern Frontier Rifles (Bengal Battn).						
1	3	16	70	753	843	4,14,576
Bihar and Orissa.						
..	..	13	50	418	481	2,61,747
Burma Military Police.						
11	40	265	911	9,974	11,201	78,40,296

North West Frontier Constabulary.

Commandant.	Dist. Off.	Assist. D. O.	Sub. and Jam.	Hav. and Naiks.	Sepoys	Total	Cost. Rs.
1	7	6	135	414	3,644	4,206	21,53,969

Province.	Inspector-Generals and Deputy Inspector-Generals.	Superintendents.	Assistant Superintendents of Police.	Deputy Superintendents of Police.	Inspectors.	Sub-Inspectors.	Sergeants.	Head Constables.	Constables.	Total.	Grand Total Cost.	Proportion of Police	
												to area.	to population.
Assam	1	14	11	9	51	278	1	529	3,486	4,380	Rs. 25,30,972	1 to 11.7	1 to 1,965.06
Bengal (excluding Calcutta.)	7	45	47	29	258	1,826	46	2,628	19,707	24,593	1,64,99,187	1 to 2.9	1 to 1,980.4
Bihar	5	29	25	28	185	1,159	17	1,571	11,431	14,450	82,16,823	1 to 5.7	1 to 2,367
Bombay (excluding Bombay.)	5	35	11	31	178	734	64	4,997	17,866	23,921	1,34,52,282	1 to 5.3	1 to 880
Burma (excluding Rangoon.)	6	40	33	66	229	1,920	18	1,587	9,575	13,474	1,40,13,361	1 to 18.13	1 to 1,054
C. P.	4	23	17	18	147	748	31	1,729	8,612	11,329	58,90,234	1 to 9.1	1 to 1,368
Madras	7	35	32	47	279	1,432	207	3,203	23,414	28,656	1,66,89,178	1 to 4.9	1 to 1,476
N. W. F. ..	1	8	7	14	36	178	5	747	6,105	7,101	35,05,933	1 to 2.3	1 to 417
Punjab	5	36	16	54	135	843	40	3,484	18,236	22,849	1,22,30,067	1 to 4.3	1 to 1,032
U.P.	6	58	41	70	240	2,076	40	2,618	28,639	33,788	1,55,99,440	1 to 3.1	1 to 1,343
	47	323	240	366	1,738	11,194	469	23,093	147,071	184,541	10,86,27,477	1 to 6.7	1 to 1,388

The figures have been brought up to 1931.

STATISTICS OF POLICE WORK.

The undesirability of attaching undue importance to statistical results as a test of the merits of police work was a point upon which considerable stress was laid by the Indian Police Commission, who referred to the evils likely to result from the prevalence among subordinate officers of an impression that the advancement of an officer would depend upon his being able to show a high ratio of convictions, both to cases and by persons arrested, and a low ratio of crime. The objection applies more particularly to the use of statistics for small areas; but they cannot properly be used as a basis of comparison even for larger areas without taking into account the differences in the conditions under which the police work; and, it may be added, they can at the best indicate only very imperfectly the degree of success with which the police carry out that important branch of their duties, which consists in the prevention of crime. These considerations have been emphasized in recent orders of the Government of India. Subject to these observations, the figures below may be given as some indication of the volume of work falling upon the police, and of the wide differences between the conditions and the statistical results in different provinces. They are statistics of cognizable crime:—

Administrations.	Number pending from previous year.	Number reported in the year.	Number of persons tried.	Number convicted.	Number acquitted or discharged.	Number in custody pending trial or investigation or on bail at end of year.
Bengal	8,931	219,761	183,648	168,651	14,991	13,310
Bihar and Orissa	3,038	45,742	28,684	20,117	8,567	5,069
United Provinces	8,086	136,202	98,591	85,461	13,130	18,652
Punjab	10,772	57,949	67,273	41,756	25,484	12,876
North-West Frontier Province ..	2,213	11,112	12,667	6,985	5,682	2,604
Burma	6,309	74,782	65,672	41,521	24,151	6,799
Central Provinces and Berar ..	2,942	39,371	22,568	13,241	5,756	3,571
Assam	1,511	13,728	9,883	5,854	4,029	2,405
Ajmer-Merwara	423	5,685	4,034	3,825	209	330
Coorg	13	437	544	253	145	146
Madras	15,458	170,508	179,170	163,160	16,010	5,581
Bombay	9,081	133,347	137,999	112,789	25,210	12,266
Baluchistan	103	3,546	3,131	3,832	281	214
Delhi	391	6,281	5,518	4,440	1,078	146
TOTAL, 1931 ..	68,396	938,041	819,382	670,885	144,723	83,969
1929 ..	67,540	1,018,522	867,949	730,459	134,529	71,248
1928 ..	63,079	941,955	797,866	661,755	133,268	68,233
1927 ..	57,630	886,675	738,856	602,956	132,313	63,550
1926 ..	57,412	858,777	711,493	582,346	126,215	61,607
TOTALS .. 1925 ..	56,554	877,780	712,697	578,908	176,423	56,336
1924 ..	54,997	887,747	703,553	570,729	130,112	51,490
1923 ..	56,314	846,664	649,101	521,861	124,821	50,604
1922 ..	59,772	857,234	651,466	522,002	127,025	48,484
1921 ..	56,762	842,948	611,154	484,401	124,328	48,410

PRINCIPAL POLICE OFFENCES.

Administrations.	Cases.													
	Offences against the State and Public Tranquillity.		Murder.		Other serious Offences against the Person.		Dacoity.		Cattle Theft.		Ordinary Theft.		House-trespass and House-breaking with intent to commit Offence.	
	Reported.	Conviction obtained.	Reported.	Conviction obtained.	Reported.	Conviction obtained.	Reported.	Conviction obtained.	Reported.	Conviction obtained.	Reported.	Conviction obtained.	Reported.	Conviction obtained.
Bengal	2,859	935	777	54	7,227	1,712	2,032	148	1,078	506	20,303	4,428	33,470	2,184
Calcutta Town and Suburbs.	135	81	27	6	670	253	2	..	24	19	3,645	1,195	623	296
Bihar and Orissa ..	1,652	615	376	74	4,372	1,117	641	100	746	270	12,861	2,688	20,479	1,465
United Provinces ..	2,513	849	1,145	303	8,420	2,582	1,173	286	4,970	993	16,763	3,461	37,170	3,730
Punjab	2,908	1,029	912	378	9,230	3,105	226	102	3,847	1,293	7,777	2,384	20,594	3,122
Delhi	28	8	18	6	328	66	11	3	18	9	876	223	768	108
N.-West Frontier Province.	277	103	618	242	2,531	1,090	155	29	302	66	1,738	463	2,580	273
Burma	919	550	1,558	178	11,779	4,631	4,657	517	4,946	1,594	11,692	3,722	8,466	2,948
Rangoon	75	27	45	7	976	213	30	2	..	..	*2,738	*680	812	167
Central Provinces and Berar.	832	456	312	141	3,332	1,267	71	41	1,087	427	18,545	2,090	10,019	1,475
Assam	961	299	121	34	1,963	576	123	25	380	154	5,489	1,084	6,478	739
Coorg	7	..	4	..	65	20	2	..	14	3	133	44	69	16
Madras	2,134	702	1,190	291	7,030	1,786	341	29	3,765	1,367	18,226	4,362	10,740	1,920
Bombay	1,627	555	651	226	6,541	1,960	339	103	3,099	1,148	10,569	4,052	11,529	2,190
Bombay Town and Island.	129	65	46	* 14	1,017	334	6	3	..	..	3,809	1,430	1,515	260
Baluchistan	19	4	18	3	84	21	..	..	16	1	406	134	218	53
Ajmer-Merwara ..	20	14	15	3	* 168	36	14	..	148	11	1,071	236	951	87
TOTAL, 1931 ..	17,095	6,292	7,833	1,960	65,733	20,769	9,823	1,388	24,440	7,861	136,641	32,616	166,481	21,033
TOTALS 1929..	14,752	5,400	6,422	1,877	64,438	20,053	3,223	779	27,196	8,573	152,948	37,527	171,880	22,596
1928..	15,070	5,384	6,451	1,896	64,799	19,348	3,238	718	27,645	8,498	151,089	36,729	168,990	23,347
1927..	14,996	5,375	6,257	1,785	62,011	18,506	3,606	776	25,456	7,642	154,032	38,044	168,746	22,429
1926..	14,757	5,048	6,227	1,758	58,986	17,295	3,450	746	28,652	7,539	152,353	37,320	169,611	21,786
1925..	15,113	5,207	5,939	1,629	57,791	15,818	3,670	719	24,281	7,539	159,403	38,177	180,123	21,620
1924..	15,272	5,217	5,899	1,623	56,597	15,465	4,367	874	25,549	6,623	169,195	39,564	190,878	21,809
1923..	14,774	4,913	5,803	1,536	54,113	14,528	4,408	877	21,876	6,433	169,589	37,734	193,112	20,405
1922..	15,051	5,362	5,952	1,519	53,213	14,645	5,355	891	23,481	7,073	181,845	39,929	206,929	21,024
1921..	13,987	5,114	6,063	1,642	50,694	14,382	5,574	953	26,554	8,160	191,641	44,204	221,776	23,346

* Includes figures "for cattle theft."

JAILS.

Jail administration in India is regulated generally by the Prisons Act of 1894, and by rules issued under it by the Government of India and the local governments. The punishments authorised by the Indian Penal Code for convicted offenders include transportation, penal servitude, rigorous imprisonment (which may include short periods of solitary confinement), and simple imprisonment. Accommodation has also to be provided in the jails for civil and under-trial prisoners.

The origin of all jail improvements in India in recent years was the Jail Commission of 1889. The report of the Commission, which consisted of only two members, both officials serving under the Government of India, is extremely long, and reviews the whole question of jail organization and administration in the minutest detail. In most matters the Commission's recommendations have been accepted and adopted by Local Governments, but in various matters, mainly of a minor character, their proposals have either been rejected *ab initio* as unsuited to local conditions, abandoned as unworkable after careful experiment or accepted in principle but postponed for the present as impossible.

The most important of all the recommendations of the Commission, the one that might in fact be described as the corner stone of their report, is that there should be in each Presidency three classes of jails: in the first place, large **central jails** for convicts sentenced to more than one year's imprisonment; secondly, **district jails**, at the headquarters of districts; and, thirdly, **subsidiary jails** and "lock-ups" for under-trial prisoners and convicts sentenced to short terms of imprisonment. The jail department in each province is under the control of an Inspector-General; he is generally an officer of the Indian Medical Service with jail experience, and the Superintendents of certain jails are usually recruited from the same service. The district jail is under the charge of the civil surgeon, and is frequently inspected by the district magistrate. The staff under the Superintendent includes, in large central jails, a Deputy Superintendent to supervise the jail manufactures, and in all central and district jails one or more subordinate medical officers. The executive staff consists of jailors and warders, and convict petty officers are employed in all central and district jails, the prospect of promotion to one of these posts being a strong inducement to good behaviour. A Press Note issued by the Bombay Government in October, 1915, says:—"The cadre and emoluments of all ranks from Warder to Superintendent have been repeatedly revised and altered in recent years. But the Department is not at all attractive in its lower grades. The two weak spots in the jail administration at the moment are the insufficiency of Central Prisons and the difficulty of obtaining good and sufficient warders."

The Jails Committee.—Since the introduction of the reformed constitution the maintenance of the Indian Prisons falls within the sphere of provincial Governments and is subject to all India legislation. The obvious advisability of proceeding along certain general lines of uniform application led lately to the appointment of a Jails' Committee, which conducted the first comprehensive survey of Indian prison administration which had been made for thirty years. Stress was laid by the Committee upon the necessity of improving and increasing existing jail accommodation; of recruiting a better class of warders; of providing education for prisoners; and of developing prison industries so as to meet the needs of the consuming Departments of Government. Other important recommendations included the separation of civil from criminal offenders; the adoption of the English system of release on license in the case of adolescents; and the creation of children's courts. The Committee found that the reformative side of the Indian system needed particular attention. They recommended the segregation of habituals from ordinary prisoners; the provision of separate accommodation for prisoners under trial; the institution of the star-class system; and the abolition of certain practices which are liable to harden or degrade the prison population.

Employment of Prisoners.—The work on which convicts are employed is mostly carried on within the jail walls, but extra-mural employment on a large scale is sometimes allowed, as, for example, when a large number of convicts were employed in excavating the Jhelum Canal in the Punjab. Within the walls prisoners are employed on jail service and repairs, and in workshops. The main principle laid down with regard to jail manufactures is that the work must be penal and industrial. The industries are on a large scale, multifarious employment being condemned, while care is taken that the jail shall not compete with local traders. As far as possible industries are adapted to the requirements of the consuming public departments, and printing, tent-making, and the manufacture of clothing are among the commonest employments. Schooling is confined to juveniles; the experiment of teaching adults has been tried, but literary instruction is unsuitable for the class of persons who fill an Indian jail.

The conduct of convicts in jail is generally good, and the number of desperate characters among them is small. Failure to perform the allotted task is by far the most common offence. In a large majority of cases the punishment inflicted is one of those classed as "minor." Among the "major" punishments fetters take the first place. Corporal punishment is inflicted in relatively few cases, and the number is steadily falling. Punishments were revised as the result of the Commission of 1889. Two notable punishments then abolished were shaving the heads of female prisoners and the stocks. The latter, which was apparently much practised in Bombay, was described by the Commission as inflicting exquisite torture. Punishments are now scheduled and graded into major and minor. The most difficult of all jail problems is the internal maintenance of order among the prisoners, for which purpose paid

warders and convict warders are employed. With this is bound up the question of a special class of well-behaved prisoners which was tried from 1905 onwards in the Thana Jail.

Juvenile Prisoners.—As regards "youthful offenders"—*i.e.*, those below the age of 15—the law provides alternatives to imprisonment, and it is strictly enjoined that boys shall not be sent to jail when they can be dealt with otherwise. The alternatives are detention in a reformatory school for a period of from three to seven years, but not beyond the age of 18; discharge after admonition; delivery to the parent or guardian on the latter executing a bond to be responsible for the good behaviour of the culprit; and whipping by way of school discipline.

The question of the treatment of "young adult" prisoners has in recent years received much attention. Under the Prisons Act, prisoners below the age of 18 must be kept separate from older prisoners, but the recognition of the principle that an ordinary jail is not a fitting place for adolescents (other than youthful habituals) who are over 15, and therefore ineligible for admission to the reformatory school, has led Local Governments to consider schemes for going beyond this by treating young adults on the lines followed at Borstal, and considerable progress has been made in this direction. In 1905, a special class for selected juveniles and young adults was established at the Dharwar jail in Bombay; in 1908 a special juvenile jail was opened at Alipore in Bengal; in 1909 the Meiktila jail in Burma and the Tanjore jail in Madras were set aside for adolescents, and a new jail for juvenile and "juvenile adult" convicts was opened at Bareilly in the United Provinces; and in 1910 it was decided to concentrate adolescents in the Punjab at the Lahore District jail, which is now worked on Borstal lines. Other measures had previously been taken in some cases; a special reformatory system for "juvenile adults" had, for example, been in force in two central jails in the Punjab since the early years of the decade, and "Borstal enclosures" had been established in some jails in Bengal. But the public is slow to appreciate that it has a duty towards prisoners, and but little progress has been made in the formation of Prisoners' Aid Societies except in Bombay and Calcutta, though even in those cities much remains to be done.

Reformatory Schools.—These schools have been administered since 1899 by the Education department, and the authorities are directed to improve the industrial education of the inmates, to help the boys to obtain employment on leaving school, and as far as possible to keep a watch on their careers.

Transportation.—Transportation is an old punishment of the British Indian criminal law, and a number of places were formerly appointed for the reception of Indian transported convicts. The only penal settlement at the present time is Port Blair in the Andaman Islands.

Commission of Enquiry, 1919.—A committee was appointed to investigate the whole system of prison administration in India with special reference to recent legislation and experience in Western countries. Its report, published in 1921, was summarised in the Indian Year Book, 1922 (pages 670-671). A number of reforms were advocated but, owing to financial stringency, it has not yet been possible to introduce some of the more important of them.

Fines and Short Sentences.—Those sections of the Indian Penal Code, under which imprisonment must be awarded when a conviction occurs, should be amended so as to give discretion to the court. Sentences of imprisonment for less than twenty-eight days should be prohibited.

The Indeterminate Sentences.—The sentence of every long-term prisoner should be brought under revision, as soon as the prisoner has served half the sentence in the case of the non-habitual, and two-thirds of the sentence in the case of the habitual, remission earned being counted in each case. The revision should be carried out by a Revising Board, composed of the Inspector-General of Prisons, the Sessions Judge and a non-official. In all cases, the release of a prisoner on parole should be made subject to conditions, breach of which would render him liable to be remanded to undergo the full original sentence. The duty of seeing that a prisoner fulfils the conditions on which he was released should not be imposed upon the police or upon the village headman, but special officers, to be termed parole officers, should be appointed for the purpose. These parole officers should possess a good standard of education, though not necessarily a university degree, and should both protect and advise the released prisoner and report breaches of the conditions of release.

Transportation and the Andamans.—The future of the penal settlement of Port Blair was continually under the consideration of the Government of India from the time of the publication of the Jails Commission report, but it was not till 1926 that a definite decision was reached. It was then decided that henceforth only those convicts should normally be sent to the Andamans who volunteered to come, that the old restrictions on life in the settlement should be sensibly relaxed, that convicts should be encouraged to settle on the land, that in certain conditions they should be entitled to release to obtain occupancy rights over the land which they had cultivated, and that the importation of wives and families should be encouraged. The object of these changes was to promote the development of a free colony of persons, who would, after the terms of their sentences had expired, make the Andamans their permanent home. The effect up to date has been to introduce a completely new outlook on life into the settlement, but it is still too soon to appreciate its potentialities. It has recently been found necessary to send to the Andamans certain convicts either sentenced to transportation for life or to long terms of rigorous imprisonment for permanent incarceration in the Cellular Jail. Such prisoners will not be released and allowed to go into the settlement, and its development will in no way be affected by their presence.

Criminal Tribes.—The first essential of success in dealing with the criminal tribes is the provision of a reasonable degree of economic

comfort for the people. It is therefore of paramount importance to locate settlements where sufficient work at remunerative rates is available. Large numbers of fresh settlers should never be sent to a settlement without first ascertaining whether there is work for them. Commitment to settlements should, as far as possible, be by gangs not by individuals. It is desirable to utilise both Government and private agency for the control of settlements.

The **variations of the jail population** in British India during the five years ending 1931 are shown in the following table:—

——	1931	1930	1929	1928	1927
Jail population of all classes on 1st January	163,298	137,129	140,142	136,424	132,253
Admissions during the year	739,840	771,187	598,568	585,206	582,243
Aggregate	903,138	908,316	738,710	721,630	714,496
Discharged during the year from all causes	748,266	744,946	601,581	581,512	578,065
Jail population on 31st December ..	154,872	163,370	137,129	140,118	136,431
Convict population on 1st January ..	136,552	116,184	118,970	116,161	113,301
Admissions during the year	207,568	223,538	167,697	167,013	169,836
Aggregate	344,120	339,722	286,667	283,174	283,137
Released during the year	216,807	196,996	163,796	160,375	162,628
Transported beyond seas	1,685	1,599	1,821	566	1,301
Casualties, &c.	2,503	2,541	2 514	2,497	2,469
Convict population on 31st December.	126,580	136,552	116,187	118,796	116,161

More than one-half of the total number of convicts received in jails during 1931 came from the classes engaged in agriculture and cattle tending, about 166,000 out of 208,000 are returned as illiterate.

The percentage of previously convicted prisoners rose from 15 to 14, while the number of youthful offenders fell from 757 to 430. The following table shows the **nature and length of sentences** of convicts admitted to jails in 1929 to 1931:—

Nature and Length of Sentence.	1931	1930	1929
Not exceeding one month	39,284	35,773	29,888
Above one month and not exceeding six months.	89,647	109,714	67,325
„ six months „ „ one year ..	39,373	40,878	34,235
„ one year „ „ five years ..	30,584	29,950	28,639
„ five years „ „ ten „ ..	4,740	3,935	4,502
Exceeding ten years	575	533	515
Transportation beyond seas—			
(*a*) for life	1,933	1,502	1,637
(*b*) for a term	100	37	81
Sentenced to death	1,331	1,126	1,175

The total daily average population for 1931 was 121,900, the total offences dealt with by criminal courts was 195, and by Superintendents 114,545. The corresponding figures for 1930 were 129,364; 252 and 129,420, respectively.

The total number of corporal punishments showed a slight decrease, *viz.*, from 220 to 174. The total number of cases in which penal diet (with and without cellular confinement) was prescribed was 3,684 as compared with 5,293 in the preceding year.

Total expenditure decreased from Rs. 2,00,42,583 to Rs. 1,75,48,041 while total cash earnings decreased from Rs. 29,38,455 to Rs. 25,72,343; there was consequently a decrease of Rs. 21,28,430 in the net cost to Government.

The death rate increased from 11·78 per mille in 1930 to 12·42 in 1931. The admissions to hospital were higher, and the daily average number of sick fell from 23·88 to 23·73.

The Laws of 1933

BY

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1. The Indian Marine (Amendment) Act.—In order to provide an opportunity for marine service on a voluntary basis for those persons in India who are interested in nautical pursuits, and, at the same time, to constitute a potential reserve of officers for use in emergencies, when the officer strength of the Royal Indian Marine will require expansion, it is proposed to raise and organise a small Royal Indian Marine Volunteer Reserve. Membership of the Reserve will entail a brief period of annual training in one of His Majesty's Indian ships, besides a certain amount of instruction on shore. It is necessary that the members of this Reserve force should be subject, when under training or when called to service, to the same disciplinary code as the members of the Royal Indian Marine. The present Act secures this object by amending s. 2 of the Indian Marine Act, 1887.

2. The Children (Pledging of Labour) Act.—The Royal Commission on Labour found evidence in such widely separated areas as Amritsar, Ahmedabad and Madras of the practice of pledging child labour that is, the taking of advances by parents or guardians on agreements, written or oral, pledging the labour of their children. In some cases, the children so pledged were subjected to particularly unsatisfactory working conditions. The present Act seeks to eradicate this evil by imposing penalties on parties to agreements pledging the labour of children and on persons knowingly employing children whose labour has been pledged. Section 2 defines "an agreement to pledge the labour of a child". An agreement made without detriment to a child, and not made in consideration of any benefit other than reasonable wages to be paid for the child's services, and terminable at not more than a week's notice is, however, not an agreement within the meaning of this definition. Under s. 3 an agreement to pledge the labour of a child is void.

3. The Indian Forest (Amendment) Act.—Under s. 38 of the Indian Forest Act, 1927, the owner of any private forest is allowed to represent his desire that certain sections of the Act be made applicable to his forest or that it should be managed by the expert agency of the Forest Department of Government as a reserved or protected forest on such terms as may be mutually agreed upon. The Court of Wards cannot take advantage of this provision as it is not considered an "owner" of the land or forest of which it is in charge as a trustee. The present Act vests the Court of Wards with the powers of an owner and other sections of the Indian Forest Act, 1927, which are applicable to owners are also made applicable to a Court of Wards.

4. The Cotton Textile Industry Protection (Amendment) Act.—By the Cotton Textile Industry (Protection) Act, 1930, protective duties were imposed on cotton piece-goods for a period of three years. It also extended for a further period of three years the operation of the duty imposed by the Indian Tariff (Cotton Yarn Amendment) Act, 1927. These duties expired on March 31, 1933. When the Cotton Textile Industry (Protection) Bill was under consideration the Government had given an assurance to the legislature that before the termination of the three-year period the effect of the duties on the production of cotton piece-goods in India and on the Indian Cotton Textile industry would be examined in a Tariff Board enquiry. The enquiry was held, but the Board's report was received by the Government of India later than they had originally hoped for and the pressure of public urgent business left insufficient time for the full consideration by Government of the matter. The present Act, therefore, extended the operation of the duties imposed by the original Act up to October 31, 1933, pending formulation of the decision of the Government of India in the matter of the continued protection to the cotton textile industry.

5. The Wheat Import Duty (Extending) Act.—The Act extends the life-time of the Wheat (Import Duty) Act, 1931, so as to continue the existing duties on wheat and wheat flour for a further period of one year, *viz.*, up to March 31, 1934.

6. The Salt Additional Import Duty (Extending) Act.—The Act gives effect to the recommendations made by the Salt Industry Committee of the Legislative Assembly. Subject to certain modifications it extends the life of the Salt (Additional Import Duty) Act, 1931, for a further period of one year.

7. The Indian Finance Act.—This Act continues for one year. Certain duties and taxes imposed under the Indian Finance Act, 1931, read with the Indian Finance (Supplementary and Extending) Act, 1931. Ss. 2, 4, 5 and 7 provide for the continuance for a further period of one year of the existing provisions regarding salt duty, inland postage rates, rates of income-tax and super-tax and the credit to revenue of interest on securities forming part of the Paper Currency Reserve. The duty of one rupee four annas per maund on salt remains liable to the additional duty imposed by s. 5 of the Indian Finance (Supplementary and Extending) Act, 1931. As the tax on incomes of Rs. 1,000 and upwards and below Rs. 2,000 per annum is retained, s. 5 (4) provides for the continuance of the existing procedure

for the assessment of such incomes. S. 3 of the present Act provides for the following alterations in customs tariff:—(1) it fixes a minimum specific duty of 2½ annas including surcharge on uppers of boots and shoes not made entirely of leather; (2) it fixes minimum specific duties of four annas per square yard and two annas and three pies per square yard respectively, with no surcharge, on artificial silk piece-goods and artificial silk mixtures and rounds off the existing *ad valorem* duty, including surcharge, of 34⅓ ths per cent. on artificial silk mixtures to 35 per cent. with no surcharge.

8. The Indian Tariff (Ottawa Trade Agreement) Supplementary Amendment Act.—This Act corrects a few inaccuracies and discrepancies in the Indian Tariff (Ottawa Trade Agreement) Amendment Act, 1932, which have been brought to light by a further scrutiny of the schedules to that Act and by practical experience of the new tariffs. The substance of the Act is contained in the Schedule of amendments.

9. The Provincial Criminal Law Supplementing Act.—The Bengal Public Security Act, 1932, the Bihar and Orissa Public Safety Act, 1933, the Bombay Special (Emergency) Powers Act, 1932, the United Provinces Special Powers Act, 1932, and the Punjab Criminal Law (Amendment) Act, 1932, which replace some of the provisions of the Special Powers Ordinance, X of 1932, contain provisions which require to be supplemented by an Act of the Indian Legislature. The present Act provides for appeals to the High Court in certain cases and excludes their jurisdiction in other matters. It is not within the power of the Local Legislature to pass the legislation necessary to provide for appeals to the High Court from sentences passed by Special Magistrates under the Bengal Public Security Act, 1932. S. 2 of the present Act provides for such appeals. S. 15 of the Bihar and Orissa Public Safety Act, 1933, s. 29 of the Bombay Special Powers (Emergency) Act, 1932 and s. 14 of the United Provinces Special Powers Act, 1932, re-enact the provisions contained in s. 78 of Ordinance X of 1932. Whereas, however, s. 78 of the Ordinance excluded the jurisdiction of High Courts, enactments in the Local Acts have no such effect. S. 3 of the present Act supplements them in this respect. S. 4 does for s. 27 of the Bengal Public Security Act, 1932, what s. 3 does for the local Acts therein referred to. S. 4 on the analogy of s. 491 (3) of the Criminal Procedure Code, bars jurisdiction under the powers conferred by that section in respect of action taken under s. 2 of the Punjab Criminal Law (Amendment) Act, 1932. Under s. 6 the powers of a High Court under s. 107 of the Government of India Act are not affected by anything contained in the present Act.

10. The Auxiliary Force (Amendment) Act.—The Auxiliary Force Act, 1920, provides that persons subject to the Act shall be divided, according to their age, into three classes the Active Force, the "A" Reserve Force and the "B" Reserve, and that specified periods of training shall be undergone by the members of each class. Experience has shown that these provisions, besides being somewhat complicated, are not conducive either to efficiency or economy. An individual's suitability for active or reserve duties need not necessarily depend solely on his age. The present Act, therefore, provides that persons subject to the Act shall be divided only into two classes—the Active class and the Reserve—and empowers the competent military authority to determine the periods of training to be undergone by persons subject to the Act, with the reservation that no such person shall be required to undergo more training than that to which he is liable under the existing law. The original Act is also amended in two other respects. In the first place, greater latitude is provided in the interpretation of the term "competent military authority", so as to enable the administrative procedure and chain of responsibility to conform as nearly as possible to that of the regular army. In the second place, the statutory restriction is removed under which, at present, only persons residing in the prescribed military area in which the headquarters of a corps or unit are located are eligible for enrolment in that corps or unit.

11. The Indian Merchant Shipping (Amendment) Act.—In March, 1929, the Government of India appointed a committee to enquire into the arrangements in force for pilgrims proceeding to the Hejaz from India. The Committee submitted an exhaustive report which contained several recommendations for the amendment of the Indian Merchant Shipping Act, 1923. The Government of India examined these recommendations in consultation with Local Governments and Administrations, shipping companies, Chambers of Commerce, and other interested parties including the Standing Haj Committee of the Indian Legislature, and came to the conclusion that it was desirable to amend the Act in several respects. The present Act makes the requisite amendments. It also effects a few small amendments arising out of the International Sanitary Convention of 1926.

12. The Indian Income-tax (Amendment) Act.—This Act introduces small, but important, amendments in the Income-tax Act of 1922. S. 4 of the Act deals with the application of the Act. Sub-s. (1) of s. 5 makes the Act applicable to all income, profits or gains earned outside, but received in, British India. Sub-s. (2) in dealing with the question referred only to "profits and gains", now the word "income" is added to the phrase to make the two sub-sections harmonious. The amendment is not retrospective; and it does not apply to "income, profits or gains" accruing prior to April 1, 1933, unless they are brought into British India within three years of the end of the year in which they accrued. It is made clear that the section does not apply to agricultural income accruing from land for which any annual payment is made to the State.

13. The Safeguarding of Industries Act.—This Act provides for the imposition of additional duties of customs on imported goods for safeguarding industries in British India. It remains in force till March 31, 1935. S. 2 (1) enables the Governor General in Council to impose additional duties of customs by notification in the Gazette of India to meet any serious menace to Indian industries which may arise from special conditions in any country outside India resulting in the importation of

produce or manufactures into this country at prices which endanger Indian industries. S. 3 (1) provides that every such notification must be laid before both Chambers of the Indian Legislature and will cease to have effect on the expiry of two months from the date on which it has been so laid unless in the meantime it has been approved by a resolution of each Chamber.

14. The Indian Tariff (Amendment) Act.—The wording of Item 148-A of the Second Schedule of the Indian Tariff Act, 1894, extends the lowest preferential rate, *i.e.*, Rs. 30, per ton on sheet of British manufacture rolled from Indian sheet bar, to a considerable quantity of material to which it was not intended that preference should be given. The present Act makes it clear that the lowest preferential rate is applicable only to sheets manufactured from Indian sheet bar imported into the United Kingdom after the ratification of the Ottawa Trade Agreement by the Indian Legislature.

15. The Workmen's Compensation (Amendment) Act.—The Workmen's Compensation Act, 1923, was experimental in character, and since its coming into force on July 1, 1924, a number of modifications of its provisions were effected by the Workmen's Compensation (Amendment) Act, 1929, to remedy admitted defects and to embody improvements of a non-controversial character. The present Act follows the recommendations of the Royal Commission on Labour. Excepting certain sections the Act came into force on January 1, 1934. S. 2 recasts the definition of "dependant" in the Act. It adds certain relations to the list included in the definition, *e.g.*, illegitimate children, and a widowed daughter-in-law. S. 4 deals with the revised scales of compensation payable for death and permanent total or partial disablement. S. 7 relaxes the stringency of provisions regarding notice contained in s. 10 of the original Act in certain cases, *e.g.*, want of or a defect in a notice does not bar proceedings for the recovery of compensation if the employer is proved to have had knowledge of the accident from any other source. S. 8 empowers a Commissioner to require from an employer a statement regarding a fatal accident giving the circumstances attending the death of a workman and indicating whether, in the opinion of the employer, he is or is not liable to deposit compensation on account of the death. It also provides for the prompt deposit of compensation where the employer admits liability. Where the employer disclaims liability the Commissioner may inform the dependants of the deceased that it is open to them so prefer a claim for compensation. S. 11 provides for the imposition of fine for failure to furnish a statement, notice, report, etc., required under the Act. Prosecutions under this section cannot be instituted without the previous sanction of a Commissioner. S. 16 empowers a Commissioner to call on an employer to make up an inadequate deposit to the proper amount. S. 20 provides for the distribution of compensation due under the Act to persons in other parts of the Empire and of compensation due under British or Dominion laws to persons in British India. S. 21 widens the existing classes of workmen benefited by the Act *e.g.*, drivers of private motor cars, workmen employed in handling explosive substances, etc. It also introduces new classes of workmen to the Act, *e.g.*, workmen employed in the operation of any ferry boat, workmen employed in a lighthouse, etc. S. 22 adds four industrial diseases to Schedule III of the original Act, *e.g.*, mercury poisoning, poisoning by benzine and its homologues, chrome ulceration and compressed air illness.

16. The Land Acquisition (Amendment) Act.—The Land Acquisition Act, 1894, makes it possible, where the previous consent of the local Government has been obtained, to acquire land compulsorily on behalf of companies, provided that the land is needed for a work "likely to prove useful to the public". The present Act follows the recommendation of the Royal Commission on Labour and enables land to be acquired by an industrial concern (ordinarily employing not less than one hundred workmen) owned by an individual or by an association, for the erection of dwelling houses for workmen employed by the concern or for the provision of amenities directly connected therewith.

17. The Indian Wireless Telegraphy Act.—The Indian Telegraph Act, 1885 controls only the establishing, maintenance, and working of telegraphs, but does not restrict or control mere possession of apparatus, or penalise such possession without license unless it can be shown that the apparatus is used. It is believed that the revenue lost at present owing to the use of unlicensed wireless apparatus is considerable, thus adversely affecting the financial position of the Indian State Broadcasting Service. The present Act remedies this state of affairs by prohibiting the possession without license of wireless telegraphy apparatus. S. 4 enables the Governor General in Council to permit in proper cases, for instance, for research purposes, the possession without license of wireless telegraphy apparatus. S. 6 penalises possession without license, and provides for the confiscation of apparatus in respect of which an offence is committed. S. 7 provides for the power of search necessary for the enforcement of the Act.

18. The Indian Income-tax (Second amendment) Act.—The object of passing this Act is to stop a leakage owing to the concealment of income derived from interest, especially interest paid on deposits with banks. S. 8 is amended by relieving from income-tax sums deducted from the interest by way of commission by a banker realising such interest. S. 9 cl. (4) is amplified to make its meaning clear. S. 11 deals with professional earnings. The depreciation of buildings, machinery, apparatus, appliances which hitherto was allowed only to persons deriving income from business is now extended to professional men. Extensive alterations have been made in s. 18 with the view of compelling bankers and others to furnish annual statements of payments of interest to any person in respect of deposits held for six months or more. This is further carried out by enacting s. 20A which deals with supply of information regarding interest, not less in amount than Rs. 1,000 in any year. S. 24 has been amended and now the benefits enjoyed by adult members of a firm are extended to its minor members so far as income-tax is concerned.

S. 24A has been newly added. It is meant to enable assessments to be made at once on the income of persons from whom it is difficult to recover the tax after they have left the country, as for instance, a foreign touring circus or theatrical company. The next section 24B enacts a new provision providing for payment of tax of deceased person by his representatives, which lacuna came to notice in a recent Bombay case. S. 30 has been so amended as to give the assessee a right of appeal against an order refusing to register a firm. The next group of amendment deals with the subject of refund. S. 48A defines the general power to make refunds. Power to set off amount of refunds against tax remaining payable is given by s. 49A ; and s. 49B gives power to representative of deceased person or disabled person to make claim on his behalf. A new section 50A has been added to provide appeal against an order refusing refund of income-tax which has already been paid. Liberal provisions have been made by providing references to be made to the High Court by amending s. 66 of the Act.

19. The Indian Railways (Amendment) Act.—The present Act gives additional powers to a railway company to provide and maintain a motor transport or air craft service as a feeder to its own railway. S. 2 empowers a railway company (other than the guaranteed companies covered by the statute 42 and 43 Vic., chap. 41) to frame a scheme for a motor transport or air service for passengers, animals or goods with a terminus at or near a station on the railway. This scheme must be submitted to the Governor General in council, who is required to consult the Local Governments concerned and is empowered to impose any modifications and conditions he may think fit. The Act requires the final scheme to be published in the Gazette of India and thereupon the railway company is empowered to inaugurate the new service in accordance with its terms and in accordance with all applicable enactments and rules relating to motor vehicles, air-craft and roads.

20. The Cotton Textile Industry Protection (Second Amendment) Act.—The present Act continues the existing protection granted to the industry by the Cotton Textile Industry (Protection) Act, 1930, as subsequently amended (Act IV of 1933), for a further period up to March 30, 1934.

21. The Indian Arbitration (Amendment) Act.—Under s. 19 of the Indian Arbitration Act, 1899, where any matter which falls within an agreement to arbitrate is the subject of legal proceedings, any party may apply to "the Court" to stay proceedings; and thereupon the Court may, after an inquiry, stay further proceedings, in order that the agreement to arbitrate may be enforced. The present Act makes it clear that "the Court" referred to in s. 19 is the Court before which the legal proceedings are pending.

22. The Cantonments (House-Accommodation Amendment) Act.—Under Ss. 15 (1) and 16 (2) of the Cantonments (House-Accommodation) Act, 1923, the owner of a house has the right, within a period of thirty days from the service of a notice of appropriation, to make a reference to a Civil Court, if he considers the rent offered to him to be insufficient or the repairs demanded from him to be excessive. Under s. 30 of the said Act, the owner or any tenant of a house in respect of which a notice of appropriation has been issued can appeal, within a period of twenty-one days from the date of the service of the notice, to the Officer Commanding the District against the appropriation itself. The amendments made by the present Act, which are in accordance with the wishes of the All-India Cantonment Association, shorten the time allowed for the appeal to the Officer Commanding the District (ten days); these also provide that where an appeal is made to the Officer Commanding the District under s. 30, the period of thirty days (within which a reference to a Civil Court can be made) must be reckoned from the date on which the owner received the notice of the result of the appeal.

23. The Murshidabad Estate Administration Act.—The Murshidabad Act, 1891, confirmed and gave effect to an indenture made on March 12, 1891, between the Secretary of State for India in Council and the Nawab Bahadur of Murshidabad which set at rest many matters which were the subject of considerable perplexity—the title of the Nawab Bahadur, the incidents of his tenure of various properties specified in the indenture and provision for his own maintenance and support, and that of his honour and dignity. The Act provides that in case the Nawab Bahadur or any of his lineal heirs male successors to the title contravene any of the terms of the indenture or by a course of extravagance or by waste or mismanagement of the immoveable properties included in the indenture disables himself from duly maintaining the dignity of his position the Secretary of State for the time being can lawfully enter upon the immoveable properties, take possession thereof and administer them for the benefit of the Nawab Bahadur during his lifetime. Under the powers so given the Secretary of State has during the lifetime of the present Nawab Bahadur of Murshidabad assumed charge of the estate and of the Government pension provided for in the indenture. Machinery for the exercise of such management by the Secretary of State was not provided for in the indenture. The present Act supplies this. The management will be exercised through a Manager, acting on behalf of the Secretary of State. The Manager will work under the supervision and control of the Governor of Bengal in which province the majority of the properties concerned lie. His powers and duties are defined by the Act which further provides machinery for the ascertainment and gradual liquidation of the liabilities contracted by the Nawab Bahadur. It also provides for the payment to the Nawab Bahadur of a sum sufficient for the maintenance of his position and dignity and affords him protection against the disabilities to which he is exposed by reason of his embarrassed circumstances.

24. The Indian Tea Control Act.—In October, 1932, the representatives of the Indian Tea industry approached the Government of India with a view to securing their support to an international scheme for the restriction of exports of tea. The condition of the industry was precarious and the collapse of many concerns imminent. Government, therefore, expressed their willingness to consider any practical

scheme that might be put forward. The Indian Tea Association, acting for the Industry, produced a scheme the main features of which were :—(1) that the exports of tea would be restricted to a percentage of the maximum exports from each producing country in any of the three years, 1929, 1930 and 1931; (2) that the restriction scheme would remain in force for five years; and (3) that during this period existing areas under tea would not be extended beyond half per cent. of the present planted area. The scheme also provided that the heads of agreement would be enforced in each of the contracting countries by the Government concerned. The present Act gives legislative sanction to the operation of the scheme.

Under s. 1 the Act remains in force till March 31, 1938. Ss. 3 to 8 relate to the constitution, powers, etc., of the Indian Tea Licensing Committee. The Committee consists of the following members :—(*a*) six members, one nominated by each of the following bodies, namely,—The Indian Tea Association, Calcutta, The Assam Branch of that Association, the Surma Valley Branch of that Association, the Dooars Planters Association, the Indian Tea Planters' Association, Jalpaiguri, and the Terai Indian Planters Association, Terai, acting together and the Darjeeling Planters Association and the Terai Planters Association, acting together; two members nominated by the Local Government of Assam; two members nominated by the United Planters Association of Southern India; and one member nominated by the Local Government of Madras. Ss. 11 to 24 deal with the control over the export of tea. Under s. 12 no tea can be exported overseas unless covered by a license issued by or on behalf of the Committee. Under s. 13 the Indian Overseas Export Allotment for the financial year 1933-34, that is, the total quantity of tea which may be exported overseas during that year, including tea exported overseas during that year before the commencement of the Act, must be 320,570,560 pounds avoirdupois. Under s. 14 the export quota of each tea estate for each financial year must be determined by the Committee. The total of all export quotas for any financial year must not exceed the Indian Overseas Export Allotment for that year. Ss. 15 to 17 deal with export licenses. Under s. 21 the Committee is authorised to charge and collect a license fee for every export license issued by it. Ss. 25 to 29 deal with the control over the extension of the cultivation. Under s. 25 as long as the Act remains in force, no one can plant tea in any land which was not planted with tea on March 31, 1933, save in pursuance of a written permission granted by or on behalf of the Committee. Under s. 26 the total area of land in British India in respect of which the permission referred to in s. 25 may be granted must not exceed 4,000 acres. S. 27 deals with the grant of permission to plant tea on any land for the first time. S. 28 provides for an appeal to the Local Government by an applicant aggrieved by any order of the Committee under s. 27. Ss. 30 to 35 deal with penalties and procedure.

25. The Indian Merchant Shipping (Second Amendment) Act.—The International Conference for the Safety of Life at Sea held in London in 1929, and the International Load Line Conference held in London in 1930, adopted, respectively, the International Convention for the Safety of Life at Sea, 1929, and the International Convention respective Loan Lines, 1930. India was represented at both Conferences. The present Act ratifies the two conventions by amending the Indian Merchant Shipping Act, 1923, in several respects.

26. The Dangerous Drugs (Amendment) Act.—As a result of the ratification of the International Convention for Limiting the Manufacture and Regulating the Distribution of Narcotic Drugs, the definition of "Manufactured Drugs" as given in the Dangerous Drugs Act, 1930, required amplification. The present Act amends s. 2 (*g*) (*ii*) of the original Act so as to provide for its being made to cover those drugs specified in Article I of the Convention which were not covered by the sub-section. The Act also empowers the Local Governments to frame rules restricting and regulating the manufacture and possession of prepared opium from opium lawfully possessed under s. 4 (*b*) of the Act.

27. The Indian Medical Council Act.—The General Medical Council in February, 1930, decided to withdraw temporarily the recognition of medical degrees of Indian Universities. By this action the International status of those degrees was endangered. To safeguard this status and to provide for the maintenance of uniform minimum standards of medical education in the country the Government of India, with the concurrence of Local Governments, convened a conference in June 1930 to consider the question of establishing an All-India Medical Council. The present Act establishes an Indian Medical Council to secure a uniform minimum standard of higher qualifications in medicine for all provinces and to arrange schemes of reciprocity with medical authorities of other countries.

S. 2 (*d*) defines "medicine". It includes surgery and obstetrics but does not include veterinary medicine and surgery. S. 3 defines the composition of the Council. It must consist of the following members :—(*a*) one member from each Governor's Province, to be nominated by the Local Government of the Province; (*b*) one member from each British Indian University to be elected by the Members of the Senate of the University from amongst the members of the medical faculty of the University; (*c*) one member from each province where a provincial medical register is maintained; (*d*) three members to be nominated by the Governor General in Council. As regards the President of the Council, for the first four years of the life of the Council, he must be a nominee of the Governor General in Council, thereafter he must be elected by the members of the Council from amongst themselves. A nominated President holds office at the pleasure of the Governor General in Council. Under s. 7 an elected President and other members hold office for a normal term of five years. Under s. 8 the Council must meet at least once in each year. Ten members of the Council form a quorum. S. 9 relates to the executive agencies of the Council. It requires the Council to elect a Vice-President, to constitute an Executive Committee and to appoint a Secretary. S. 10 lays down the constitution, powers and duties

of the Executive Committee, which will be the most important agent of the Council, discharging many of its duties, particularly in connection with the supervision of medical institutions. It must consist of seven members of whom five must be elected by the Council, the President and Vice-President of the Council to be *ex-officio* members. S. 11 deals with the recognition of medical qualifications granted by medical institutions in British India and s. 12 with the recognition of medical qualifications obtained outside British India. Ss. 13 and 14 provide for the settling of a scheme of reciprocity for the recognition of medical qualifications. Ss. 15 and 16 deal with the supervision of medical institutions in British India, which grant recognised medical qualifications. S. 15 empowers the Medical Council to call for such information and returns as it may think fit, in respect of such qualifications. S. 16 empowers the Executive Committee to appoint medical inspectors, who may attend and observe the conditions under which examinations for recognized medical qualifications are held. S. 17 provides for the withdrawal of recognition in the case of any medical institution in British India which has allowed its courses of study and examinations to fall below the required standards. S. 18 empowers the Council to make regulations, with the previous sanction of the Governor General in Council, covering all matters ancillary to the provisions of the Act. S. 19 provides for reports by the Council to Government and for their publication. S. 20 provides for the formation of a Commission of Inquiry in the event of the Council abusing its powers.

28. The Indian Tariff (Second Amendment) Act.—The present Act amends the Import Tariff so as to apply the rate of duty now prescribed for kerosene to all other mineral oils (excepting motor spirit) which evince, when tested by a standard lamp, a prescribed minimum illuminating capacity, and can therefore be used as substitutes for kerosene for burning in lamps. The Act empowers the Chief Customs Authority to prescribe a standard pattern of lamp as the one to be used in testing imported oils for the purpose of the new tariff entry.

COPYRIGHT.

There is no provision of law in British India for the registration of Copyright. Protection for Copyright accrues under the Indian Copyright Act under which there is now no registration of rights, but the printer has to supply copies of these works as stated in that Act and in the Printing Presses and Books Act XXV of 1867. The Indian Copyright Act made such modifications in the Imperial Copyright Act of 1911 as appeared to be desirable for adapting its provisions to the circumstances of India. The Imperial Act of 1911 was brought into force in India by proclamation in the *Gazette of India* on October 30, 1912. Under s. 27 of that Act there is limited power for the legislature of British possessions to modify or add to the provisions of the Act in its application to the possession, and it is under this power that the Indian Act of 1914 was passed. The portions of the Imperial Act applicable to British are scheduled to the Indian Act. The Act to which these provisions are scheduled makes some formal adaptation s of them to Indian law and procedure, and some material modifications of them in their applications, translations and musical compositions. In the case of works first published in British India the sole right to produce, reproduce, perform or publish a translation is, subject to an important proviso, to subsist only for ten years from the first publication of the work. The provisions of the Act as to mechanical instruments for producing musical sounds were found unsuitable to Indian conditions. "The majority of Indian melodies," it was explained in Council, "have not been published, *i.e.*, written in staff notation, except through the medium of the phonograph. It is impossible in many cases to identify the original composer or author, and the melodies are subject to great variety of notation and tune. To meet these conditions s. 5 of the Indian Act follows the English Musical Copyright Act of 1902 by defining **musical work** as meaning any combination of melody and harmony, or either of them, printed, reduced to writing, or otherwise graphically produced or reproduced."

India and the League of Nations.

India is a Founder-Member of the League of Nations and enjoys in it equal rights with other Member-States, a position which she mainly owes to the goodwill shown towards her advancement and aspirations by Great Britain and the Self-Governing Dominions of the British Empire. The League of Nations was established under the terms of the Peace Treaty which was signed in Paris in 1919 after the conclusion of the Great War. Great Britain and the Self-Governing Dominions in 1917 passed a resolution which set India upon the road that led to the high international platform on which she stepped.

India was represented at the Imperial War Conference of 1918, at the Imperial Conferences held in London in 1921, 1923, and 1926, and at the Imperial Economic Conference held in London in 1930. The report of the Inter-Imperial Relations Committee of the Imperial Conference, which was adopted by the Conference of 1926, stated the position of Great Britain and the Dominions to be "autonomous communities, equal in status, in no way subordinate to one another in any respect of their domestic or external affairs, though united by a common allegiance to the Crown, and freely associated as members of the British Commonwealth of Nations. India is not yet a Self-Governing Dominion to the extent indicated in this formula. The first stage in the direction of establishing Responsible Government in India was prescribed by the Government of India Act, 1919, but the Governor-General of India does not yet (to quote again from the Inter-Imperial Relations Committee) hold "in all essential respects the same position in relation to the administration of public affairs" in India as is held by His Majesty the King Emperor in Great Britain. And there are certain other respects in which India's Constitutional position in the Empire is not the same as that of the Self-Governing Dominions. India, for example, is not entitled to accredit a Minister Plenipotentiary to the Heads of Foreign States.

The position enjoyed by India in the Empire governed the position which she entered when, as one of the States of the Empire, she joined in the Paris Peace Negotiations in 1918-19. India's membership of the League of Nations places her in a unique position among all non-self-governing States, Dominions, or Colonies throughout the world. She is an original member of the League by virtue of para 1 of article I of the Covenant by which the League was established and which states that any fully self-governing State, Dominion or Colony not named in the Annexe may become a member of the League. She is the only original member which is not self-governing, and in virtue of the restriction under para 11 of article I, on the admission of members other than original members, she will, so long as the present constitution of the League endures, remain the only member which is not self-governing. As a member of the League, India was for the first time brought into direct and formal contact with the outside world as a separate entity. She was treated as if she had attained to the same kind of separate nationhood as that enjoyed by the Dominions.

India's Attitude.

On questions coming before the League, India has exactly the same rights as any other Member-State. The Secretary of State for India in His Majesty's Government is ultimately responsible for the appointment of Indian delegates and for their instruction, but in practice, he and the Government of India act jointly in consultation and agreement with one another. Partly as a result of her membership of the League and partly owing to resolution No. IX adopted by the Imperial War Conference in 1917, recommending *inter alia* recognition of the right of the Dominions and of India to an adequate voice in British foreign policy and foreign relations, India has been given the same representation as the Dominions at all international conferences at which the British Empire is represented by a combined Empire Delegation. On many occasions in fact she has taken the lead in forming world opinion towards the achievement of the League's aims. In particular in the international Labour organisation she has been successful in bringing Empire policy into line with her own on more than one occasion. In many of those conferences, particularly those of the League, Indian delegations have taken an independent line of action, sometimes directly opposed to the attitude of other parts of the British Commonwealth. One interesting case occurred in 1920 at the Genoa Maritime Conference when Indian delegates in the face of opposition from the Empire managed to secure a mandate for special treatment for Indian sailors in British shipping although there was a concerted move from the Empire delegation to get Indian lascars driven off British ships.

India's New Status.

It will be observed that the situation created by India's stepping from the Imperial Conference into the Paris Peace Conference and League of Nations in the manner in which she did was in certain respects highly anomalous and one impossible to harmonize with her constitutional position as defined in the Government of India Act. Nevertheless, as the Secretary of State, in a Memorandum presented to the Indian Statutory Commission by the India Office in 1929, showed, "It has been the deliberate object of the Secretary of State to make India's new status a reality for practical purposes within widest possible limits." It was not legally possible for the Secretary of State to relinquish his constitutional power of control, nor, consistently with responsibility to Parliament, could he delegate it: "But it has been his constant endeavour to restrict its exercise to a minimum, to keep even its existence as far as possible in the background, and to allow to the Indian Government the greatest possible freedom of action under the influence of their Legislature and of public opinion."

There are available many illustrations of these principles being followed in practice. India is given scope to pursue in the League of Nations an independent line of action within very wide limits, even though, as has occurred in some instances, it brings her into conflict with His Majesty's Government. In 1925, for example, at the conference on Opium and Drugs India so acted that the British delegation had to obtain fresh instructions from H. M.'s Government which resulted in India settling the question of Indian hemp to her own liking. In the event of such conflict within those limits, the Secretary of State acts, if he acts at all, as head of the Government of India rather than as a member of His Majesty's Government. He does not use his power to impose on the Indian Delegation an artificial solidarity with British Delegates, but, rather, with the consent of his colleagues of His Majesty's Government, he stands aside and allows representatives of India the same freedom as Dominion Delegates would enjoy in controversy with the Delegates of Great Britain. India has participated in all the Assemblies of the League, in the annual session of the International Labour Conference where because of her individual importance she plays a very predominant part, and in numerous Conferences on special subjects held under the auspices of the League as well as in some important non-League, International Conferences, including the Washington Conference on Naval Armaments in 1921, in Genoa Economic Conference in 1922, and the International Naval Conference held in London in 1930. India is also represented on several permanent League bodies, *e. g.*, the governing body of the International labour office, the Advisory Committee on Opium and Drugs, the Economic Committee, the Health Committee and the Committee of Intellectual Co-operation. It is interesting to note that since 1921 Sir Atul Chatterjee has been acting as Deputy Commissioner of the Governing Body of the International Labour Office and this position was preliminary to his being elected Chairman in 1932.

The **Personnel of the Indian Delegation** has from the outset largely been Indian in race, though owing to the constitutional organization of the Indian administration it has frequently been necessary for her to be represented by Englishmen. This has especially been the case when specialized experts were required The Indian character of the personnel has as rapidly as possible been increased and in 1929 the Indian Delegation to the annual Assembly of the League was for the first time led by an Indian (The Hon'ble Sir Mohammed Habibullah, Member for Education, Health and Lands in the Executive Council of His Excellency the Viceroy and Governor-General). In the following year the delegation was led by the Maharaja of Bikaner in 1931 by Sir B. L. Mitter; in 1932 by H. H. the Aga Khan; and in 1933 by Sir B. L. Mitter again. A convention has been established for the leadership being held by an Indian. While the delegations to the International Labour Conference are becoming almost entirely Indian in personnel, the workers' delegations always have been Indian. This is merely an expression of the general policy of the Secretary of State that an increasing number of Indians should be given the opportunity of being trained in the international field. An example of the increasing part being played by Indians in League work occurred in 1930 when, during the Assembly of that year and at the instance of Sir Jehangir Coyaji, a member of the Indian delegation, an important resolution was passed in reference to the need for an inquiry into world depression. The Indian Delegation to the League Assembly in 1932 consisted of H. H. the Aga Khan (Leader), Sir Prabhashankar Pattani (President of Bhavnagar State Council), Sir Denys Bray (Member of the Council of India), Members, and Sir Jehangir Coyajee (Head of the Department of History, Economics and Politics, Andhra University). In 1933, the Indian Delegation consisted of Sir B. L. Mitter (Leader), Sir Denys Bray, Sir Abdussamad Khan of Rampur and Sir Hormusji Mehta of Bombay.

The Secretary of State in his Memorandum to the Parliamentary Statutory Commission wrote:—"India's membership of the League has had the effect of stimulating her national self-consciousness and has laid the foundations of an informed public interest in international affairs..... India's representatives have not confined themselves merely to the role of spectators, but have played a prominent part in many of the meetings which they have attended. She has fully justified her position as a separate Member of the League by her co-operation in the economic and social spheres which form so large a part of its activities..... But in certain questions where special Indian interests are involved, the Indian Delegation can and does take an independent line, and may even find itself in opposition to other parts of the Empire.....But sometimes on non-political questions the British and Indian Delegations have remained in opposite camps. On such questions, when special Indian interests are at stake, India's right of independent action extends to speaking and voting against the views advanced on behalf of His Majesty's Government." Lord Reading, in a note at the end of his Viceroyalty, stated his conclusion that the system of consultation between the Secretary of State and the Government of India had worked satisfactorily and that the Government of India, without any definition of its problematical rights, already in practice obtained all the advantages which it might claim.

The year 1932 saw the opening of a League of Nations **Bureau in Bombay** in response to the demands of successive delegations to Geneva. Its purpose is to keep in touch with representative Indian opinion so that Geneva and India may be brought closer together. The Bureau is maintained by the League of Nations without any contribution by the Government of India.

In the Report of the last Indian Delegation, a recommendation was made for the appointment of a permanent Indian Delegate at Geneva.

Labour in India.

Growth of the Labour Problem.—India is and has always been a pre-eminently and predominantly agricultural country and over 70 per cent. of her people are dependent on the soil for their livelihood. Except in a comparatively few cases there is no settled and permanent labour force in most industrial centres in India. The vast majority of industries draw the labour they require from the village—labour which seldom breaks its contact with village life and periodically returns to renew its associations with it. This fact cannot be too strongly emphasised. If it is lost sight of it would be most difficult to understand how large bodies of comparatively low paid men and women can afford to participate in strikes involving complete stoppage of work and loss in wages for periods of half a year. Such strikes would be impossible if Indian industrial labour did not have agriculture to fall back upon as a subsidiary occupation during periods of prolonged industrial disputes. The figures for the 1931 Census show that the number of persons gainfully occupied in the whole of India amounts to 154 millions or 43.8 per cent. of the total population. Of this number 68 per cent. are men and 32 per cent. women. The proportion of the working population, *i.e.*, earners and working dependants, engaged in agriculture is over 102 millions or 66.4 per cent.

The emergence of Indian industrial labour as such may be considered to be associated with the year 1880. Its growth and development since that date may be divided, for purposes of broad generalisation, into four periods: (1) from 1880 to 1915; (2) from 1916 to 1921; (3) from 1922 to 1927; and (4) from 1928 to the present day. The first period marks the growth of factory development with a slow but steady decline in cottage industries. The total number of cotton mills in India rose from 58 to 275 and the number of persons employed from 40,000 to 260,000. The total number of jute mills rose from 22 to 65 and the number of persons employed from 27,000 to 216,000. There was a vast expansion in railways and many new industries were established. Labour was immobile, earnings in agricultural pursuits were extremely low, commodities were comparatively cheap, and industrialists were able to get all the labour they wanted by tapping the adjacent villages at any rates of wages they liked to offer so long as they were higher than those which could be earned by work in the fields. Both the men and the women employed were considered to be a part of the plant of the factory, child labour was exploited, and little thought was given to the human element behind the worker. Hours of work were excessive, no amenities were provided because the only thing that the worker was expected to do was to work, eat and sleep. The provision of housing was a necessary evil which had to be provided where factories were situated away from towns. The Factories Act was modelled more on the lines of providing against loss of life due to accident rather than from the grinding work which a factory worker was expected to do. The humanitarian employer was considered to be a pest who would ruin industry and all that industrialists thought of was the greatest return which could be obtained from the capital invested.

The second period emerged soon after the outbreak of the great war. Large contingents of Indian troops were sent overseas, and had to be supplied with adequate clothing and the munitions of war. Imports of manufactured articles into India were restricted owing to the bulk of the available British tonnage in ships having been commandeered for transport of men and materials to the various seats of war. Heavy demands were made by the belligerent countries for raw products. India secured the opportunity for which she had been looking for generations. Her credit expanded, her industries thrived and the returns on capital invested in every branch of trade and industry became phenomenal. Prices soared high. Owing to the influx of large bodies of persons to the towns, housing became hopelessly inadequate and rents rose to such an extent as to call for legislative restrictions. But nobody thought of those who were mainly responsible for the creation of the added wealth of India. Labour was still considered to be that inarticulate part of the plant of the factory which it had always been. The end of the War brought visions of an Utopia. Big commercial and industrial enterprises were floated. Agriculturists were securing high prices for their produce. Labour was in great demand not only in agriculture but also in commerce and industry. The successes which labour met with during the war in demands for increases in rates of wages impelled them to demand further increases with each increase in the cost of living. Where demands were not granted strikes were threatened. The influenza epidemic of 1918 which swept away large masses of the population of the country created a big gap in the available supply of labour, and almost all the strikes of the period for increases in wages were successful owing partly to the necessity for speeding up production and partly to the shortage in the available supply of labour.

The gradual demobilisation of the Armies of the War and the closing up of the various Munitions Works disbanded millions of men and women who rapidly spent the savings secured during the War. The pre-war industries in the belligerent countries could not be reorganised at once. The spectre of unemployment loomed large. Credit fell. With the fall in credit the demand for manufactured articles declined and prices began to show a marked downward tendency. The year 1922 may be considered as the beginning of this period of reaction and depression and the beginning of the third period in the history of Indian industrial labour. Labour all over the world demanded an improvement in the conditions of life and work. The creation of an International Organisation to deal with all questions connected with labour from an Inter-

national point of view and the commitment of India, as one of the signatories to the Treaty of Versailles, to the ratification and acceptance, as far as possible, of the Conventions and Recommendations adopted by the International Labour Conference have made it obligatory for her to fall into line with the other industrial countries of the world in ameliorating labour conditions. The beginning of this period, therefore, saw a radical revision of the existing Factory Law by an Amending Act passed early in 1922. The existing Indian Mines Act was replaced by another Act of 1923 during which year a Workmen's Compensation Act was also passed for the first time. A Trade Union Act was passed in 1926.

The depression in trade and industry which set in in 1922 has continued ever since. Various attempts were made by all classes of Industrialists to reduce the wages of labour in order to reduce costs of production. Concerted action taken by the Ahmedabad Millowners' Association to reduce the wages of operatives in the Ahmedabad cotton mills by 20 per cent. with effect from the 1st April 1923 was successful to the extent of an eventual cut of 15.625 per cent. being agreed to after a general strike lasting more than two months. A similar attempt made by the Bombay Millowners' Association in 1925 to reduce wages by 11¼ per cent. was, however, frustrated by a strike lasting for nearly three months which was eventually settled in favour of the workers by a maintenance of the existing rates on the removal of the Excise Duty of 3½ per cent. on cotton manufactures in India by a Special Ordinance issued by the Governor-General in Council. Similar attempts made in individual concerns in the Districts succeeded mainly for want of effective combination among the workers. No other organised attempts were made to effect reductions in wages. There were several reasons for this. The most important of these was that after the period of the decline in prices had set in after 1920, real wages, in comparison with the standard of life of the year 1914, began to improve and labour was determined not to let go the advantage gained in the struggles immediately following the end of the War. This period was one in which a considerable number of Acts in connection with labour were placed on the Statute Book. In addition to these, the Government of India had asked Provincial Governments to consider proposals for legislating with regard to prompter payment of wages. The enquiries held in 1926-27 into the question of Deductions from Wages or Payments in respect of fines indicated legislation on the lines of the Truck Acts. It was becoming obvious to the Industrial Employer that Government were most anxious to do all they could to improve labour conditions in India. The employers, as a whole, therefore, did not desire to precipitate matters by insisting on reduction in wages. It was imperative, however, that something should be done, and done quickly to reduce costs of production. The only way to do this without reducing wages was, in the view of the employers, to ask the worker to do more work during the existing hours of employment so as to enable the employer to dispense with a number of workers and thus to reduce his Wages Bill.

The fourth period beginning with the year 1928, therefore, saw the advent of **Rationalisation** or more efficient methods of working. Employers, particularly those in Bombay city, proposed to ask workers to mind more machines in return for a compensatory increase in wages. Some advanced firms controlling cotton mill agencies actually introduced various efficiency measures in their mills. The introduction of these measures necessitated reductions in the numbers employed. The beginning of this period coincided with the entry of the Communists into the Trade Union movement in India.

When the so-called Labour Group of the Indian National Congress failed to obtain acceptance of their ideas by the Congress, they formed in January 1927 a **Workers and Peasants Party,** one of whose objects was "to promote the organisation of trade unions and to wrest them from their alien control." Communist emissaries were sent out to India by the Third International to further war against Imperialism, destruction of capital and the creed of revolution. The Workers and Peasants Party started a paper called the "Kranti" (Revolution) in May 1927 which, however, had to cease publication at the end of the year owing to financial difficulties. The members of the Party took an active part in the strike of the operatives in the cotton mills in the Sassoon group early in 1928, but their attempts to bring about a general strike in the cotton mills in Bombay failed owing to the opposition of the Bombay Textile Labour Union which had been formed by Mr. N. M. Joshi in January, 1926. When another great group of mills in Bombay under the agency of Messrs. Currimbhoy Ebrahim and Sons sought to introduce efficient methods of work, the Communists saw their opportunity. All the operatives of the Currimbhoy group were brought out on the 16th April 1928; and the Communists, with the help of the turbulent elements in the industry brought about a complete stoppage of work by picketing, intimidation and stone throwing in all other mills in Bombay (except two mills at Colaba) by the 26th April. Owing to internal dissensions in another Union of cotton mill workers called the Girni Kamgar Mahamandal, they secured the support of Mr. A. A. Alwe, its President, and formed a new Union called the Bombay **Girni Kamgar Union** on the executive of which several prominent Communists were appointed. The Communists revived the publication of their paper the "Kranti" and they were successful, by holding almost daily meetings at which revolutionary speeches were delivered and by the publication of hand-bills, in capturing the imagination of the workers and keeping the strike going for a period of nearly six months. They also took an active part in the prolonged strikes of the same year in the Tata Iron and Steel Works at Jamshedpur and in the workshops of the Bengal-Nagpur Railway at Kharagpur. They actively associated themselves with the strike on the South Indian Railway and they secured an entry into several Unions connected with Municipalities, Port Trusts and other Public Utility Services. After the calling off of the General Strike in the Bombay Mills on the 6th October, 1928, they endeavoured to paralyse the cotton mill industry in Bombay by calling several

lightning strikes in individual mills on the flimsiest of pretexts, even though the terms of the settlement of that strike required that all disputes between the employers and employed on the interpretation of the terms of agreement should be referred to the Bombay Strike Enquiry Committee which had been appointed by the Government of Bombay to express opinions on the matters in contention.

Bombay has seen few riots and disturbances of the type which broke out in the City on the 3rd February 1929 and which resulted in the death of 149 persons and the destruction of property. The **Riots Enquiry Committee** appointed by the Government of Bombay found that the origin of the riots was the series of inflammatory speeches delivered by certain leaders of the Girni Kamgar Union during the General Mill Strike of 1928 and again during the Bombay Oil Strike which lasted from the 7th December 1928 till after the date of the riots.

In 1929 the Girni Kamgar Union succeeded in calling another General Strike in the Bombay Mills on questions connected with dismissals which they interpreted as a direct attack by the Millowners to undermine the Union. The strike, although not so complete in character as the strike of 1928, nevertheless lasted from 26th April to 18th September, 1929, and was called off only when the Court of Enquiry appointed by the Government of Bombay under the Trade Disputes Act had reported in unequivocal terms that the whole blame for this strike lay with the Bombay Girni Kamgar Union. But the Communist group was able to capture the **Indian Trade Union Congress** at the 11th Session held in Nagpur and to force the moderate elements, consisting of Messrs. Diwan Chaman Lall, N. M. Joshi, B. Shiva Rao, V. V. Giri, R. R. Bakhale, etc., to secede from the Congress on that body passing resolutions boycotting the Royal Commission on Labour in India and het International Labour Conference, by appointing the Workmen's Welfare League, a Communist organisation in England, astheir Agents for Great Britain, and the declaration of Independence and the establishment of a Socialist Republican Government of the Working Classes in India.

It is of importance to lay stress on the problems connected with the **Communist menace in India.** The object of the Communists is not so much the welfare of labour as the spread of revolution. Their ultimate aim is the destruction of capital and the replacement of the established Government by a dictatorship of the proletariat. The manner in which they can achieve this is by penetrating trade unions, by calling strikes in industries, by unduly prolonging them, by putting up strings of preposterous and absurd demands, by refusing conciliation or arbitration; and by sending masses of workers seething with discontent into the districts to preach their gospels of class hatred and class war to the ignorant masses in the villages of India. Fortunately for Industry thirty of the more prominent and avowed Communists all over India were arrested in March 1929 under Section 121-A of the Indian Penal Code for organised conspiracy, under the direction of the Communist International and other Associated bodies, to deprive the King of the Sovereignty of British India. The trial of these 30 persons in what is now historically known as the famous Meerut Conspiracy case lasted from 1929 to 1932 when some of the prisoners were released on bail pending final judgment. Judgment in the case was delivered at Meerut by Mr. Yorke, the Sessions Judge, on the 16th January 1933. One of the thirty accused died in prison, three were acquitted and the remaining 26 were sentenced to terms of imprisonment varying from transportation for life to three years. Muzaffar Ahmed was transported for life. Dange, Ghate, Spratt, Joglekar and Nimbkar were sentenced to transportation for 12 years; Bradley, Mirajkar and Usmani to transportation for 10 years; Sohansingh Joshi, Abdul Majid and Goswami to transportation for seven years; and Ayodhya Prasad, Adhikari, P. C. Joshi and Desai to transportation for five years, Chakravarti, Basak Hutchinson, Mittra, Jhabwalla and Saigal were sentenced to rigorous imprisonment for five years; and Shangal Huda, Alwe, Kasle, Gowrishankar and Kadam to rigorous imprisonment for three years. Ghose, Mukerjee and Banerjee were acquitted. All the convicted persons appealed and substantial reductions were made by the Allahabad High Court in the sentences passed by the Sessions Judge of Meerut. Muzaffar Ahmed's sentence of transportation for life was reduced to three years' imprisonment. The convictions of Ajodhia Prasad, P. C. Joshi, Basak, Adhikari and Shams-ul-Huda were maintained to the extent that their sentences were reduced to the terms of imprisonment already undergone by them and they were ordered to be released from jail. The sentences of Dange and Usmane were reduced to three years, that of Spratt to two, those of Ghate, Joglekar, Nimbkar, Bradley, P. C. Joshi, Majid and Goswame to one year each and that of Chakravati to seven months. The convictions of Desai, Hutchinson, Mitra, Jhabvala, Saigal, Kasle, Gauri Shankar, Kadam and Alwe were set aside and they were ordered to be released forthwith. Some of the prisoners who were released have made frantic efforts to regain their hold on Labour Unions. The good sense of the workers has prevailed in most cases, but the Communists have again succeeded in getting into some of the more important Unions,—notably the Railway Unions, and they are again endeavouring to capture the workers in the Textile Industry in Bombay. In the absence of strong leadership there are, however, several factions in their camps and different groups are working in the same industry.

The depression in trade which set in about ten years ago appears to have reached its zenith during the year 1933. The industry most affected was the Textile. Several cotton mills in Bombay were closed down—some of them permanently and their machinery was scrapped. The failure of Messrs. Currimbhoy Ebrahim & Sons who controlled ten Mills, aggravated the position and tens of thousands of workers were thrown out of employment as a consequence of the closure of the Mills under this agency. In many other cases, the alternative to closure was reduction in the wages in the operatives and over fifty cotton mills of

Bombay City reduced their dear food allowances of 80 per cent. for male piece workers and 70 per cent. for men time workers and all women by an average of about 25 per cent. One or two mills attempted working more machines to an individual with shorter hours of work; and, where workers refused, gave them the alternative of pre-war rates of wages for pre-war standards of work or more machines with higher pay. Strikes of comparatively short duration occurred in a few individual mills as a protest against these cuts in wages, but the absence of trade union organisation in the industry coupled with a fear of unemployment sent the workers back to work within a few days of their going out on strike.

ROYAL COMMISSION ON INDIAN LABOUR.

The British Government, in consultation with the Government of India, appointed on 24th May, 1929, a Royal Commission "to enquire into and report on existing conditions of labour in industrial undertakings and plantations in British India, on health, efficiency and standard of living of workers and on relations between employers and employed; and to make recommendations." The Royal Commission consisted of the Right Honourable Mr. J. H. Whitley as Chairman with the Rt. Hon. Mr. Srinivasa Sastri, P.C., Sir Alexander Murray, Kt., C.B.E., Sir Ibrahim Rahimtoolah, Kt., K.C.S.I., C.I.E., Sir Victor Sassoon, Bart., Dewan Chaman Lal, M.L.A., Miss Beryl M. Le Power Power, Deputy Chief Inspector, Trade Boards, England, and Messrs. N. M. Joshi, M.L.A., A. G. Clow, C.I.E., I.C.S., G. D. Birla, M.L.A., Kabeer-ud-din Ahmed, M.L.A., and John Cliff, Assistant General Secretary, Transport and Railway Workers Union, England, as members, and with Messrs. S. Lall, I.C.S., and A. Dibdin from the India Office, London, as Joint Secretaries. Mr. J. H. Green, M.B.E., was Assistant Secretary. Lt.-Col. A. J. H. Russell, C.B.E., I.M.S., was subsequently appointed as a Medical Assessor and Mr. S. R. Deshpande, B. Litt. (Oxon.), Assistant Commissioner of Labour, Government of Bombay, was appointed as a Statistician to the Commission. The Commission arrived in India on the 11th October 1929 and after visiting several places in India and examining several representatives of the Central and Provincial Governments, the Railways and Associations of Employers and Employed left for England on the 22nd March 1930. The Commission returned on the 11th October 1930 and after touring Ceylon and Burma went to Delhi in November.

The Report of the Commission was published in June 1931 and is a document of first rate importance which will be the text-book of social legislation and labour welfare for many years to come. Moreover, the value of its recommendations is enhanced by the fact that they are practically unanimous and represent the considered opinion of employers, workers, legislators and officials, all of whom were represented on the Commission. Every aspect of the labour problem in India has been considered and discussed and the recommendations number many hundreds and cover a very wide field.

A summary containing the principal recommendations of the Royal Commission, classified according to the subjects with which they deal, was given at pages 474 to 484 of the 1932 edition of this publication. The Government of India, in the Department of Industries and Labour, classified these recommendations under six different groups according as they involved or required: (1) Central legislation; (2) Administrative action by the Government of India; Provincial legislation; (4) Administrative action by Local Governments and Administrations; (5) Action by public bodies, *e.g.*, Municipalities, Universities, etc.; and (6) Action by employees and their organisations or by Workers, Unions; and the recommendations so grouped were forwarded by the Government of India to all Local Governments and Administrations under cover of a circular letter, dated the 30th September 1931, with a request that Provincial Governments should give careful consideration and examination to those recommendations in connexion with which they were required to initiate provincial legislation or to take administrative action and to bring such recommendations as fell within the last two groups to the attention of public bodies and organisations of the employers and the employed concerned. The Government of India published about the end of the year 1932, a first Report showing the action taken by the Provincial Governments up to the 15th July 1932, and by the Central Government up to the 30th September 1932 on the recommendations made by the Commission. Owing mainly to financial stringency, Provincial Governments have so far attempted little local legislation implementing the Commission's recommendations but the Government of India have not only passed six Acts—(1) Act II of 1932 repealing the Employers and Disputes Act, 1860; (2) the Tea Districts Emigrant Labour Act, 1932, which replaces the Assam Labour and Emigration Act, 1901, as amended by the Amending Acts of 1908, 1915 and 1927, and which came into force on the 1st April 1933; (3) the Trade Disputes Amendment Act. 1932; (4) the Children (Pledging of Labour) Act, 1933; (5) the Land Acquisition (Amendment) Act, 1933; and (6) the Workmen's Compensation (Amendment) Act, 1933; but they have also drawn up two other Bills for (1) amending and consolidating the Indian Factories Acts; and (2) a Bill for securing prompter payments of wages and for controlling deductions from wages in respect of fines. The Government of India have also submitted proposals to Local Governments and Administrations for initiating new legislation in connexion with the following matters:—

(1) The amendment of the Indian Mine Act for a reduction in the weekly and daily limits of hours of work, and for certain other matters;

(2) Employees' liability (Re: "Common Employment" and "Assumed Risk");

(3) Extension of Workmen's Compensation to Agriculture and Forestry ;

(4) Making illegal the Besetting of an Industrial Establishment for the recovery of debts ;

(5) Fixation of Hours of Work for Dock Labourers.

(6) Allotment of Seamens' Wages ;

(7) Exemption of Salaries and Wages from Attachment.

(8) Shortening wage periods ;

(9) Arrest and Imprisonment for Debt ; and

(10) The renewal and amendment of The Trade Disputes Act.

The Royal Commission made several recommendations for the control of those factories which do not use power and which are at present not regulated. The Government of India are at present engaged in formulating proposals for a new and a separate Act for the regulation of such factories. Other matters are to be shortly taken up. For a more detailed knowledge of the action taken administratively by the Provincial Governments, Public Bodies and Employers' and Workers' Organisations, the reader is referred to the recent report published by the Government of India as it is obviously impossible to give a recital of such matters in a compact book of reference such as the *Indian Year Book ;* but as it might be of considerable interest to the users of the *Year Book* to have a summary of the legislative proposals at present under consideration readily available, we propose to substitute in place of the summary referred to above, summaries of the more important changes already effected or proposed to be made in the near future. Other important recommendations made by the Royal Commission have also been included in the various chapters into which this note is divided. The changes effected in connexion with the Workmen's Compensation Act, 1923, and the changes proposed in connexion with other existing labour legislation and Recruitment for Assam will be dealt with under the various headings into which this chapter is divided. Summaries of the proposals for new or other legislation already enacted are given below :—

New Labour Legislation.

Proposal to make Besetting an Industrial Establishment for the purpose of collecting debts a criminal and cognisable offence.—One of the several recommendations of the Royal Commission is that the besetting of an industrial establishment for the purpose of collecting debts should be made a criminal and cognisable offence. In this connexion the Government of India invited the views of all Local Governments and Administrations in the Department of Industries and Labour Circular letter, dated the 27th August, 1932. The Government of India pointed out that the proposal aims at preventing two practices associated with the recovery of debts from industrial workers. One of these is the system whereby money-lenders are permitted by some employers to enter the factory and to collect their dues before the workman receives his pay. The other practice is for the money-lender to wait outside the factory gate and to secure payment before the workman can part with any portion of his wages. The objection to both these practices is that they tend to make the payment of interest and the repayment of debts the first charge on wages. When the dues are collected within the factory the workman has, as a rule, no means of resisting the deduction, and when the dues are collected at the gate an element of intimidation not infrequently enters into the transaction. The Government of India recognise that the Commission's proposal does not go far enough as it relates only to action in or near an industrial establishment ; but it appears to them to offer the possibility of stamping out the practice of recovering private debts at the pay desk and of checking at least the power of the money-lender to make his demands a first charge on industrial wages. As such the Government of India are disposed provisionally to support the proposal. Replies from the Local Governments were asked to be submitted by the 1st January 1933, and the matter is under the further consideration of the Government of India.

The Prohibition of the Pledging of the Labour of Children.—The Royal Commission found evidence in such widely separated areas as Amritsar, Ahmedabad and Madras of the practice of pledging child labour, that is, the taking of advances by parents or guardians on agreements, written or oral, pledging the labour of their children. In some cases the children so pledged were subjected to particularly unsatisfactory working conditions. The Commission considered that the State would be justified in adopting strong measures to eradicate the evil. The Government of India accepted this recommendation and introduced a Bill in the Legislative Assembly on the 5th September 1932, proposing to impose penalties on parties to agreements pledging the labour of children and on persons knowingly employing children whose labour has been pledged. The Bill was referred by the Assembly to a Select Committee of the House and the Committee presented their Report on the 19th September 1932. They introduced an important modification in the Bill by providing that "an agreement to pledge the labour of a child" which is made without detriment to a child and not made in consideration of any benefit other than reasonable wages to be paid for the child's services, and terminable at not more than a week's notice will not be an agreement within the meaning of the definition of such an agreement. The Bill was passed by the Central Legislature in February 1933, under the title of "Children (Pledging of Labour) Act." Sections 2 and 3 of the Act were brought into operation at once and the whole of the Act with effect from 1st July 1933.

Employers' Liability (Re : "Common Employment" and "Assumed Risk").—At page 315 of their Report, the Commission recommend that a measure should be enacted abrogating for all workmen the defences of "common employment" and "assumed risk" in civil suits for damages arising out of employment. Persons injured by accident may have a remedy by a suit for damages against their employers in the civil court, and it has been

suggested that the law there applicable is inequitable because two defences may be evolved by the employer to defeat claims which he should justly be called upon to meet. One is the defence of "common employment" by which an employer can plead that an accident was due to the default of a fellow-workman and the other is the defence of "assumed risk" by which an employer is not liable for injury caused to workmen through the ordinary risks of employment, and a workman is presumed to have assumed risks which were apparent when he entered upon his occupation. When the Indian Workmen's Compensation Act was first introduced, it had, in addition to the provisions for workmen's compensation, clauses designed to abrogate these defences in certain cases; but the Joint Select Committee of the Legislature deleted the clauses in question apparently because they were not satisfied that the doctrines, which were derived from the British Common Law, would be accepted by Indian courts. They observed at the same time that if the doctrines in question were so accepted and were regarded as inequitable, they should be removed for all workmen and not for the limited classes to which the Workmen's Compensation Bill was to apply. There is little evidence to show that the existing position gives rise to hardship, but it is possible that suits are not pursued because of the admitted ambiguity of the law, and the Royal Commission were of opinion that, as the defences in question are inequitable, there is need for ensuring that they cannot be invoked. The majority recommended that a measure for this purpose should be enacted and that it might follow the lines of the clauses deleted in 1923, but should, of course, be applicable to all workmen.

The Government of India in the Department of Industries and Labour issued a circular letter, dated the 3rd February 1932, addressed to all Local Governments of Governors' Provinces and the Chief Commissioners of Delhi and Ajmer-Merwara on the subject. The Government of India point out that the two main objections taken by the majority of the Select Committee to the proposal were (1) that it was uncertain that the Courts would accept the defences which the doctrines were designed to remove; and (2) that if the defences were inequitable they should be removed for all workmen and not only for specified classes. The latter objection, in their opinion, is met by the Commission's proposal. As regards the former, they state that the cases of the kind to which the proposed law would be applicable are naturally rare, but that in the only reported case which they have been able to trace (9 A L. J. 173) the doctrine of common employment was unhesitatingly applied. The Government of India incline to the opinion that the defences in question are inequitable and they are therefore not disposed to attach much weight to the fact that they are seldom likely to be invoked or to any remaining doubt that there may be as to the readiness of the Courts to apply them. The clarification of the law would in itself be, in their view, an advantage and they are disposed to favour legislation on the lines proposed by the Commission. The Government of India however requested that Local Governments should consider the possibility of limiting the scope of the law so as to exclude all workmen covered by the Workmen's Compensation Act; or, alternatively, to include only such of those workmen who are in receipt of more than Rs. 300 per month. The replies forwarded by the local Governments on the subject are under the consideration of the Government of India.

Amendment of the Land Acquisition Act, 1894.—A Bill further to amend the Land Acquisition Act, 1894, for certain purposes was introduced in the Legislative Assembly on the 12th September 1932. It was decided during the debate that the Bill should be circulated for the purpose of eliciting opinion thereon. The Government of India, accordingly, circulated a Bill for opinion to all Local Governments the Administrations under cover of Legislative Assembly Department letter, dated the 29th September 1932. It was based on the proposal of the Royal Commission on Indian Labour that the Land Acquisition Act be so amended as to enable land to be acquired when it is intended for the housing of labour either by companies or by other employers. The Royal Commission stated that in a number of instances brought to their notice land suitable for the development of housing schemes had been held at ransom by the owners, and that fantastic values were placed upon it as the result of the construction of factories and other industrial concerns in the neighbourhood. The provision of adequate housing for workmen is one of the urgent needs of industry and this Bill sought to give effect to that recommendation. The Bill was passed by the Indian Legislature in September 1933 under the title of the "Land Acquisition (Amendment) Act 1933."

Hours of Work of Dock Labourers.—There is at present no legal restriction on the hours of work of dock labour in India, and the Royal Commission who examined this question recommended that the normal daily hours prescribed by law should be fixed at nine and that overtime should be allowed up to a maximum of three additional hours on any one day, overtime being paid for at 33⅓ per cent. over ordinary rates. The Government of India have not been able to arrive at any definite conclusions regarding the practicability of controlling the hours of work in the present conditions of dock labour in India and feel a difficulty as to the form which the necessary legislation should take if the recommendations are finally accepted. They therefore addressed a circular letter in November 1932 to Local Governments who control Ports, major or minor, asking them to examine the question and to furnish the Government of India with their views. The Government of India have pointed out in their circular letter that if the necessary legislation takes the form of an amendment or an amplification of the Indian Ports Act, 1908, it would be straining the scope of the Act thereby, and that if it be framed as a separate Act there would be difficulties in the use of the term "employer" and in framing penal sections. They are disposed to the view that the most suitable method of giving statutory effect to the recommendations would be to amend the Indian Factories Act on the analogy of the Factory and Workshop Act, 1901, of the United

Kingdom, expanding the scope of the term "factory" so as to include docks, wharfs, quays, etc.

The circular letter of the Government of India also raises the question of minimum age for the employment of children in ports. As a result of the consideration given to the Washington Convention fixing the minimum age for admission of children to industrial employment, the Indian Legislature passed an Act in 1922 making it obligatory on Local Governments to frame rules under the Indian Ports Act of 1908 prohibiting the employment of children under the age of 12 years "upon the handling of goods at piers, jetties, landing places, wharves, quays, docks, warehouses and sheds." This enactment did not prevent children below the prescribed age being employed on the waterside of the ship as it was not clear whether the Act prohibited such employment or not. The matter was put beyond doubt by a subsequent amending Act which covered all employment in handling of goods "in any port subject to this Act." The Royal Commission considered that work of this kind is not suitable for children and a system of half time working is not practicable. They therefore recommended that the minimum age should be raised to 14 years. The Government of India are provisionally in agreement with this recommendation and also with another which suggests that the enforcement of these provisions should be entrusted to the factory inspection staff. Local Governments with major or minor Ports were asked to submit opinions after consulting the interests concerned. The majority of bodies consulted were not in favour of legislation regarding hours of work for dock labourers but favoured the raising of the minimum age of children employed within the limits of Ports. The whole matter is still under consideration of the Government of India in the Department of Commerce

Exemption of Salaries and Wages from Attachment.—The Royal Commission have made several recommendations in connexion with the indebtedness of industrial workers and have suggested various methods not only for reducing such indebtedness but also to protect the workers from unnecessary harassment in the matter of the repayment of their debts. Their first recommendation in this connexion refers to the recovery of debts through employers. The Commission state that under the Civil Procedure Code it is possible for a money-lender to secure the attachment of the wages of any one who is not a labourer or a domestic servant and they understand that the majority of workers in industry would not be regarded as labourers within the meaning of the Act. But in respect of certain classes of employers, particularly railway servants and the servants of local authorities, the law allows the money-lender to use the employer as his debt collector to a much larger extent. In such cases it is possible to attach half of the employee's salary or the amount by which that salary exceeds twenty rupees a month whichever is less. In some cases private employers are required to make similar recoveries although the legality of this is doubtful. Thus in the case of an employee in receipt of a regular salary, the money-lender can secure an order directing the railway administration to hand over, month by month, a large part of the employee's salary until the whole decree has been covered—a period which extends in some cases to years rather than months. The comparative security of railway service further increases the attraction of the railway servant for the money-lender, and all the evidence received by the Commission goes to show that the level of indebtedness in terms of wages is higher among railway servants than among industrial employees as a whole. The Commission, therefore, recommended that the salary and wages of every workmen receiving less than Rs. 300 a month be exempted entirely from the possibility of attachment. If, on examination, there are found to be objections to applying this exemption to every one employed on a salary less than Rs. 300 a month, the Commission consider that the definition of "workman" in the Workmen's Compensation Act might be suitable.

The Government of India in the Department of Industries and Labour issued a circular letter dated the 25th November 1932 to all Local Governments and Administrations inviting an expression of their views on the subject. The Government of India are of opinion that the Commission were disposed to favour the grant of such exemption to all persons receiving less than Rs. 300 a month, and they, therefore, consider that it is desirable to review the questions generally, and not solely with regard to industrial employees. Replies to their letter were asked to be submitted by the 1st April 1933 and the matter is under consideration by the Government of India.

Arrest and Imprisonment for Debt.—On page 232 of their Report, the Royal Commission recommend that, at least so far as industrial workers in receipt of wages or salary amounting to less than Rs. 100 per month are concerned, arrest and imprisonment for debt should be abolished except where the debtor has been proved to be both able and unwilling to pay. The form of the recommendation suggests that the Commission would have favoured a more general abolition for arrest and imprisonment for debt had their terms of reference been wider.

The present law on the subject is contained in Sections 51 and 55 to 59 of the Civil Procedure Code read with rules 37 to 40 in Order XXI. Under the substantive provisions of the Code a judgment-debtor other than a woman may be arrested and detained in prison in execution of a decree. But under rule 37 Order XXI, a court may, in lieu of issuing a warrant of arrest, issue a notice calling upon the judgment debtor to show cause why he should not be detained. Under rule 40 the Court may disallow his arrest and detention. There is thus no obligation on the Court at any stage to order either the arrest or the imprisonment of a debtor who is genuinely unable to pay; but when a judgment debtor is brought to court the burden of proving that he is unable to pay rests on him.

The important question for consideration is whether imprisonment for debt (where there is no contumacy) should be abolished generally. This question has been considered on various occasions in the past notably in the years 1881-

83. Opinion on the subject was deeply divided but the Government of India reached the conclusion that imprisonment for debt where no fraud was proved should disappear from the Indian Statute-book as soon as the conditions of the country permitted it. This consideration led to the passing of the Debtors Act, 1888 by virtue of which imprisonment for debt was abolished in the case of female debtors and in the case of other debtors the courts were granted a discretion which they did not previously enjoy to refuse to issue a warrant of arrest at the pleasure of a decree-holder and also to order the release of debtors who were genuinely unable to pay. No appreciable advance has been made since 1888 for the elimination of imprisonment of debt.

Following the recommendations of the Royal Commission the Government of India have given careful consideration to the various questions involved and they issued a comprehensive circular letter on the subject to various local governments for their opinions. Replies were asked for by the 30th November 1933 and the question whether arrest and imprisonment for debt where no contumacy is proved should be abolished either generally or for particular classes of persons is being considered by the Government of India.

Extension of Workmen's Compensation to Agriculture and industry.—In their recommendation No. 234, the Royal Commission suggested that the question of the inclusion of persons employed by the larger agricultural employers and of those employed in reserved forests deserves examination. The Government of India addressed a circular letter dated the 21st December 1931 to all Local Governments and Administrations inviting their views on the subject after consulting the interests concerned. Replies were requested by the 1st June 1932. In the light of the replies received, the Government of India arrived at the conclusion that no action is desirable at present on the question of the inclusion in the Workmen's Compensation Act of persons employed by the larger agricultural employers. The proposal for the inclusion of fresh employees is still under consideration.

Payment of Wages and Deductions.—The recommendations of the Royal Commission on Indian Labour in connexion with the disbursement of wages fall under three distinct catagories (1) Prompter payments; (2) a legal limitation of the wage period; and (3) the control of deductions from wages in respect of fines. The Government of India have implemented the Commissions' recommendations under the first and the third heads and they introduced the Payment of Wages Bill in the Legislative Assembly on the 1st February 1933. A motion for the circulation of the Bill was moved on the 14th February and was adopted. The Bill was then forwarded to all Local Governments and administrations for opinion after consuling the interests concerned. The Government of India hope to introduce a motion for the reference of the Bill to a Select Committee during the budget session of the Assembly early this year.

Section 3 of the Payment of wages Bill requires that wages in all factories controlled by the Indian Factories Act shall be paid before the expiry of the seventh day from the last day of the wage period in which the wages have been earned, unless the seventh day is a non-working day in which case wages should be paid on the first working day subsequent to such non-working day. Where the employment of any person is terminated by or on behalf of the employer, the wages due are to be paid before the expiry of the second day from the day on which his employment terminated. No provision is made in the Bill for the prompt payment of wages to those workers who terminate their employment themselves with or without giving notice, nor have the Government of India accepted the recommendation made by the Labour Commission that a week's notice on either side should be made legally binding both for the employers and the employed. Omission to provide for these matters raises a moot point as to whether the Common Law of Master and Servant with regard to contracts of employment is to stand or whether the new Bill is intended to set such law aside.

The deductions which an employer can make from the wages due to his workmen are defined in Section 4 of the Bill which states that notwithstanding the provisions of sub-section (2) of Section 47 of the Indian Railways Act, 1890, or of any other law for the time being in force, the wages due to an employed person shall be paid to him without deductions of any kind except those authorised by the Act. Deductions which are authorised by the Act may be of the following kinds: (1) deductions by way of fine; (2) deductions for damage or loss attributable to the worker's neglect or default; (3) deductions in respect of housing accommodation, tools or raw material supplied by the employer; and (4) deductions in respect of such other services supplied by the employer as the Local Government or the prescribed authority may be general or special order authorise. As this section stands framed, employers are presumably not permitted to effect deductions from wages for income-tax or for judgment-debts on the orders of courts. No deductions by way of fine are permitted in the case of wages due to children under fifteen years of age.

Deductions by way of fine are to be limited to half an anna in the rupee in any one month, and the recovery of a fine is not to be spread over over more than two consecutive wage periods. All deductions by way of fine are to be recorded in special registers maintained in such form as may be prescribed by the Local Governments, and the proceeds of all such deductions are to be expended only on such purposes as are beneficial to the persons employed in the factory or establishment as are approved by an authority to be prescribed.

Deductions for damage or loss attributable to a worker's neglect or default are permitted in addition to those which can be made by way of fine but such deduction is not to exceed the amount of the loss caused to the employer by the neglect or default of the employed person or where the damage or loss is to an article manufactured for sale, the wholesale price of that article. Section 6 of the Bill which covers these deductions would appear not only to permit a continuation of the practice to be foundin cerain centres of the textile industry in India

where employers hand over damaged material to the workers and effect deductions from their wages at the wholesale or the cost price of the finished article, but also to entitle an employer to both kept the damaged article and to deduct its value from the wages of the workman concerned. Deductions in respect of housing accomodation, tools, raw material or other services rendered by the employer cannot be made unless these services have been voluntarily accepted by the workmen.

The Act in the first instance is intended to cover all factory workers and railway employees but the latter are to be exempted from the operation of that part of the Bill which deals with prompter payment of wages. Local Governments, however, have power to extend the Act to any class of industrial undertakings. The administration of the Act is to be in the hands of the Factory Department for factories and the Supervisors of Railway Labour for railway employees. Regarding procedure and penalties, Local Governments are authorised to appoint Magistrates or other persons as primary courts for the hearing of complaints regarding claims. These primary courts can award compensation up to ten times the amount of the claim. Penal proceedings against an employer can only be launched with the sanction of the prescribed authority and only if the claim in the past instance has been successful. The penalties for offences under the Act are fines upto Rs. 500 and for offences under the Rules to be framed under the Act fines upto Rs. 100. No contracting out of the Act is to be permitted and appeals are not to be allowed.

With regard to the fixation of shorter wage periods of a week or a fortnight, the Government of India did not feel that they were on the same ground as they were with regard to prompter payments and the control of deductions and they have therefore made no provision in the Payment of Wages Bill to cover this matter. Instead, they addressed a circular letter to all Local Governments asking for opinions on the subject of the advisability of legislating for shorter wage periods. Replies to this circular letter were required to be submitted by the 30th October 1933. It is understood that where the monthly wage period exists the workers themselves are against the introduction of a shorter period as they are afraid that unless there is a universal change in accounting from monthly to fortnightly or weekly the shorter wage priod will not be of any material benefit; and that on the other hand weekly or fortnightly rents might be higher in total incidence than monthly rents and that in large towns like Bombay the thriftier workers will squander away their earnings more rapidly with quicker payments. The replies submitted by the various Local Governments to the Government of India are under consideration by that Government.

The modifications and amendments suggested by the Royal Commission on Indian Labour with regard to existing labour legislation will be dealt with in the respective sections dealing with the separate subjects.

INDUSTRIAL WORKERS IN INDIA.

In 1922 India obtained recognition by the League of Nations as one of the eight chief Industrial States in the world. The grounds on which this claim was based are stated in the Memorandum prepared by the India Officer which gave the following figures to illustrate the industrial importance of the country:—

> "28,000,000 agricultural workers (excluding peasant proprietors); 141,000 maritime workers, lascars, etc., a figure second only to that for the United Kingdom; over 20,000,000 workers in industries, including cottage industries, mines and transport; railway mileage in excess of that in every country except the United States."

The figures for the 1931 Population Census for India show that the number of Agricultural Labourers has increased to nearly 31½ million. This figure excludes cultivating owners (27 million), Cultivating Tenants (34 million) Landlords (3¼ million) and others (6¼ million). The number of earners plus working dependants in Industry, Trade, Transport and Mines amounts to twenty six millions. Nearly eleven Million persons are employed as domestic servants

The latest figures for the numbers employed in factories are those available in the All-India Report for Factories for 1932, which are reproduced in Summary Form in the tables given below:—

Growth of Factories.

Year.	Number of Factories.	Average Daily Number of Persons Employed.
1922	5,144	1,361,002
1923	5,985	1,409,173
1924	6,406	1,455,592
1925	6,926	1,494,958
1926	7,251	1,518,391
1927	7,515	1,533,382
1928	7,803	1,520,315
1929	8,129	1,553,169
1930	8,148	1,528,302
1931	8,143	1,438,487
1932	8,241	1,419,711

Age and Sex Distribution of Factory Labour.

Year.	Men.	Women.	Children.	Total.
1922	1,086,457	206,887	67,658	1,361,002
1923	1,113,508	221,045	74,620	1,409,173
1924	1,147,729	235,332	72,531	1,455,592
1925	1,178,719	247,514	68,725	1,494,958
1926	1,208,628	249,669	60,094	1,518,391
1927	1,222,662	253,158	57,562	1,533,382
1928	1,216,471	252,933	50,911	1,520,315
1929	1,249,165	257,161	46,843	1,533,169
1930	1,225,425	254,905	37,972	1,528,302
1931	1,373,372	231,183	26,932	1,431,487
1932	1,172,296	225,632	21,783	1,419,711

Statistics for 1932. (1) *By Provinces.*

Province.	Number of Factories.	Average Daily Number of Persons Employed.
Madras	1,452	182,960
Bombay	1,575	389,647
Bengal	1,487	454,007
United Provinces	456	103,474
Punjab	515	45,069
Burma	948	90,578
Bihar and Orissa	283	65,515
Central Provinces and Berar	743	61,627
Assam	639	45,183
North-West Frontier Province	25	1,101
Baluchistan	17	2,443
Ajmer-Merwara	36	13,588
Delhi	41	12,875
Bangalore and Coorg	24	1,644
Total	8,241	1,419,711

Statistics for 1932. (2) *By Classes of Concerns.*

Class of Concerns.	Number of Factories.		Average Daily Number of Persons Employed.	
	Perennial.	Seasonal.	Perennial.	Seasonal.
Government and Local Fund Factories	336	6	120,709	266
Textiles	492	....	669,236	....
Cotton (Spinning and Weaving)	307	....	395,807	....
Jute Mills	100	....	263,442	....
Engineering	609	....	115,294	....
Railway Workshops	81	....	49,629	....
Minerals and Metals	128	....	43,695	....
Food, Drink and Tobacco	983	2,235	50,438	147,118
Chemicals and Dyes, etc.	397	43	44,471	1,728
Paper and Printing	365	....	29,327	....
Processes relating to glass, wood and stone	364	1	33,154	74
Processes connected with Skins and hides	41	....	5,329	....
Gins and Presses	3	2,146	122	149,843
Miscellaneous	84	8	8,735	172
Total	3,802	4,439	1,120,510	299,201

In 1931 for the first time since the publication of the above statistics the figures for the number of factories and the persons employed are classified according to perennial and seasonal factories. In 1932, the total number of perennial factories amounted to 3,802 with 1,120,510 workers and the number of seasonal factories amounted to 4,439 with 299,201 workers.

MIGRATION.

The principal occupation of India being agriculture there are naturally no large movements of population from one part to another. Where the migration figures are high it is generally in the small units. Thus Delhi has 41 per cent. of immigrants and Ajmere-Merwara 19, while in Ajmere City itself there are as many immigrants as there are natives.

Immigration influences the population of India very little. The 1931 census shows only 730,562 persons as born outside the country as against 603, 526 in 1921. As against this must be set off on account of emigration about one million persons who are estimated to have migrated during the decade 1921-1931.

In the case of India migration is however of more importance, varying in British India from 1,244,249 (net) immigrants into Assam to 15,536 (net) immigrants into the North West Frontier Province. In Assam immigration is the highest among all the provinces in India. On the other hand immigration from Bihar and Orissa is the greatest. In the past the tendency was for migration to take place from the Native States to British India but during the decade 1921-1931 this position has been revised and the trend of migration has been on the whole from British India to the States, where the density is generally lower. Among the States, Bikaner provides a most striking example of immigration from British India. In 1931, the number of immigrants in Bikaner was 161,303 or 58 per cent. of its increase in population. Of the immigrants about 54 per cent. were from British India.

Internal migration is of several periods (1) casual migration, involving minor movements between neighbouring villages; (2) *Temporary* migration which is mainly due to demand for labour on canals and public buildings and to pilgrimages and fairs; (3) *Periodic* migration which is caused by recurring seasonal demands; (4) *Semi-permanent* migration is that of persons who maintain constant contact with their homes, although earning their livelihood elsewhere. Such persons often leave their families at their native places during the period of migration where they themselves ultimately return from the place of migration; and (5) *Permanent* migration is that in which the migrants leaves one place for another for good. In addition mention may be made here of another form of migration which may be called *daily*.

The best example of casual migration is furnished by the Punjab and Delhi. Periodic migration is particularly heavy at harvest time and also at the changes of season when traders, herdsmen, graziers and labourers from Kabul, Baluchistan, Kashmir and the hills move down to the plains for the winter months. Temporary migration continues throughout the year.

Within the Provinces.—It is neither necessary nor feasible to deal with the various streams of migration between district and district of the same province or within a district. These movements vary according to times and seasons, but it may be useful to show the extent to which and the source from which some of the more important industrial centres draw their labour force.

Assam's immigration is generally speaking of the permanent type. There have however been some changes since 1921 in respect of the sources of Assam's labour supply. Madras is the only province showing any increase in emigration to Assam while there has been a great decrease in emigration to Assam from Bihar and Orissa. There has been a steady increase in labour obtained locally, indicating greater freedom and fluidity. On the other hand the whole complexion of the population of Assam is being altered by the permanent immigrants from Mymensingh in Bengal. The third class of immigrant in Assam is the *Nehali* but their numbers are decreasing.

Bihar and Orissa is typical of the rest of India in its immobility of labour, 959 persons out of every 1000 being born therein. It has, however, a higher emigration figure than any other province. The net loss to the province by emigration is 17,58,000. As in the case of Assam here also a change is however taking place and the loss by emigration is considerably less than in the previous decade. Emigrants have decreased by 1,97,000 and immigrants have increased by 79,000.

In the case of the United Provinces emigration has increased by a net balance of 1,58,000.

Madras is the third highest province so far as emigration is concerned but its emigration is mostly overseas. The 1931 figures show a very marked increase in emigration to Malaya.

In the Central Provinces there is a growth in 'Daily Migration.'

As between British and State Territory migration in 1921 was against the States and in favour of British India but this position was reversed in 1931. Whereas in 1921 the net loss to the States was 1,24,000; in 1931 the States gained 4,90,935 from British India.

As between British India and the French and Portuguese settlements the balance of migration is greatly in favour of British India.

The two most important countries for Indian emigration are Malaya and Ceylon. Recruiting of Indian labour to Malaya was however stopped in 1930. None the less in 1931 over 6 lakhs Indians were found in that country. In the case of Ceylon emigration of Indian labours continued in spite of the stump in the tea and rubber industries.

OCCUPATIONS OF THE PEOPLE.

At the 1931 Census several changes were made as regards the collection and presentation of occupational statistics. The principal amongst these was that a complete compilation of figures of subsidiary occupations was attempted for the first time. The Census however shows that instead of the proportion of non-working dependants to workers having been reduced by the new distinction between earners and working dependants, the proportion of non-working dependants has actually increased. Thus, while in 1921 out of every 100 persons 46 were workers and 54 dependants, in 1931, 44 were workers and 56 dependants. This increasing dependence is attributed partly to the difficulty of finding employment.

The proportion of earners to working dependants is about nine to two; *i.e.*, of the total working population 81.4 per cent. is in direct receipt of wages or other sources of income and the other 18.6 per cent. are helpers of the wage-earners.

The following table shows the distribution of occupations per 10,000 livelihoods according to classes and sub-classes:—

Class and sub-class.	Means of subsistence.	Total.	Principal Occupation.		Dependent Occupation.		Subsidiary Occupation.	
			Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.
A, B, C & D	*All Occupations*	10,000	5,772	1,649	454	1,242	673	211
A	Production of raw materials	6,584	4,081	1,103	344	610	375	71
I	Exploitation of animals and vegetation ..	6,560	4,066	1,099	343	610	372	70
II	Exploitation of minerals	24	15	4	1	..	3	1
B	Preparation and supply of material substances.	1,756	1,054	305	54	104	202	37
III	Industry	1,038	610	193	30	76	108	21
IV	Transport	165	118	10	7	4	24	2
V	Trade	553	326	102	17	24	70	14
C	Public administration and liberal arts ..	286	210	18	14	4	38	2
VI	Public force	56	49	..	1	..	6	..
VII	Public administration ..	69	55	2	2	1	9	..
VIII	Professions and liberal arts	161	106	16	11	3	23	2
D	Miscellaneous	1,374	427	223	42	523	58	102
IX	Persons living on their income	16	9	2	1	..	4	..
X	Domestic service ..	751	107	53	17	469	14	91
XI	Insufficiently described occupations	503	260	142	12	46	34	9
XII	Unproductive	104	51	26	12	8	6	1

The following table compares the distribution of occupations in 1931 with that disclosed by the 1921 census:—

Class or sub-class.	Means of subsistence.	Distribution of 10,000 workers in	
		1921.	1932.
A	Production of raw materials	7,241	6,734
I	Exploitation of animals and vegetation	7,217	6,711
II	Exploitation of minerals	24	23
B	Preparation and supply of material substances ..	1,759	1,665
III	Industry	1,075	997
IV	Transport	134	153
V	Trade	550	515
C	Public administration and liberal arts	283	269
VI	Public force	71	55
VII	Public administration	69	64
VIII	Professions and liberal arts	143	150
D	Miscellaneous	717	1,332
IX	Persons living on their income	13	14
X	Domestic service	173	708
XI	Insufficiently described occupations	406	505
X	Unproductive	125	105

Some of the differences revealed by the above table between 1921 and 1931 are no doubt due to changes in classification. But it is possible that the greater prevalence of unemployment in 1931 as compared to 1921 has contributed to the diversion of returns from definite to indefinite categories. A close examination of the detailed figures in the report however tends to show that there is a general tendency towards increase in what may be described as modernized occupations.

The following table classifies occupations by sex:—

Among careers in principal occupations the number of females per 1,000 careers is 222. Among working dependants on the other hand females number 733 to 267 males, while if principal and dependent occupations are taken together, the proportion of actual female workers to male is 317 to 683 in every 1,000.

During the 1931 census special returns from factories were not called for. It is seen, however, that the number of workers employed in organized factories is extraordinarily low for a population of the size of that of India, being only 15,53,169. The All-India figure for persons occupied in plantations, mines, industry and transport in 1921 was 24,239,555 while in 1931 it was 26,187,689.

Pasture and agriculture occupies 71 per cent. of the actual workers of India; or, if those who follow it only as a subsidiary occupation are excluded it accounts for 67 per cent. Industry occupies 10 per-cent. of India's workers as compared to 11 per cent. in 1921. The one industrial order in which a marked increase has taken place is production and transmission of physical force. Trade shows a decrease and so do 'professions and public force.' There has however been an increase in the category 'private income and domestic service.'

The 1931 census report contains an interesting analysis of castes by occupation. It shows that in the majority of cases about half the males retain their traditional occupation. About a quarter or less of the half of those that have abandoned their hereditary occupations as their principal means of subsistence retain them as subsidiary.

RECRUITMENT OF LABOUR.

The methods adopted for the recruitment of labour in India have received general condemnation even from employers and the Whitley Commission has much to say on the subject.

Recruitment, except in the case of special apprentices and higher paid workers employed on railways, is effected either through Sardars (Recruiters) or Contractors, or direct at the mill or factory gates. The difficulties in connexion with recruitment are due (1) to the want of a stable labour force at any particular town or centre, (2) to the general illiteracy of the Indian labourer, and (3) to the inherent attachment of the worker taking up industrial employment to his village life and home.

The contractor is sent out to overcome the innate conservatism of the Indian peasant. He is helped in his work by the poverty and indebtedness of the peasant and also by occasional bad harvests, but in addition he not infrequently indulges in fraud and misrepresentation by painting a rosy picture of the future that awaits the peasant in a town with its crowded bazaars and other amusements which are absent in the village. The essence of the system is the payment of an advance to the prospective labourer in order to enable him to free himself from his pecuniary difficulties. The contractor retains some form of control over his recruits and takes good care to recover the amount of the advance together with interest, which is generally calculated at an exorbitant rate. Generally, the employers do not deal directly with the labourers recruited by a contractor. The latter is paid a lump-sum from which he pays his men and retains a portion for himself. In the Central Provinces, however, it is reported that labour is actually purchased from private contractors at so much per head. The system of recruitment by contractors is most in use in Burma owing to the scarcity of labour in that province and the necessity of recruitment from distant places.

The method of recruitment through Sardars is also dependent on the payment of advances, which however are made at the cost of the employer. The Sardar is an operative already at work in the mill or plantation and is sent out to recruit labour from among his relations, acquaintances or neighbours. He is drawn therefore from the same class as the recruits themselves and can therefore be relied on to deal more fairly with them. Another advantage of this system of recruitment is that the men recruited are insured against unemployment and find work waiting for them at their destination. On the other hand, it does not infrequently happen especially in the Tea Gardens in Assam that the Sardar remits persons who are lured away from their homes by prospects of a bright future and who, on arrival, find that conditions of work and wages are not so bright as they imagined. It is, however, only in plantations that this form of recruitment has been used to any appreciable extent.

The recruitment of labour at the mill-gate or at the surface of mines is the form of recruitment which is gradually gaining in importance over the other two methods. The news of the very much higher rates of wages paid in towns (which to the villager sounds fabulous as he has no idea of the higher cost of living) spreads throughout the countryside and draws large crowds of would-be workers. They are to be found at convenient gathering places on the thoroughfares waiting to be picked up for employment.

The older hands also return from their village with groups of friends, relations and neighbours who come in the hope of finding employment in the mills. But the ignorance, simplicity and poverty of the Indian peasant render his exploitation an easy matter. The employer does not recruit himself the men required for his establishment but holds the overseer, jobber or mukadam responsible for the adequate supply of labour in the department. The latter takes the place of the contractor and exacts bribes from the new recruits. He also acts as a money-lender and thereby reaps a double harvest from the needy labourer. It would appear therefore that education and organisation are the only means by which Indian workers can escape from the clutches of intermediaries who like harpies are ever ready to prey on them.

In the coalfields in Bihar and Orissa unskilled labour is recruited by means of Sardars. The Sardar visits villages and brings the labour with him, and the labour brought by him forms his gang. He has to pay the labour *buckseesh*, *khoraki* and travelling expenses, and for this purpose he frequently receives advances either from the contractor or from the Company concerned. At the Bhowra colliery advances varying from Rs. 3 to Rs. 10 are paid to the recruits in addition to their travelling allowances and food. Such advances are seldom recovered and never if the gang maintains good attendance at work. The Sardar obtains remuneration for his services in various ways. Sometimes he is paid a commission and a salary, but generally he is paid a certain amount on each ton of coal raised by miners working in his gang. Independent recruiters are paid at 9 pies per tub raised. In the Central Provinces the recruiters or mukadams as they are called receive 3 pies per head per week from the individual labourers whom they recruit and wages from the employers.

The Tata Iron and Steel Company at Jamshedpur maintain an Employment Bureau where skilled and unskilled workers are registered and employed. Applicants for work assemble in a yard and daily requirements are selected by the officer in charge. No outside recruitment is done in the literal sense of the word, but in the event of special qualifications being required and no applicants being available, the post is advertised in a few leading newspapers.

The methods adopted by different Indian railways for the recruitment of unskilled labour are generally the same as those which obtain in other industries. In the case of workshopmen, a trade test is generally given and in every case a medical examination has to be gone through. Special apprentices for the higher grades are engaged by all Railways. The terms and conditions attached to apprenticeship in most cases are similar.

The Royal Commission on Indian Labour has made several recommendations with regard to the employment of the factory worker for the guidance of employees in general. We reproduce below some of the more important of these recommendations:—

(*a*) Jobbers should be excluded from the engagement and dismissal of labour.

(*b*) Whenever the scale of the factory permits it, a Labour Officer should be appointed directly under the General Manager. His main functions should be in regard to engagements, dismissals and discharge.

(*c*) Where it is not possible to appoint a whole time Labour Officer, the Manager or some responsible officer should retain complete control of engagements and dismissals.

(*d*) Employers' Associations in co-operation with trade unions should adopt a common policy to stamp out bribery.

(*e*) Where women are engaged in substantial numbers, at least one educated woman should be appointed in charge of their welfare and supervision throughout the factory.

(*f*) Workers should be encouraged to apply for definite periods of leave and should go with a promise that on their return at the proper time they will be able to resume their old work. Whenever possible an allowance should be given to the worker who goes on leave after approved service.

Messrs. E. D. Sassoon & Co., who control eleven cotton textile mills in Bombay and the Burma-Shell Corporation, have appointed Special Labour Welfare Officers to recruit labourers and look after their welfare. The acute trade depression has, however, prevented a more general adoption of this system but several firms are making noteworthy attempts to improve existing methods of recruitment in factories.

Recruitment for Assam: The Assam Labour and Emigration Act, 1901, was designed mainly to regulate the recruitment and engagement of indentured labour. It had not been possible for some years for any worker in Assam to be subjected to a penal contract and, in consequence of this and other changes, the law became entirely unsuited to present conditions. Attempts were made by amending Acts in 1908, 1915 and 1927 to adapt the Act to meet altering conditions. Substantial parts of the original Act were repealed and large numbers of rules framed in an endeavour to use the Act to regulate the recruitment of emigrants who are subject to no indenture. These changes proved inadequate and they made the law exremely confused. Large parts of the surviving provisions of the Act became completely ineffective and those provisions which were operative were open to weighty criticisms.

During the years 1926-1928 the Government of India carried on consultations with the Local Governments in regard to amending the law governing recruitment of labour for the Assam tea gardens. In the meanwhile, the Royal Commission on Labour had been appointed and they collected a large amount of evidence on the subject. The Commission recommended the replacement of the existing legislation by a new enactment and suggested that the power conferred by section 3 of the Assam Labour and Emigration Act of 1901 to prohibit recruitment for Assam in particular localities should be withdrawn immediately. They recommended that the new Act should provide (*a*) that no assisted emigrants from controlled areas should

be forwarded to the Assam tea gardens except through a depot maintained either by the Tea Industry or by suitable groups of employers and approved by the Local Government or by such authority as it may appoint; (*b*) that the Government of India should have power to frame rules regarding transit arrangements, in particular for the laying down of certain prescribed routes to Assam and for the maintenance of depots at necessary intervals; and (*c*) that in the event of the recrudescence of abuses, Government should have power to reintroduce in any area the prohibition of recruitment otherwise than by means of licensed *garden-sirdars* and licensed recruiters. Another recommendation of the Commission was that the Assam Labour Board should be abolished and in its place the Government of India should appoint a Protector of Immigrants in Assam to look after the interests of emigrants from other Provinces. With regard to the question of repatriation, the Commission recommended that every future assisted emigrant to an Assam tea garden should have the right after the first three years to be repatriated at his employer's expense and that the Protector should be empowered to repatriate a garden worker at the expense of the employer within one year of his arrival if it is found necessary on the ground of health, unsuitability of the work to his personal capacity or for other sufficient reason.

The Government of India framed a Bill called the Tea Districts Emgirant Labour Bill, based mainly on the recommendations of the Commission but with variations in respect of minor details. The Bill was introduced in the Legislative Assembly on the 11th March 1932 and was circulated to all Local Governments for opinion. It was then referred to a select Committee who presented their Report to the Assembly on the 5th September 1932. The Bill as amended by the select Committee was passed by the Indian Legislature in September 1932 and received the assent of the Governor-General on the 8th October 1932. The new Act came into operation from the 1st April 1933.

The Tea Districts Emigrant Labour Act, 1932, extends to the whole of British India including the Southal Parganas and repeals the Assam Labour and Emigration Act, 1901, and the subsequent amending Acts. The first object of the Act is to make it possible, on the one hand, to exercise all the control over the recruitment and forwarding of assisted emigrants to the Assam Tea Gardens as may be justified and required by the interests of emigrants and potential emigrants; and, on the other hand, to ensure that no restrictions are imposed which are not justified. Local Governments are empowered, subject to the control of the Government of India, to impose control over the forwarding of assisted emigrants (Chapter III) or over both their recruitment and their forwarding as occasion may dictate (Chapters III and IV). Employers will be prevented from recruiting otherwise than by means of certificated *garden sirdars* or licensed recruiters. It is made unlawful to assist persons under 16 to emigrate unless they are accompanied by their parents or guardians. With regard to the question of repatriation (Chapter II), every emigrant labourer, on the expiry of a period of three years from the date of his entry into Assam, will have the right of repatriation as against the employer employing him at such expiry (Section 7); and any emigrant labourer who before the expiry of three years from his entry into Assam is dismissed by his employer otherwise than for wilful and serious misconduct will also have the right of repatriation (Section 8 (1)). It will also be possible to claim repatriation within three years in the event of the emigrant failing in health, not being provided with suitable work or having his wages unjustly withheld or for any other sufficient cause (Section 10 (1)). Further, repatriation can be ordered at any time by a criminal court in the case of a labourer who has been assaulted by the employer or by his agent (Section 11). Where an employer fails to make all the necessary arrangements for the repatriation of a labourer working under him within fifteen days from the date on which a right of repatriation arises to an emigrant labourer the Controller may direct the employer concerned to despatch such labourer and his family or to pay him such compensation as may be prescribed within such period as the Controller may fix (Sections 13 and 15).

Section 3 of the Act makes provision for the appointment of a Controller of Emigrants with some staff and possibly one or more Deputy Controllers for supervising the general administration of the system which the Act seeks to establish; and the charges are to be met from an annual cess called the Emigrant Labour cess which shall be levied at such rate not exceeding Rs. 9 per each emigrant as the Governor-General in Council may, by a notification in the "Gazette of India," determine for each year of levy.

The provisions of the Act are intended to apply only to emigration for work on tea plantations in the eight specified districts in Assam in the first instance; but power is retained to extend its application to other industries and to other districts in Assam if necessary (Section 38).

Latest Statistics.—The Annual Report on the working of the Assam Labour Board during the year ending the 30th June 1932 is the latest available. The Report shows that the total number of persons recruited during the year was 49,857 as against 50,555 in the previous year. The average of advances to garden sirdars for each adult recruit fell in 25 and rose in 3 agencies as compared with the preceding year. No cases occurred in which the local Agents were found to be extravagant or indiscreet in the matter of giving advances to sirdars. The total number of garden sirdars prosecuted for offences in connexion with recruitment was 32 as compared with 69 in the previous year. The rate of cess on garden sirdars and emigrants was eight annas per head during 1931-32. The actual receipts from the cess amounted to Rs. 26,721-8-0.

Reforms in the Bombay Cotton Mill Industry.—In a circular letter dated the 8th January 1930 the Bombay Millowners' Association instructed all mills affiliated to the Association to introduce, wherever possible, a policy of direct recruitment of labour instead

of the existing practice of recruitment through jobbers. The introduction of a system for providing Discharge Certificates to operatives leaving service was also recommended. The certificates are to contain a record of the service of the operative concerned and in all cases of recruitment, the men presenting themselves for employment will be asked to produce their Discharge Certificates. Notices are to be posted at all mills stating (*a*) that all persons will be engaged by the Manager or by the head of the department concerned, and (*b*) that any heads of departments, assistants or jobbers accepting bribes from the workpeople will be instantly dismissed.

Several groups of mills are considering the possibility of employing labour officers who will be responsible for the direct recruitment of labour and for welfare work generally. The action taken by Messrs. E. D. Sassoon & Co. in this connexion has already been referred to above.

ABSENTEEISM AND LABOUR TURNOVER.

Though there is meagre statistical information available on this subject, it may be stated with a fair amount of accuracy that the Indian worker is more habituated to absent himself from work than his prototype in other countries. He has yet to get himself thoroughly adapted to the industrial environment in which he finds himself. The reasons for his absence are not always connected with his love of rest but in many cases absence is due to causes beyond his control such as sickness, domestic difficulties, etc. The effects which poor and indifferent housing have on his work have been dealt with in the Section on Industrial Housing.

The Factory Labour Commission of 1907 made an inquiry into the number of absent workers and came to the conclusion that the average worker took 2 days off every month and a further holiday of from 3 to 7 weeks every year. In addition, he receives the weekly holiday and from 4 to 10 Indian holidays during the year. The question of absenteeism received the attention of the Indian Tariff Board (Cotton Textile Industry) and it was urged in evidence before them that the efficiency of labour in Bombay was greatly reduced by the high percentage of absenteeism among the operatives. The Board came to the conclusion that Ahmedabad had a great advantage over Bombay in the matter of absenteeism, both in respect of a low rate throughout the year and also of the absence of the wide seasonal variations which were apparent in other centres of the textile industry. They therefore recommended that in order to minimise the effect of absenteeism there should be a general adoption of a system already in force in a few mills in Bombay under which a certain number of spare hands are entertained in each department, except the weaving. The Board said "The percentage of extra men in each department is not necessarily the same, but we were given to understand that spread over the whole of the mill, it usually worked out at about 10 per cent."

Messrs. E. D. Sassoon & Co. started last year in some of the cotton textile mills under their agency in Bombay, a system of decasualisation of their *badli* (or substitute) labour. By this system if absenteeism is estimated at 10 per cent. on a total labour force of 1,000 for any one unit substitute passes are issued to 100 workers and substitute work is limited to these ticket holders only. The system is one which deserves to be more generally adopted.

The Labour Office of the Government of Bombay publishes in the *Labour Gazette* every month statistics of absenteeism in the textile mills at the important centres of the cotton industry in the Bombay Presidency and in Engineering workshops of the Bombay and Karachi Port Trusts. If figures of absenteeism for each day during any month are examined it is found that they are higher on days immediately following pay day. The following table gives the figures for percentage absenteeism month by month for the year 1933 with averages for the whole year for cotton textile mills in three important centres of the Bombay Presidency.

PERCENTAGE ABSENTEEISM IN THE TEXTILE INDUSTRY.

Month.	Bombay.	Ahmedabad.	Sholapur.
January	9.60	3.55	13.73
February	10.31	3.54	14.69
March	10.26	3.59	14.49
April	10.41	3.93	15.00
May	9.57	3.92	14.62
June	9.16	3.55	15.43
July	8.93	3.28	12.61
August	8.85	3.55	13.09
September	8.11	3.69	12.76
October	9.21	3.62	14.03
November	7.89	3.73	13.93
December	8.40	3.36	17.07
Average for year	9.23	3.61	14.29

In the Electrical and Mechanical Departments of Railways, absenteeism generally amounts to 10 to 11 per cent. As in cotton mills, absenteeism is greater immediately after pay day. In Railways in Burma, absenteeism is lower and roughly amounts to 2·50 per cent.

Labour Turnover.—A charge is very often levelled against the Indian worker that owing to his migratory character, he changes his place of employment very frequently and that this results in a high rate of labour turnover. There is, however, very little information available regarding the average period of service or the rates of turnover at important industrial centres in India. In the case of the Empress Mills at Nagpur, it has been estimated that since 1908, the average period of continuous service of the employees amounted to 7·89 years. In another cotton mill in the Central Provinces the average duration of employment worked out at about 40 months while in the case of other factories it roughly amounted to about 30 months. Out of a total number of 3,700 workers engaged in the Pench Valley Coal Mines it was found that 1,550 workers were in employment for less than a year, 650 from 1 to 2 years, 700 from 2 to 3 years and 800 workers had more than 3 years' continuous service to their credit. In the manganese mines in the Central Provinces the average duration of employment comes to about 9 to 10 months for the whole of the labour force in any one year. One to two years is on an average the period of employment of workers in the Tata Iron and Steel Works. The total labour turnover during normal working for three years in the same Works amounted to 36·6 per cent., 31·3 per cent. and 24·1 per cent. respectively. In the Indian Cable and Construction Company in Bihar and Orissa, however, skilled labour has remained practically unchanged during the last five years but the unskilled workers recruited from the aboriginal class had changed to the extent of about 30 per cent. annually. In one of the mills at Cawnpore the average period of continuous service amounted to 8·87 years.

The Labour Office of the Government of Bombay conducted a special enquiry into the length of service of cotton mill workers in Bombay City in 1927-28. A sample of 1 in 10 tenements was decided upon and the information was collected on suitable schedules by the Lady Investigators of that Office from the inmates of such tenements who were reported to be cotton mill workers. Only the predominant working class localities were visited for the purposes of the enquiry and the total number of schedules accepted for final tabulation was 1,348.

Of the 1,348 workers, 988 or 73·29 per cent. were men and 360 or 26·71 per cent. were women.

Nearly 21 per cent. of the operatives began work in the mills before the 15th year, 38 per cent. between the 15th and the 20th year, 32 per cent. between the 20th and the 30th year and the remaining 9 per cent. joined the first mill after they had attained the age of 30.

Sixty-three per cent. of the workers were born in the Konkan and 27 per cent. in the Deccan while the rest came from different parts of the country. It is very significant that not a single worker gave his place of origin as Bombay City.

About 48 per cent. of the workers covered by the sample continued in the employment of the same mill without change, 34 per cent. served in two or three mills and 18 per cent. had served in 4 or more mills. The highest number of mills served by an individual was 15. The cause of leaving the mills was "for going to native place" in 26 per cent. cases, "low wages and for bettering prospects" in 21 per cent. cases, "absentee due to illness" in 14 per cent. cases and "retrenchment" in 10 per cent. cases. Other causes for leaving mills were unsuitable conditions of work, dismissal, strike, resignation, etc.

The approximate period of total service (including the period of non-attendance) was reported to be less than 5 years in 37·54 per cent. cases, 5 to 10 years in 23·37 per cent. cases, 10 to 15 years in 15·88 per cent. cases, 15 to 20 years in 9·13 per cent. cases and more than 20 years in 14·08 per cent. cases. The percentages of workers who had not changed mills was 67 in the case of operatives with less than 5 years' service and 42 for workers with 5 to 10 years' service. In the other service groups, the percentage of operatives working in the same mill varied between 25 and 45.

The actual active service was reported to be less than 5 years in 46·51 per cent. cases, 5 to 10 years in 24·26 per cent. cases, 10 to 15 years in 13·95 per cent. cases and 15 to 20 years in 7·20 per cent. cases. In the remaining 8·08 per cent. cases the actual service was more than 20 years.

A large number of workers in the age groups 15–20 and 20–25 had served for a period of less than 5 years while the most common period of service in the age group 25-30 was between 5 and 10 years. In the age group 30-35 about 30 per cent. of the workers had served for less than 5 years and 19 per cent. for a period of 5 to 10 years. Among workers of 35 to 40 years of age, the number of those falling in each of the first five service groups was between 16 and 20 per cent.

LABOUR IN FACTORIES.

The conditions of factory labour until 1913 were regulated by the Indian Factories Act of 1881, as amended in 1891. Under the chief provisions of the amended Act Local Governments were empowered to appoint Inspectors of Factories and Certifying Surgeons to testify as to the age of children. A mid-day stoppage of work was prescribed in all factories, except those worked on an approved system of shifts, and Sunday labour was prohibited subject to certain exceptions. The hours of employment for women were limited to 11, with intervals of rest amounting to at least an hour and a half; their employment between 8 p.m. and 5 a.m. was prohibited, as a general rule, except in factories worked by shifts. The hours of work for children (defined as persons below the age of 14) were limited to 7 and their employment at night-time was forbidden; children below the age of 9 were not to be employed. Provision was made for fencing of machinery and for the promulgation of rules as to water supply, ventilation, the prevention of overcrowding, etc.

The next Factory Act to be passed into law was Act XII of 1911. This Act extended the definition of "factory" so as to include seasonal factories working for less than 4 months in the year; shortened the hours within which children, and, as a general rule, women might be employed and further restricted the employment of women by night by allowing it only in the case of cotton ginning and pressing factories. It also contained a number of new provisions for securing the health and safety of the operatives, making inspection more effective and securing generally the better administration of the Act. The most important feature of the Act, however, was the introduction of a number of special provisions applicable only to textile factories. The report of the Factory Commission showed that excessive hours were not worked except in textile factories. The Act, for the first time, applied a statutory restriction to the hours of employment of adult males by laying down that, subject to certain exceptions, "no person shall be employed in any textile factory for more than 12 hours in any one day." It also provided in the case of textile factories that no child may be employed for more than six hours in any one day and that (subject to certain exceptions, which were factories worked in accordance with an approved system of shifts) no women may be employed before 5-30 a.m. or after 7 p.m. (the new limits laid down generally for the employment of women and children).

The Acts now in force.—The ratification by India of the Conventions adopted by the International Labour Conference held in Washington in 1919 necessitated radical revision of the Indian Factories Act of 1911. This was undertaken during 1921 and the Indian Factories Amendment Act, 1922, introduced a series of important reforms including the adoption of a 60-hours' week, the raising of the minimum age of children from 9 to 12, the prohibition of night work for women, the extension of the Act to a large number of small factories, drastic restriction of the exempting provisions, etc. The principal object of the amending Act of 1923 was the removal of a difficulty which had arisen in connection with the law relating to the weekly holiday. The experience gained during the three years which immediately followed the revision of the Act in 1922 indicated that the amending Act had worked smoothly and that the main principles followed in 1922 commanded general acceptance. It was not considered necessary, therefore, to modify any of the main principles of the Act; but several administrative difficulties had arisen in connection with some sections of the Act—one such difficulty relating to Section 21 which provided for intervals. Local Governments were asked in June 1925 to consider a possible solution of the difficulty and to bring to the notice of the Government of India any difficulties which might have arisen in connection with other provisions. On receipt of their replies, a conference of Chief Inspectors of Factories was convened. The conference recommended a number of alterations designed by allowing greater elasticity in some directions and by increasing control in others to make for smoother working. The Factories Amendment Act of 1926 was, therefore, passed on the recommendations of that conference and on the opinions received from the Local Governments. The more important alterations effected included the widening of the definition of "factories" so as to bring within the control of the Act such establishments as Electrical Generating Stations, water works, etc., the prevention of the issue of age certificates by Certifying Surgeons to children who are not fit for employment, the prevention of cleaning machinery in motion, even by men, in cases where Local Governments were of opinion that the work is attended by danger to the operatives; a clearer definition of the periods prescribed for intervals of rest; and, while still preventing the employment of children in two factories on the same day, the permitting of women to work in two factories on the same day provided that the limits for hours of work were not exceeded.

Hours of Work.—The Indian Factories Act prescribes a daily as well as a weekly limit to the hours of work in factories and provides for rest intervals and for a weekly holiday. Section 28 of the Act provides that no person shall be employed in any factory for more than 11 hours in any one day; and Section 27 provides that no person shall be employed in a factory for more than 60 hours in any one week. Section 21 of the Act makes it obligatory for the occupier of a factory to provide for each person employed a rest period of at least one hour at intervals not exceeding 6 hours, or at the request of the employees concerned two rest periods of half an hour each, at intervals not exceeding 5 hours, the total duration of the periods of rest on that day not being less than one hour for each period of 6 hours worked generally. With the previous sanction of the Local Government and at the request of the employees concerned the rest interval may also be reduced to half an hour for each male person provided that he is not employed for more than 8½ hours on each working day and is not required to work for more than five hours continuously. For children, Section 23 (*c*) provides that no child shall be employed in a factory for more than 6 hours in any one day. Section 21 (*b*) provides that for each child working more than 5½ hours in any one day a period

of rest of not less than half an hour shall be given and the period of rest has to be so fixed that no child shall be required to work continuously for more than 4 hours. Sections 23 (*b*) and 24 (*a*) further provide that no child or woman may be employed in any factory before half past five o'clock in the morning or after 7 o'clock in the evening. Under Section 25 a child cannot be employed in two factories on the same day but adults may be so employed in such circumstances as may be prescribed. Under the provisions of Section 26 every Manager of a factory has to fix specified hours for the employment of each person employed in such factory and no person is allowed to be employed except during such specified hours. The Governments of Madras, Bombay, the United Provinces, the Punjab and the Central Provinces are the only Local Governments which have prescribed the circumstances under which adults may be employed in more than one factory on the same day. The rules framed by these Local Governments invest the Inspector of Factories with the power to sanction such employment if he is satisfied that the adults concerned are not employed for more than 10 hours on any one day and that they receive the weekly holiday prescribed by Section 22 of the Act. In addition to the notice *re* hours of work for particular periods, every factory has to maintain a register of all persons employed in a factory in the form prescribed by the Local Government showing their hours of work and the nature of their respective employment.

Proposed Amendment of the Factories Act, following the Recommendations of the Royal Commission on Indian Labour.—The Royal Commission made several very important recommendations for substantial amendments of the Indian Factories Act, 1911, as amended by the Amending Acts of 1922, 1923, 1926 and 1931, firstly, for the reduction of the maximum limits of daily and weekly hours of work in perennial factories and for the better regulation of such hours; secondly, for the improvement of working conditions in factories; and thirdly, for a more effective observance, on the part of the factory owners, of the requirements of the Act. The Government of India, in the Department of Industries and Labour, issued a circular letter, dated the 10th June 1932, addressed to all Local Governments and Administrations forwarding a draft Bill intended to consolidate the present law regarding the regulation of power using factories and incorporating the majority of the Commissioners' recommendations. All Provincial Governments were asked to submit replies to this letter by the 1st December 1932. On receipt of the local Government's replies, the Honourable Member in charge of the Department of Industries and Labour of the Government of India made a tour of the more important industrial centres in India to discuss various questions arising out of the draft Bill with the representatives of Local Governments and associations of employers and workmen. On the conclusion of this tour, the Government of India convened a conference of Provincial Chief Inspectors of Factories and a final Bill was then drawn up which was introduced in the Legislative Assembly on the 8th September 1933. At the moment of writing, this Bill is under examination by a Select Committee of the members of both Houses in the Central Legislature and it is expected that the consolidated Factories Act will be passed during the budget Session of the Legislative Assembly in the Spring of 1934. If the Bill is passed into law it may be brought into operation either on 1st July 1934 or the 1st January 1935.

The Royal commission also made several suggestions with regard to the control of factories not using power nearly all of which are at present unregulated. The Government of India propose a new and separate Act in respect of such factories and they are at present engaged in drafting a Bill covering the Commissioners' recommendations in the matter.

The following are the more important additional matters proposed to be covered by the Consolidating Act :—

(*a*) A distinction is to be drawn between seasonal and perennial factories. A factory which is exclusively engaged in cotton ginning cotton or jute pressing, the decortication of groundnuts, or the manufacture of groundnut oil, or the manufacture of coffee, indigo, lac, rubber, sugar (including *gur*) or tea is to be a seasonal factory; provided that the Local Government may, by notification in the local official Gazette, declare any such factory in which manufacturing processes are ordinarily carried on for more than 180 working days in the year, not to be a seasonal factory for the purposes of the Act. The Local Government may also, by notification, declare any seasonal factory in which manufacturing processes are ordinarily carried on for not more than 180 working days in the year and which cannot be carried on except during particular seasons or at times dependent on the irregular action of natural forces, to be a seasonal factory for the purposes of this Act.

(*b*) Factory operatives are at present divided into two age groups : (1) Adults and (2) Children, *i.e.*, persons over 12 and under 15 years of age. It is now proposed to introduce a third age group of "Adolescents," *i.e.*, persons over the age of 15 years and under the age of seventeen years who have not been certified as fit for adult employment. Such "Adolescents" as have not been so certified are to be deemed to be children.

(*c*) It is proposed that the existing maximum limits of eleven hours per day and sixty hours per week should continue to be observed in the case of seasonal factories and that the maximum hours of work to be permitted in the case of workers in perennial factories should be reduced to ten hours per day and 54 hours per week subject to the proviso that persons employed on work necessitating continuous production for technical reasons and persons whose work is required for the manufacture or supply of articles of prime necessity which must be made or supplied every day may be employed for not more than 56 hours in any one week. The maximum hours of work permitted in the case of children is five hours per day both in seasonal and in perennial factories.

(*d*) The Bill proposes to introduce into the Act for the first time the principle of "spread-over," *i.e.*, the limitation of the period of the number of consecutive hours during which the daily limits of hours of work may be availed of by the owner or an occupier of a factory. The

spread-over in the case of adults is limited to thirteen consecutive hours and in the case of children to seven and a half consecutive hours; but the continuous period of eleven free hours in every twenty-four hours in the case of adults must include the hours between 7 p.m. and 6 a.m. in the case of women. The continuous period of sixteen and a half free hours in the case of children must include the hours between 7 p.m. and 6 a.m. Exemptions in the case of women are permitted in such cases as technical reasons require that work should be done at night, *e.g.*, in the fish curing industry.

(*e*) The existing provisions with regard to the control of artificial humidification are to be expanded. And the Bill also proposes to give power to Local Governments to authorise an Inspector to call upon Managers of factories to carry out specific measures for increasing the cooling power of the air where he is of the opinion that it is at times insufficient to secure operatives against danger to health or serious discomfort, provided that the cooling power can be appreciably increased without involving an amount of expense which would be unreasonable under the circumstances.

(*f*) With regard to welfare, the Bill includes provisions for the maintenance of (1) a sufficient and suitable supply of water for washing for the use of persons employed in processes involving contact with poisonous or obnoxious substances; (2) adequate shelters for rest in factories employing more than 150 persons; (3) rooms reserved for the use of children of women employed in factories employing more than 50 women and (4) first aid appliances. Powers are to be given to Local Governments to frame rules in respect of the last three matters. The Government of India, however, have not accepted the recommendation of the Royal Commission with regard to giving power to Local Governments to issue welfare orders as are issued by the Secretary of State in England under Section 7 of the Police, Factories, etc. (Miscellaneous Provisions) Act, 191 . They are of opinion that the matters to be covered by such welfare orders should have the approval of the Legislature and should not be imposed on factory owners by the Executive Government.

(*g*) Local Governments are to be given powers to make rules prescribing the fitness to be attained by children seeking employment in factories or in any class of factories, and when such a standard has been prescribed no child failing to attain it can be certified as fit for employment in a factory.

(*h*) Inspectors are to be granted power to call upon managers to carry out such tests as may be necessary to determine the strength or quality of any specified parts of the structure of factories if they are of opinion that, on account of any defect or inadequacy in the construction of any factory, the factory or any part thereof is dangerous to human life or safety; and Local Governments are to be empowered to make rules for the furnishing, by factories, of certificates of stability.

(*i*) The maximum amount of overtime that can be worked by virtue of any exemptions granted under the Act is to be limited and a time and a half is to be allowed in all cases where a worker in a seasonal factory works for more than 60 hours in any one week or where a worker in a factory other than a seasonal factory works for more than ten hours in any one day. But where a worker in a factory other than a seasonal factory works for more than fifty-four hours in any week, he is to be entitled, in respect of the overtime worked less any overtime in respect of which he is entitled to extra pay under the preceding sentence, to pay at the rate of one and a quarter times his ordinary rate of pay. Where a worker in a factory works on the weekly rest day he is to be entitled, in respect of the overtime worked to pay at the rate of one-and-a-half times the ordinary rate of pay.

(*j*) No exemptions are to be granted in respect of the provisions for spreadover, prohibition of night work between 7-30 p.m. and 5 a.m. and of the weekly limits of hours of work for women and persons under the age of sixteen years; but the grant of the existing exemption in the case of women employed in fish curing and fish-canning factories is to be permitted.

(*k*) The existing Sections 26, 35 and 36 are to be entirely recasted in order to provide more effective methods for the maintenance of records and registers of employment, the posting of notices, for the benefit of the workers, of their hours of employment, the prescribed abstracts of the Factories Act, weekly holidays, etc., and for the notification of these notices and any changes proposed to be made in them to Inspectors of factories.

(*l*) Higher penalties and fines are to be prescribed for occupiers or owners of factories who have been previously convicted for having committed the same offences.

The Local Governments were asked to submit their replies to the above proposals incorporated in the Draft Bill prepared by the Government of India, by the 1st December 1932. On receipt of the replies of the Local Governments, the Government of India recast their Original Draft Bill in order to give effect to the more important recommendations made by some of these Governments and a revised consolidating Bill was introduced in the Legislative Assembly on the 8th September 1933 on a motion to refer to Select Committee. The Select Committee set in Delhi from the 18th January 1934 onwards. At the moment of writing it is anticipated that the new Factories Act will be passed during the Budget Session of the Assembly this year.

LATEST FACTORY STATISTICS.

The latest statistics available in connection with the administration of the Indian Factories Act are for 1932. The data published in connection with the normal weekly hours of work show that for the whole of British India men were required to work for more than 54 hours a week in 1,787 perennial and 2,989 seasonal factories, above 48 and not above 54 in 622 perennial and 353 seasonal factories, and not above 48 hours per week in 1,369 perennial and 1,007 seasonal factories. In the case of those factories employing women 3,029 required female workers to work for more than 54 hours per week whereas 1,857 fixed their hours at below 48 per week. 652 factories had hours above 48 but not above 54. Out of the 995

factories employing children, 384 had hours below 30 for children and 611 above 30. The details in connection with the various provinces will be found in summary form in the All-India Factories Reports or in a more detailed form in the Provincial Reports themselves. The statistics of factories do not show the hours of work in particular industries.

All railway workshops come under the Indian Factories Act. Hours of work in railway workshops in all provinces generally average 8 per day and 48 per week. In most cases the hours are so arranged as to provide for a half day off on Saturday provided that a total of 48 hours is worked during any particular week.

Employment of Children.—By the Amending Act of 1922 the maximum age of children was raised from 14 to 15 years and the minimum age from 9 to 12. Section 23 of the Act provides that no child shall be employed in any factory unless he is in possession of a certificate granted by a Certifying Surgeon showing that he is not less than 12 years of age and is fit for employment in a factory and while at work carries either the certificate itself or a token giving reference to such certificate. Further, no child is allowed to be employed in any factory before half past five o'clock in the morning or after seven o'clock in the evening and no child is to be employed for more than six hours in any one day. The number of children employed in factories during the years 1922 to 1932 is shown in the following table :—

Year.	Total.
1922	67,658
1923	74,620
1924	72,531
1925	68,725
1926	60,094
1927	57,562
1928	50,911
1929	46,843
1930	37,972
1931	26,932
1932	21,733

An examination of the figures in the above table will show that the number of children employed rose from 67,658 to 74,620 in 1923. This was due to the fact that the tea factories in Assam which employed about 11,000 children were brought within the scope of the Act for the first time in that year. Further, the amendment of the Act in 1922 did not apply to children who were lawfully employed in a factory on or before the 1st July 1921 and it was not until 1924 that full effect was given to the new age restrictions for children.

There has been a steady decline in the number of children employed. In the textile mills in Bombay City there are none.

Employment of Women.—The number of women employed in factories during the years 1921 to 1929 increased steadily from 206,887 employed in 1922 to 257,161 employed in 1929. But the number of women employed since 1929 has fallen perceptibly; the figures for 1930, 1931 and 1932 being 254,905, 231,183 and 225,632 respectively. The increase in the employment of women was due partly to the restrictions imposed on the employment of children and partly to the inclusion within the scope of the Act of all quasi-agricultural factories, for example, in the tea gardens which are dependent on female labour to a larger extent than other factories. An important change which the revision of 1922 made in connection with the employment of women was the repeal of Section 27 of the Act of 1911 which permitted the employment of women at night in ginning factories. In view of this amendment the Government of India considered that they were in a position to ratify the Convention concerning the employment of women during the night adopted by the First International Labour Conference held at Washington in 1919 without undertaking any further legislation.

Overtime.—Section 31 of the Indian Factories Act provides that in those factories where exemptions are granted from the provision that no person shall be employed in a factory for more than 60 hours in any one week, every person employed in such a factory for more than 60 hours in any one week shall be paid, in respect of overtime worked, at a rate which shall be at least one and a quarter times the rate at which he is normally paid. In most of those factories which work normally less than 60 hours per week overtime is paid for at normal rates up to 60 hours per week and at a time and a quarter for overtime work over 60 hours. Some factories, however, pay either the full time and a quarter rate to be granted under the Factories Act for all overtime worked over and above the normal daily hours or even grant higher rates irrespective of the weekly limitation of 60 hours under the Act. No detailed statistics are available to show the number of workers who were paid overtime during any particular period except in the case of a few Railways and some of the larger industrial organisations.

LABOUR IN MINES.

The conditions of employment of labour in mines are governed by the provisions of the Indian Mines Act, 1923, which came into force with effect from the 1st July 1924 replacing the former enactment of 1901. The Act of 1901 contained provisions designed to secure safety in mines and it provided for the maintenance of an inspecting staff, but it contained no provisions regulating the employment of labour.

Section 23 of the Indian Mines Act of 1923 limited weekly hours of miners to 54 underground and to 60 aboveground but no limits were prescribed for daily hours. In a Bill further to amend the Act for certain purposes introduced by the Government of India in the Legislative Assembly in March 1927 it was proposed to fix the maximum limit for daily hours at twelve. There was a considerable body of opinion in favour of enforcing an eight-hour day and this was also the opinion of a minority of the Select Committee appointed by the Assembly to consider the Bill. The majority of the Committee however adhered to the principle of a twelve-hour shift as proposed in the Bill but agreed that an eight-hour shift should be gradually worked upto. They recommended to Government that after the new provisions had been in operation for three years, the position should be again reviewed as to whether an eight-hour shift could be introduced. A daily limit of 12 hours was thus imposed by the Amending Act of 1928 and this was to be brought into effect from April 1930.

Recommendations of the Royal Commission.

The Royal Commission on Labour which reviewed the whole position came to conclusions similar to those reached by the Select Committee. A minority of the Commission advocated the reduction of the daily limit to eight hours while the majority supported the recommendation of the majority of the Select Committee, and in addition suggested that weekly hours above ground should be limited to 54. In the meanwhile, the fifteenth session of the International Labour Conference adopted a Draft Convention concerning hours of work in coal mines, framed solely with reference to conditions in European countries. This Convention prescribes that the hours of work should be limited to 7½ per day in underground coal mines and to 8 hours a day and 48 hours a week in open coal mines. The Convention was placed before the Legislative Assembly on the 24th February and before the Council of State on the 2nd March 1932 and resolutions were adopted by both the Chambers to the effect that Government should examine the possibility of reducing the statutory limits for hours of work in mines and that the results of this examination should be placed before them.

Having regard to the above resolution and to the fact that nearly three years had elapsed since the Act of 1928 came into full effect, the Government of India have taken up the re-examination of the question. They are of opinion that the present is the most opportune time for effecting a reduction in hours of work in mines, and that nine hours would be as low a daily limit as is reasonable. They are provisionally disposed to agree with the Royal Commission's recommendation that the weekly hours above ground should not exceed 54. The Government of India particularly desire opinions on the question of regulating hours in mines and they addressed a circular letter, dated the 21st September 1932 to Local Governments inviting their views in the matter.

The circular letter of the Government of India also referred to the following recommendations of the Royal Commission on Indian Labour with which they were provisionally in agreement.

(*a*) No child under the age of 14 years should be permitted to work in or about mines.

(*b*) Minor accidents should be reported weekly to the Chief Inspector through the District Magistrate; and

(*c*) It should be made obligatory for Local Governments to publish reports of Committees and Courts of Inquiry appointed by them under the Act.

Number of Mines.—The following table gives the number of mines which came under the Act each year, classified according to the minerals raised:—

Year.	Number of mines.					Total Number of all mines.
	Coal.	Mica.	Manganese.	Tin and Wolfram.	Other minerals.	
1924	846	513	186	87	172	1,804
1925	810	571	214	204	212	2,011
1926	722	601	221	210	143	1,897
1927	644	630	220	200	298	1,992
1928	556	674	184	203	331	1,948
1929	548	498	125	186	375	1,732
1930	549	508	82	178	352	1,669
1931	540	342	56	136	343	1,417
1932	515	315	23	138	290	1,281

Number employed.—The number of persons employed in mines during the years 1924-1932 were as follows:—

Year.	Total No. of mines which came under the Act.	Number of persons employed.		
		Belowground.	Aboveground.	Total.
1924	1,804	167,779	90,498	258,277
1925	2,011	168,554	84,303	253,857
1926	1,897	189,371	70,742	260,113
1927	1,992	196,341	72,949	269,290
1928	1,948	197,398	70,273	267,671
1929	1,732	199,908	69,783	269,701
1930	1,669	191,915	69,752	261,667
1931	1,417	170,638	60,144	230,782
1932	1,281	151,924	52,734	204,658

The sex distribution of the persons employed in mines during the years 1926 to 1932 was as shown below:—

Year.	Number of males employed.			Number of females employed.		
	Underground.	In open workings.	On the surface.	Underground.	In open workings.	On the surface.
1926	86,343	43,306	51,967	31,889	27,833	18,775
1927	86,766	50,028	53,903	31,850	27,697	19,046
1928	86,155	51,005	52,430	31,785	28,453	17,843
1929	92,856	54,235	51,954	24,089	28,728	17,839
1930	101,649	50,396	52,709	18,684	21,186	17,043
1931	98,885	38,833	45,157	16,841	16,079	14,987
1932	96,196	30,256	39,899	14,711	10,761	12,835

Labour on Railways.—All railway workshops come under the administration of the Factories Act. The Indian railways employ nearly a quarter of a million workers in other occupations for whom provision for the control of their working hours has been made under the Hours of Employment Rules, 1930, framed under the Indian Railways Amendment Act, 1929.

The Conventions adopted by the International Labour Conference in 1919 and 1921 prescribed a 60-hour week and a weekly rest of not less than 24 consecutive hours for all workers in British India employed in factories, in mines and in such branches of railway work as may be specified for this purpose by the competent authority. The Indian Factories Act which was amended in 1922 to give effect to the Conventions limited the hours of work in factories to 11 in any one day and to 60 in any one week. Provisions were also made for intervals of rest and a weekly holiday. Similar limitations were imposed under the Indian Mines Act of 1923 in respect of colliery staff. Both these restrictions apply to factories and mines controlled by railway administrations. The application of the Conventions to other departments of railway administrations was found to be a problem beset with many difficulties and has been a subject of prolonged investigations. Orders were issued by the Railway Board in 1921 that the 60-hour week should be adopted for station staff not employed in connection with the working of trains. The Indian Railway Conference Association drew up a set of rules in 1927 and these received the general approval not only of the Railway Board but also of the Boards of Directors of the lines managed by companies. Subsequently, however, it was found that these rules while they aimed at applying the spirit of the Conventions did not adequately fulfil the statutory obligations imposed upon Government by the ratification of the Conventions. The whole question was therefore again exhaustively reviewed and a Bill amending the Indian Railways Act with the object of empowering the Governor-General in Council to make rules on the subject was introduced in the Legislative Assembly in the autumn session of 1929 and was referred for consideration to a Select Committee. The Amending Act was passed in the same year, and the Hours of Employment Rules were drawn up during the following year.

Working of overtime on Indian railways is more prevalent on construction than on the open line due to (1) the working season in the monsoon areas being confined to eight months in the year, (2) special measures taken to speed up all heavy work to avoid the locking up of capital; and (3) wet foundation work in bridges which necessitate continuous work. Usually overtime in such cases is paid at a rate fixed beforehand.

Seamen.—The Indian Merchant Shipping Act, 1923, provides that no seaman shall be "signed on" for service on a ship unless he enters into a contract in the manner specified with the Master of the ship. All agreements entered into between Masters and Seamen for service on foreign-going ships have to be signed in the presence of a Shipping Master. The agreement forms contain the rules and regulations provided for under the Act for maintaining discipline and for the fines which may be inflicted for the breach thereof.

CONTRACT LABOUR.

In most industrial concerns in India work in connection with building, loading and unloading, carting, receiving, and despatching of goods and work involving the employment of unskilled labour over which supervision is either difficult or costly is given out on contract. In the textile cotton industry work in connection with bleaching and dyeing is also generally done on contract at all centres. In the cotton mills in Ahmedabad work in the Mixing and Waste Room and the Yarn Bundling and Baling Department, in the Drawing—in Department and Beam Carrying is given out on contract in various mills. In certain printing presses in the Bombay Presidency, composing is given out on contract. In most cases no supervision is exercised over the labour engaged by the contractor to whom the contract is given. Perhaps the most efficient method of control and supervision over contract labour is that which obtains on several railways. This will be dealt with separately lower down. Exceptions to the general remarks made above are as follows.

In the coal mines in Bihar and Orissa contractors are employed by a large number of collieries to provide the labour required for cutting the coal and loading it on wagons. The contractors are paid at a fixed rate per ton for all coal loaded on wagons. In some cases, however, the rate paid per ton is increased either because coal is being extracted from difficult places in the mine or because the contractor has difficulties in maintaining his labour supply. The extent to which contractors are employed is considerable and probably more than half the coal raised in the Jharia coal fields is raised on the contract system. Definite figures are not available but the Indian Mining Association reports that 90 per cent. of the coal raised in the mines belonging to that Association in the Jharia coal fields is raised by contract labour. In some cases contractors are only employed to provide the labour for cutting the coal. The contractor is generally responsible only for raising the coal while the colliery supervising staff is responsible for seeing that the mines are run safely.

UNEMPLOYMENT.

The problems connected with unemployment in India are quite different from the problems which have arisen in highly industrialised countries like England, the United States of America and Germany. In the latter countries labour is divided into two fairly distinct classes (1) industrial, and (2) agricultural. During periods of depression in industry those workers who are thrown out of employment either on account of a temporary or a partial closing down of concerns cannot fall back upon agriculture for earning their livelihood. It is necessary to repeat here, in order to understand this question clearly, that more than 70 per cent. of the population of India derive their livelihood from various occupations in connection with agriculture. This does not mean that agriculture is a perennial source of employment. Considerable unemployment and distress occurs during periods when the monsoon fails. Even during those years when the monsoon is generally successful, there are usually parts of the country where the rainfall is deficient and there is not enough scope for the employment of all the labour available. Both the Government of India and the various Provincial Governments have devised various schemes for famine relief and the variations in the visitations of nature with their consequent periods of prosperity and distress have now been brought more effectively under human control than ever before in the history of India. It is not necessary to go into the details of the questions connected with famine relief in this section. The point which it is intended to bring out is that owing to the agricultural character of industrial labour in India, the problems connected with employment and unemployment are somewhat closely related to those connected with the success or the failure of the monsoon.

Speaking generally, the Indian labourer migrates to industrial centres when he finds that the yield of the land in his native place is not sufficient to maintain all the members of his family. A certain percentage of the workers employed in industry temporarily give up their employment during the sowing, transplanting and harvesting seasons. During periods of depression in trade and industry, industrial workers released from employment fall back upon agriculture and thus add to the existing pressure of the population on the land. If the depression in trade and industry synchronises with the failure of the monsoon, the amount of unemployment becomes considerable and the resulting distress is enormous. Various States have devised schemes of Employment Exchanges for the purpose of studying the problems in connexion with the demand and supply of labour to control the movements of labour and to place it where it is required. The Government of India and the various Provincial Governments have considered the question of creating Employment Exchanges in India several times during the last ten years, but opinion is unanimous that owing to the preponderatingly agricultural character of Indian labour it is practically impossible to devise any satisfactory scheme for the formation of Employment Exchanges.

India is a State Member of the International Labour Conference, and as such she is bound according to the terms of the Treaty of Peace, to ratify and adopt, wherever possible, any Convention or Recommendation adopted by the International Labour Conference. The consideration of industrial unemployment was thrust upon the Government of India by the Washington Convention, which was adopted

by the First International Labour Conference held in Washington in 1919. Each Member ratifying this Convention was required—

(*i*) to communicate to the International Labour Office all information, statistical or otherwise, concerning unemployment, including reports on measures taken or contemplated to combat unemployment;

(*ii*) to establish a system of free public employment agencies under the control of the central authority, and to appoint Committees, including representatives of employers and workers, to advise on matters concerning the operation of these agencies;

(*iii*) where systems of insurance against unemployment have been established, to make arrangements, upon terms to be agreed upon between the members concerned, whereby workers belonging to one Member and working in the territory of another shall be admitted to the same rates of benefit of such insurance as those of the latter.

In addition to this Convention, the First International Labour Conference also adopted a Recommendation which advocated—

(*a*) the abolition of employment agencies, which charge fees or which carry on their business for profit;

(*b*) the establishment of an effective system of unemployment insurance; and

(*c*) the execution of public works as far as practicable during periods of unemployment and in districts most affected by it.

The draft Convention was ratified by India but, in communicating this ratification to the International Labour Organisation at Geneva, the Secretary of State for India found it necessary "in order to avoid subsequent misunderstanding" to explain at some length the peculiar position of India in this matter and to emphasise the difficulties connected with a complete ratification by India owing to the predominantly agricultural character of the country. The Government of India, in addressing the local Governments on questions arising out of the draft Convention and Recommendation adopted by the International Labour Conference, invited views on the following points:—

(*i*) Advisability of creating Public Employment Agencies in congested areas to facilitate the migration of surplus labour to industrial areas where there is a shortage of labour.

(*ii*) Advisability of utilising Public Employment Agencies in connexion with recruitment for Assam.

(*iii*) Advisability of establishing Public Employment Agencies for the dissemination of information regarding employment during times of famine and scarcity to those in search of employment.

(*iv*) Advisability of appointing Committees representing employers and workers to advise on matters concerning the operation of Public Employment Agencies.

(*v*) Advisability of abolishing or controlling Employment Agencies which charge fees or which carry on their business for profit.

The replies of the local Governments indicated that in most provinces the demand for labour exceeded the supply, that, even in provinces from which there was a large migration of labour, no difficulty had been experienced in obtaining information with regard to the areas where labour was in demand, that the establishment of public employment agencies would serve no useful purpose, and that such agencies might excite suspicion and be liable to be misunderstood by the people. With regard to recruitment of labour for Assam, the local governments concerned were agreed that any experiment on the lines suggested would be risky. On the question of the abolition of control of employment agencies which charge fees or which carry on their business for profit, the replies of the local Governments indicated that employment agencies of this character were practically unknown in India. In the circumstances, the Government of India decided to take no further action on the draft Convention or Recommendation concerning unemployment.

Middle-class unemployment.—In recent years unemployment among the educated middle classes has been assuming alarming proportions and has attracted widespread public attention. In January 1926, a Resoltion was passed by the Legislative Assembly in the following terms:—

"This Assembly recommends to the Governor General in Council that he may be pleased to appoint a Committee with a non-official majority to investigate into the problem of unemployment in general, and among the educated classes in particular, and devise suitable remedies, whether by a system of industrial and technical education, or by a revision of the existing system of education, or by offering encouragement to the starting of new industries, or by opening new avenues of employment, or by the establishment of employment bureaux, or by all these or any other means; and that the said Committee do make a report on the latter problem as early as possible."

Similar Resolutions were also passed in some of the local Legislative Councils. The Government of India did not consider that the appointment of a Central Committee would serve any useful purpose, but in a circular letter drew the attention of the local Governments to the gravity of the problem of middle-class unemployment in India. As a result of the Resolutions passed by the local Councils, Committees were appointed by some of the local Governments. The reports of most of these Committees refer almost exclusively to middle-class unemployment, but the Punjab and the Bengal Committees also dealt with general unemployment. The Punjab Committee came to the conclusion that "there was no unemployment worthy of mention among the uneducated classes"; whilst the Bengal Committee observed as follows:—

"The labourer, if we may use the term, has not yet been divorced completely from the land, and he frequently possesses or has an interest in a small plot of land in his native place on the cultivation of which he can fall back in times of depression. Added to this is the fact that industrial labour is still comparatively scarce in Bengal and in fact had to be imported

from other provinces. The effect therefore of trade depressions on the industrial labourer in Bengal is so far very small."

Jute and Cotton Mill Industries.—In the jute mill industry in Bengal a large number of mills have, during the last two or three years, changed over from the multiple to the single shift system. It is estimated that on the single shift about 25 to 33 per cent. less labour force is required than on the multiple shift, but in spite of the changes no trouble has been reported with regard to unemployment. In the Bombay cotton mill industry, out of an average of about 140,000 workers employed during the years 1920 to 1927 approximately 20,000 have been thrown out of employment on account of the introduction of efficiency methods of work whereby spinners are required to mind two or three sides of a spinning frame instead of one and where the ordinary two loom weaver is required to tend three, four or six looms. The Bombay Strike Enquiry Committee dealt with this aspect of the question in their report and they recommended the creation of an Out-of-Work Donation Fund. This has been dealt with in the summary given with regard to the findings of this Committee in the Section on Conciliation and Arbitration. Owing to depression in trade and external competition several cotton mills are being compelled either to close down completely or to work with partial complements. At the beginning of February 1934, the total number of cotton mills which were closed in Bombay amounted to 27 and the number of workers thrown out of employment to 40,350.

INDUSTRIAL SAFETY AND INSPECTION.

As in other countries, the industrial progress of India has been accompanied by an alarming increase in the number of industrial accidents.

Statistics for 1932.—The numbers of accidents classified according to fatal, serious and minor in factories in each of the British Provinces in India in the year 1932 are shown in the following table :—

Province.	Fatal.	Serious.	Minor.	Total.
Madras	14	355	1,254	1,623
Bombay	37	1,331	4,204	5,572
Bengal	29	875	2,105	3,009
United Provinces	23	258	1,402	1,683
Punjab	6	42	1,043	1,091
Burma	17	212	1,440	1,668
Bihar and Orissa	20	329	1,465	1,814
Central Provinces and Berar	4	35	213	252
Assam	8	57	317	382
North-West Frontier Province	..	..	..	..
Baluchistan	1	..	39	40
Ajmer-Merwara	1	11	755	767
Delhi	2	9	87	98
Bangalore and Coorg	..	..	128	128
Total	162	3,513	14,452	18,127
Total for the year 1931	174	3,693	15,940	19,807

The explanation generally offered for the increase is that the Workmen's Compensation Act is operating as an inducement both for workpeople and employers to report accidents more frequently than in the past. But the increase in the number of serious accidents suggests that the problem is a serious one and that an organised "safety first" campaign is very desirable in India. Some progress along these lines has been made in Bombay in the mills and on the railways.

Factory Inspection.—The administration of the Indian Factories Act is entrusted to Factory Inspectors in each province. Where breaches of the Act are discovered the managers of factories are prosecuted and in most cases such prosecutions result in convictions. All provinces except Assam have Factories Departments. In the Bombay Presidency the full time factory staff consists of the Chief Inspector of Factories, three Inspectors, three Assistant Inspectors and one Woman Inspector. The Chief Inspector, two Inspectors and two Assistants have their headquarters in Bombay City. An Inspector and an Assistant are stationed in Ahmedabad. The Woman Inspector has her headquarters in Bombay but has jurisdiction over the whole Presidency. She deals with problems mainly affecting women. The Bombay Presidency is the only province in India which has a Lady Inspector of Factories. A part time Certifying Surgeon is stationed in Bombay and a full time one in Ahmedabad. They have been appointed as Divisional

Inspectors with powers under the Health and Sanitary sections of the Factories Act. They have also been granted powers under the provisions of the Bombay Maternity Benefit Act. The Director and Assistant Directors of Public Health have also been appointed as Divisional Inspectors under the Health and Sanitary sections of the Act. Their reports are sent to the Chief Inspector who passes orders on the same. Local Magistrates in the districts have ex-officio powers under the Employment sections of the Act.

Reporting of Accidents.—Section 34 of the Indian Factories Act requires the manager to report all accidents which cause death or bodily injury whereby the person injured is prevented from returning to his work in the factory during the 48 hours next after the occurrence of the accident. All classes of accidents namely, fatal, serious *i.e.*, accidents which prevent a person returning to work for 21 days or more, and minor are to be reported to the Inspector of Factories and to the District Magistrate and in cases of any accident resulting in death to the officer in charge of the Police Station. It is the duty of the Inspector of Factories to make an investigation as soon as possible into the causes of and the reponsibility for a fatal or serious accident, and to take steps for the prosecution of the person concerned if it is found that the death or serious injury resulted from any infringement of the provisions of the Act or of the rules framed under the Act. The Act also requires notice to be given of an accident which is due to any cause that has been notified in this behalf by a Local Government, even though no injury may have resulted therefrom to any person. So far notifications have been issued under this section only in Bombay, Bengal and Burma.

Accident Prevention.—The chief influences in the prevention of accidents are (a) the powers of Inspectors under the Factories Act to compel managers to erect adequate fencing and to take precautions against accidents; (b) the voluntary interest of managers in safety measures and safety precautions; and (c) the interest of insurance companies as a result of the operation of the Workmen's Compensation Act. In many provinces the existing rules made under the Factories Act cover "*Safety-First*" measures such as compelling certain classes of workers to wear tightly fitting clothes, to prohibit children from entering into certain parts of factories, etc. Steady progress has been made in the different provinces in respect of 'safety first' propaganda, but with wide differences in caste and religion and with the low standard of efficiency the problem of organisation of safety services in industrial undertakings is a matter of some difficulty in India. Particular attention was devoted in Bengal to the safeguarding of crowded machinery in the smaller factories and orders were issued during the year 1932 in that province to 52 factories to alter, repair or reconstruct their buildings. Safety pamphlets were compiled and issued by the Factory Departments in Bengal and Madras. Continued progress in the fencing of machinery and in the use of safety posters is reported to have been maintained in all provinces and increasing attention is being paid by employers throughout India to safety measures and to the inculcation in the factory employee of "Safety first" ideas. In Bombay a certain amount of ground had already been broken and the Factory Department in co-operation with organisations of industrial employers produced a set of four 'safety posters' some years ago and these have been very largely exhibited in the engineering workshops in the Presidency. Posters were also produced for the carding and spinning departments of cotton mills. The Red Cross Society was assisted in producing an All-India poster dealing with a universal risk connected with the wearing of loose-clothing which is ordinarily worn by the average Indian worker. Encouraged by the results of the posters introduced in Carding and Spinning sheds the Millowners' Mutual Insurance Association, Bombay, produced a set of posters for the weaving department early in 1931 and these are now in fairly general use. Little has, however, been done in the factories of the Bombay Presidency in the way of specific organisations to further the cause of safety. Factories, too, are not sufficiently large to warrant the employment of a safety engineer and reliance has almost totally been placed on the activities of the inspectorate in this particular direction. Safety Committees have, however, been established in two cotton mills representative of the two largest groups in Bombay, as an experimental measure. Similar Committees have been brought into existence in five mills in Ahmedabad and the Factory Department has secured promises from other factories to establish safety committees.

The railways are of course pioneers in the introduction and the continuance of active propaganda in "*Safety-First*" work in all departments. These activities cover railway workshops (which come under the Indian Factories Act) as well. There was marked improvement as regards minimising accidents in railway workshops as a result of the activities of safety committees which have been established in some of them. The success of safety committees which were established at the S. I. Railway workshops at Perambur and Golden Rock was demonstrated by the fact that at the latter works accidents decreased by 53 per cent. in 1932 as compared with 1931. A very comprehensive Safety First Organisation was established in the Parel, Matunga and Manmad Workshops of the G. I. P. Railway in 1929. The Railway administration has also distributed to the employees an illustrated pamphlet on 'Safety First' in which a chapter on workshop safety is included. The G. I. P. organisation is stated to be the best of its kind. Safety Committees have also been formed in the R. I. M. Dockyard and the Bombay Electric Supply and Tramways Company. In the United Provinces no industrial undertaking has yet introduced a safety service organisation. The Welfare Committees of the E. I. Railway Locomotive and Carriage Workshops, Lucknow, do at times discuss at their monthly meetings questions of safety brought forward by members. Safety posters, published by the Railway Administration, are displayed in all their workshops and the Indian Red Cross Society posters in all factories in the province. In furtherance of the 'safety first" movement in Bengal warning hooters or sirens have been installed in the

textile factories so as to warn employees before the power plant and machinery is set in motion. An instructive handbook entitled "Safety in Factories" dealing with general matters concerning the safety of factory operatives has been compiled and published. An agreement in regard to standard guards and safety devices for jute machinery has been signed by the Indian Jute Mills Association in regard to new machinery to be installed after July 1932. Posters supplied by the Indian Red Cross Society illustrating the suitable type of dress to be worn by operatives while working on transmission machinery were distributed to factories in the different provinces, and safety propaganda of various kinds is receiving increasing attention from the large factory owners and the inspecting staff. Perhaps the best known instance where first class "safety first" work is being carried on in India is that done by the Tata Iron and Steel Company at Jamshedpur. The Company has since 1920 subscribed to the British Industrial Safety First Association and has installed notice boards all over the plant exhibiting the posters supplied by that Association. The literature received from the Association is periodically broadcast throughout the world.

First-Aid and Medical Relief.—Some of the Local Governments have framed rules requiring the provision, under the charge of responsible persons and in readily accessible positions, of first-aid appliances containing an adequate number of sterilised dressings and some sterilised cotton in all factories employing 500 and more operatives. Most of the factories are situated within easy reach of Government hospitals or hospitals maintained by Local Authorities but many of the larger and enlightened employers are already maintaining their own medical staff and equipment which are easily available in cases of accidents. The Millowners' Association, Bombay, started classes for First Aid training in conjunction with the St. John Ambulance Association in 1931. These classes have been successful and facilities have since been provided for the training of men deputed by the Engineering Safety Committee also. In the Tata Iron and Steel Works at Jamshedpur boxes with first-aid supplies are maintained in each department and two first-aid hospitals in different parts of the plant are staffed with doctors and compounders in readiness to render first-aid to injured persons.

Mines.—The Indian Mines Act of 1923 empowers the Governor-General in Council to frame regulations for the safety of persons employed in mines (Section 29, clauses (k) to (p)). Local Governments are also empowered to frame rules under the Act to ensure the proper fencing of a mine for the protection of the public. In addition, the Chief Inspector of Mines may call upon the owner, agent or manager of a mine to frame bye-laws which are not inconsistent with the provisions of the Act, regulations or rules to prevent accidents and to provide for the safety, convenience and discipline of the persons employed in the mine (Section 32). The bye-laws, when approved by the Local Government, have effect as enacted under the Act. Further, Section 19 of the Act gives special powers to the Inspector of Mines to take action when any danger is apprehended which is not expressly provided for by the Act, regulations, rules and the bye-laws. The Governor-General in Council has framed two sets of regulations, namely, the Indian Coal Mines Regulations, 1926, which apply only to coal mines and the Indian Metalliferous Mines Regulations, 1926, which apply to all other mines. These regulations provide for the proper maintenance of shafts and outlets, roads and working places, haulage arrangements, fencing and gates; for the restrictions which have to be observed in raising or lowering persons or materials; for the precautions to be taken in the use of explosives; and for adequate ventilation and lighting.

During the year 1932 at Mines regulated by the Indian Mines Act, 1923, there were 163 fatal accidents, which is 26 less than in 1931, and 48 less than the average number in the preceding five years. In addition to the fatal accidents there were 600 serious accidents involving injuries to 613 persons, as compared with 591 serious accidents involving injuries to 613 persons in the previous year. No record is maintained of minor accidents. 200 persons were killed and 649 persons were seriously injured. The latter figure includes 36 persons injured in fatal accidents. The number of persons killed is 27 less than in 1931. 182 of the persons killed were men and 18 were women. In one case nineteen lives, in one case five lives and in sixteen cases two lives were lost. The causes of the fatal accidents have been classified as follows:—

	Number of fatal accidents.	Percentage of total number of fatal accidents.
Misadventure	110	67.48
Fault of deceased ..	22	13.50
Fault of fellow workmen..	10	6.13
Fault of subordinate officials	14	8.59
Fault of Management ..	5	3.07
Faulty Material	2	1.23
Total ..	163	100·00

Deaths occurring in each class of mines were as follows:—151 in coal mines, 24 in mica mines, 5 in silver-lead mines, 4 in tin and wolfram mines, 3 in limestone mines, 2 in stone mines, 4 in copper mines, and one each in Chromite, Iron, Salt and Manganese mines. Fifty-two persons lost their lives by falls of roof, 53 by falls of side, 29 by haulage, 19 on account of suffocation by gases, 13 by explosives, 7 by explosives and ignitions of fire damp, 6 in shafts, one by electricity, 7 by other accidents underground and 13 on the surface.

Railways.—The Railway Department conducts an intensive "Safety-First" propaganda every year which embraces the following among other activities:—

(1) Safety posters and safeguards are put up on prominent points both in English and in the vernacular. Some of these, *e.g.*, on the Bombay, Baroda and Central India Railway, are prepared from actual photographs of safe and unsafe methods of working in selected branches of manufacture and maintenance work in the railway workshops.

(2) An illustrated booklet was compiled by the Great Indian Peninsula Railway during the year 1926-27 which has been translated into a number of vernacular languages and distributed throughout the line on certain railways.

(3) Photographs and special articles are published in the Railway magazines for the instruction of the staff.

(4) Inspecting subordinates are instructed to take the opportunity, while visiting stations, of addressing the staff on "Safety-First".

(5) Coloured pictures showing the right and wrong way of doing a job are posted at various places for the benefit of the illiterate staff.

(6) A "Safety-First" film was prepared by the Central Publicity Bureau during the year 1927-28 and copies distributed to railways. The film is displayed weekly by the travelling cinemas of the railways.

(7) A "Safety-First" pamphlet has been prepared by the Central Publicity Bureau and is being issued to all railway administrations.

WORKMEN'S COMPENSATION.

The Workmen's Compensation Act of 1923 which was the first piece of social insurance passed in this country, came into force on July 1st, 1924. The Act covered ten classes of workmen. Some of these, such as members of fire brigades, telegraph and telephone linesmen, sewage workers and tramwaymen are small, and as the definition of seamen was limited to those employed on certain inland vessels, only a very small proportion of Indian seamen came under the Act. Compensation for seamen, however, has been secured by agreement between the Government of India and foreign steamship companies, under which the latter agree to the insertion in the ships' articles of a clause whereby the companies agree to pay compensation to injured Indian seamen on the same basis as if they were covered by the Act and all questions as to compensation are decided by Commissioners of Workmen's Compensation in India. An Indian seaman employed on a British ship legally comes under the English Act and the insertion of the clause referred to above does away with the practical difficulties which would arise if Indian seamen had to claim compensation in the English or other foreign courts. The five main classes of workmen covered by the Act are workers in factories, mines, docks and on railways, practically all of whom are included and those engaged in certain types of building work, notably the construction of industrial and commercial buildings and any other buildings which run to more than one storey. The most important classes excluded altogether are agricultural workers and domestic servants. Non-manual labourers getting more than Rs. 300 a month are excluded, except on the railways. Power was taken to include other hazardous occupations by notification from time to time. All occupations involving blasting operations were thus declared by the Governor-General in Council as hazardous occupations. Compensation is to be given as in the English Act, for personal injury by accident arising out of and in the course of employment. It is also to be given for diseases in certain cases. The provisions for diseases have been so framed that if a certain class of workmen contracts a scheduled disease, it will usually be extremely difficult for the employer to defeat a claim for compensation. On the other hand, other workmen will find it equally difficult to get compensation for disease, as they will have to prove that the disease arose "solely and directly" from employment. The diseases scheduled were anthrax, lead poisoning and phosphorous poisoning, but the list was made capable of extension. Mercury poisoning was thus added to Schedule III by notification, dated 28th September 1926.

In order to bring the Indian law into conformity with the provisions of the Draft Convention concerning Workmen's Compensation for Occupational Diseases adopted at the Seventh International Labour Conference held at Geneva in 1925, which had been ratified by India, necessary changes were made in sub-section (2) of section 3 and in the list of occupational diseases given in Schedule III of the Act. Certain occupations in connection with operations for winning natural petroleum or natural gas and in connection with the loading, unloading and fuelling of a ship in a harbour, roadstead or navigable water were also brought within the purview of the Act by notification issued by the Governor-General in Council in exercise of the powers conferred by sub-section (3) of section 2 of the Act.

The Amending Acts of 1929 and 1931.—The main features of the Amending Act of 1929 were (1) that the discriminating restrictions placed on workmen employed in the construction, repair or demolition of a building or bridge with regard to their ineligibility for compen-

sation except in the case of death or permanent total disablement has been removed; (2) that all payments to dependants of the deceased workmen (except advances to the extent of Rs. 50 for funeral expenses of the deceased workman and to the extent of a hundred rupees on account of compensation to any dependent) and any lump sums payable to minors should be paid through the Commissioner; (3) deposits of trivial amounts, *i.e.*, less than Rs. 10 have been done away with; (4) provision is made for the protection of lump sums payable to a woman or a person under legal disability by empowering the Commissioner to invest, apply or otherwise deal with them for the benefit of the woman, or of such person during his disability; (5) powers are vested in the Commissioner to recover any amount obtained by any person by fraud, impersonation or other improper means; and (6) the benefits of the Act are extended to (*a*) any person employed for the purpose of loading, unloading, fuelling, constructing, repairing, demolishing, cleaning or painting any ship of which he is not the master or a member of the crew, or (*b*) employed on a railway as defined in Sections 3 (4) and 148 (1) of the Indian Railways Act, 1890, by a person fulfilling a contract with a railway administration or (*c*) employed as an inspector, mail guard, sorter or van peon in the Railway Mail Service, or (*d*) employed in connexion with operations for winning natural petroleum or natural gas, as a rig-builder, driller, driller's helper, oil-well puller or bailing or cleaning oil wells or putting in and taking out casings or drill pipes in oil wells or (*e*) employed in any occupation involving blasting operations.

In 1931 the Act was further extended to cover workmen engaged in the construction, etc., of aerial ropeways.

The Amending Act of 1933.—The Royal Commission on Indian Labour made a number of recommendations for expanding the scope of the Workmen's Compensation Act, 1933 and on effecting improvements in it. The Government of India, in the Department of Industries and Labour, introduced a Bill in the Legislative Assembly on the 22nd February 1932 giving effect to the Commission's recommendations. The Bill was circulated for opinion to Local Governments in March 1932 and was referred to a Select Committee of the Legislative Assembly on the 23rd Sept. 1932. The Select Committee submitted its report in February 1933. The Bill was passed by the Legislature and the Act received the assent of the Governor-General on 9th September 1933. It came into force on 1st July 1933 but certain sections of the Amending Act were brought into operation from 1st January 1934 in order to give time to the industries covered for making the unnecessary insurance arrangements in view of the alterations made in the amounts of compensation payable. The principal amendments made in the Act are as follows:—

(*a*) The definition of "dependent" has been recast so as to divide dependents into two categories, placing in the first those who are in practically all cases actually dependent and in the second those who may or may not be in that position. Widowed daughters, widowed sisters and widowed daughters-in-law as well as illegitimate children have been included in the list of dependents.

(*b*) The scope of the Act has been extended so as to cover as completely as possible all workers in organised industries whether their occupations are hazardous or not and a step has been taken in the direction of extending the benefits of the Acts to workers in less organised industries when employment is subject to much risk. The distinction which existed between seamen employed in the ships registered in India and those in ships registered in foreign countries has been removed. Any person employed as the master or a seaman of any ship which is propelled by mechanical power or towed by a ship so propelled as well as in any other kind of ship whose net tonnage is 50 tons or more are brought within the scope of the Act. Not only workmen employed within the precincts of a factory but also men engaged in any kind of work incidental to or connected with work in a factory are entitled to the benefit of the Act. Other classes of workers included within the scope of the Act are, drivers of private motor cars, workers employed in handling explosives or in the construction of any building twenty feet or more in height or in the demolition of any tion, working, repair or demolition ordinarily aerial ropeway or in any occupation ordinarily involving outdoor work in the Indian Posts and Telegraphs Department, or in the operation of any ferry boat capable of carrying more than ten persons or in any estate which is maintained for the purpose of growing cinchona, coffee, rubber or tea; or in a lighthouse as defined in clause (*d*) of section 2 of the Indian Lighthouse Act, 1927; or in producing or exhibiting cinematograph pictures; or in the training, keeping or working of elephants or wild animals or employed as a diver.

(*c*) The waiting period has been reduced from ten to seven days.

(*d*) The scales of compensation for death and permanent total disablement which are graded according to seventeen wage classes, have been considerably enhanced and the minimum rate introduced represents an increase of over 100 per cent on that given under the original Act, while the maximum is increased by 60 per cent. The basis of calculation of the amount of compensation in the case of deaths or permanent total disablement is the same as before, *i.e.*, 30 months wages for the former and 42 months wages for the latter for adults. The maximum amounts of compensation for deaths and permanent total disablement have been increased from Rs. 2,500 and Rs. 3,500 to Rs. 4,000 and Rs. 5,600 respectively. In the case of minors there is no change in the amount of compensation for death but the maximum compensation for permanent total disablement has been prescribed at a uniform rate of Rs. 1,200 as against 84 months' wages or Rs. 3,500 whichever is less, in the original Act. The maximum limit to the amount of half-monthly payments in the case of temporary disablement to both adults and minors has been raised from Rs. 15 to Rs. 30.

(*e*) New provisions have been inserted into the Act enabling the interests of dependents in cases of fatal accidents to be better safeguarded by ensuring that (*i*) in as many cases as possible, fatal accidents are brought to the notice of Commissioners; (*ii*) where the employer admits liability, compensation is to be deposited promptly; and (*iii*) where the employer disclaims liability and there are good grounds for believing compensation to be payable, the dependents get the information necessary to enable them to judge if they should make a claim or not.

(*f*) A contractor has the right to be indemnified by his sub-contractor if he has had to pay compensation either to the principal or to the workman.

(*g*) An employer may make to any dependant advances on account of compensation not exceeding an aggregate of one hundred rupees, and so much of such aggregate as does not exceed the compensation payable to that dependant shall be deducted by the Commissioner from such compensation and repaid to the employer. Further, the Commissioner may deduct Rs. 25 from the amount of compensation payable, for the funeral expenses of a deceased workman and pay the same to the person by whom such expenses were incurred.

(*h*) The following four new industrial diseases have been added to Schedule III of the Act:—(1) Mercury poisoning or its sequelæ; (2) poisoning by benzene and its homologues, or the sequelæ of such poisoning; (3) chrome ulceration or its sequelæ; and (4) compressed air illness or its sequelæ.

Statistics.—The statistics regarding cases disposed of under the Act have been collected and published since 1st July 1924 on which date the Act came into force. These statistics relate to the more important classes of workers, *i.e.*, workers in factories, mines and docks and on railways and tramways. The total amount of compensation paid to these classes of workers was about 6¾ lakhs of rupees in 1925, 8¼ lakhs in 1926, 11 lakhs each in 1927 and 1928, 12½ lakhs in 1929 and 1930, 10½ lakhs in 1931 and 8¾ lakhs in 1932. The following table shows the number of cases, classified by nature of injuries, and the amounts of compensation paid in each year since 1924:—

Year.	Number of Cases.			Amount of Compensation paid for.		
	Fatal.	Non-Fatal.	Total.	Fatal Cases.	Non-Fatal Cases.	All Cases.
1924 *—						
Adults	249	3,898	4,147	82,085	66,248	1,48,333
Minors	2	19	21	375	1,516	1,891
1925—						
Adults	583	10,751	11,334	3,45,995	2,95,535	6,41,530
Minors	7	30	37	200	2,391	2,591
1926—						
Adults	631	13,387	14,048	4,25,935	3,94,385	8,20,320
Minors	3	45	48	460	695	1,155
1927—						
Adults	777	14,397	15,174	5,81,400	5,27,984	11,09,384
Minors	6	36	42	840	1,030	1,870
1928—						
Adults	819	15,898	16,717	5,21,510	5,69,741	10,91,251
Minors	9	42	51	2,494	1,985	4,479
1929—						
Adults	886	17,942	18,829	5,87,190	6,70,573	12,57,763
Minors	2	34	36	200	2,201	2,401
1930—						
Adults	867	22,656	23,523	6,59,302	7,85,750	12,45,052
Minors	4	47	51	1,100	612	1,712
1931—						
Adults	696	16,764	17,460	4,44,246	6,20,885	10,65,131
Minors	3	26	29	600	625	1,225
1932—						
Adults	600	13,641	14,241	3,60,164	4,62,093	8,22,257
Minors	1	19	20	200	688	888

* The figures for 1924 relate to only the six months from 1st July to 31st December.

The following tables set out the proportion of contested cases out of the total number of applications received by the Commissioners in each year:—

Year.	No. of Applications disposed of.	Number of contested Cases.	Percentage of contested cases to total disposed of.
1924	92	14	15·2
1925	539	100	18·6
1926	835	198	23·7
1927	1,223	281	22·9
1928	1,306	309	23·7
1929	1,385	278	20·7
1930	1,438	309	21·48
1931	1,367	296	21·66
1932	1,366	328	24·01

The details of agreements (*i*) disposed of, (*ii*) registered as filed and (*iii*) rejected on account of inadequacy are given below for each year:—

Year.	Number of Agreements.			
	Disposed of.	Registered as filed.	Registered after modification.	Not registered on account of inadequacy, etc.
1924	41	33		
1925	390	390	1	7
1926	591	583	3	6
1927	701	682	5	3
1928	887	855	12	7
1929	1,046	1,024	15	7
1930	1,007	950	14	8
1931	1,060	1,018	29	28
1932	993	942	18	34
			22	29

Effect on Industry.—A compulsory system of workmen's compensation enhances the cost of production but not to any appreciable extent. In the case of coal mines, the increase in cost has been estimated to be not more than annas four per ton of coal (*vide* para 39 of the Report of the Indian Coal Committee, 1925). However, the owners of many of the smaller coal mines have been compelled to close down their mines due mainly to the severe depression with which the industry has been faced. In the Punjab the proprietors of the coal mines in the Jhelum District are reported to be not satisfied with the privileges enjoyed by the miners under the Act as some of them have had to pay as compensation on a single accident more than they could earn during a month. An unexpected increase in the number of serious and fatal accidents may undoubtedly make a big hole in the profits of a concern but the remedy for this lies in accident insurance. Facilities for accident insurance are now being provided by a number of leading insurance companies in the country and the most important of these are the Claims Bureaux in Calcutta and Madras. The Calcutta Claims Bureau which represents many of the leading insurance companies operating in India deals with a large number of claims and offers valuable co-operation to the authorities in settling compensation claims. In Bombay, insurance companies were concerned with half the number of cases that came up before the Commissioner. Insurance Companies as a rule contest only cases involving questions of law or principle and are of benefit to all concerned. In these provinces insurance is widely resorted to by the employers especially in the Textile Industry. The Millowners' Mutual Insurance Association, Ltd., Bombay, is an organisation of employers one of whole objects is the Mutual insurance of members against liability to pay compensation or damages to workmen employed by them, or their dependants for injuires or accidents, fatal or otherwise, arising out of or in the course or employment. The Association has about 60 members and is controlled by a Board of Directors. In other Provinces accident insurance does not appear to have made much progress.

INDUSTRIAL HOUSING.

One of the most vital problems facing industrial employers in India to-day is that connected with the housing of the labour which they employ. The importance and the urgency of providing decent housing cannot be sufficiently emphasized.

The conditions of industrial housing in India are, in many cases, appalling and the majority of buildings, tenements or huts in which industrial labourers are housed are insanitary and more or less uninhabitable from Western points of view. Provincial Governments, Municipalities, Improvement Trusts and the larger employers have done a great deal to mitigate the evils resulting from an insufficiency of decent sanitary housing for labour, but a considerable amount still remains to be done before this question can be considered to have been satisfactorily solved.

Several commissions and committees of inquiry appointed by the Government of India and the Provincial Governments in connection with various subjects have dealt with the question of industrial housing. The Industrial Commission in 1918 urged that, in addition to the scheme followed by the Improvement Trust in Bombay, other measures should be adopted such as the refusal of permission with a few exceptions, to fresh industrial concerns to be established, the setting up of a special area for industrial development, the removal of the existing railway workshops from the City, supply of housing accommodation to employees by railways, Government departments and public bodies, improved communications with a view to creating industrial suburbs, and a definite programme of construction to be taken up by local authorities. The findings of other commissions and committees with regard to this question follow similar lines.

Labour Commission's Recommendations.—The Royal Commission on Indian Labour have made several recommendations in connexion with Industrial Housing. These recommendations fall under various categories; (1) Legislative Action by the Central Government; (2) Administrative Action by the Central Government; (3) Legislative Action by Provincial Governments; (4) Administrative Action by Provincial Governments; (5) Administrative Action by public bodies such as Municipalities, Improvement Trusts, etc., and (6) action by Employees'and Workers' organisations. The recommendations under the first head included a suggestion to amend TheLand Acquisition Act in such a way as to enable owners of industrial concerns to acquire land for the erection of workers dwellings. The Government of India introduced a Bill in the Legislative Assembly to amend the Land Acquisition Act in the manner suggested and this Bill was passed into law in 1933. The Commission's recommendations under the second head mostly concern Railways, and although the Railway Board agrees on the vital urgency of providing greater facilities for adequate housing it has come to the conclusion that no material advance can be made in this direction at present owing to financial stringency.

The Commission's recommendations with regard to legislative action by Provinces are of a very ambitious character. They include Town Planning Acts for the Bombay and the Bengal Presidencies providing for the acquisition and lay out of suitable areas for working class housing, the opening up and reconstruction of congested and insanitary areas, the "Zoning" of industrial and urban areas and Government grants and loans to approved schemes. For administrative action by Local Governments, the Commission recommend that they should make surveys of urban and industrial areas to ascertain their needs in regard to housing, and that they should then arrange for conferences with all interested parties in order that decisions may be taken as to practicable schemes and the methods whereby their cost should be shared. Where suitable Government land is available, Government should be prepared to sell or lease to those who agree to build houses within a specified period; and Government should announce their willingness to subsidise in this or other ways employees' housing schemes approved by them. The Commission further recommend that Government should insist that all local authorities should frame bye-laws laying down minimum standards in regard to floor and cubic space, ventilation and lighting and that the Governments themselves should draw up regulations for water supplies, drainage schemes and standards for latrines. For action by Public Bodies, the Commission recommend that the provision of working class housing should be a statutory obligation on every Improvement Trust and that it should be possible for Improvement Trusts to provide land, roads, sewers and sanitary conveniences for new areas but that street lighting and water mains should be a charge on Municipalities. Improvement Trusts should be placed in a position to recoup themselves from the enhancement of land values resulting from their activities. It has also been suggested that co-operative building societies and similar activities should be encouraged. In view, however, of the present acute financial stringency prevailing in all Provinces it is very doubtful whether most of the Provincial Governments will be in a position to do much in the matter of Industrial Housing.

Bombay Presidency.—The first attempt to improve housing conditions in Bombay City was made after the plague of 1896 when the heavy mortality and the great exodus that followed paralysed the trade and industry of Bombay. The Bombay Improvement Trust was established in 1898 "for the work of making new streets, opening out crowded localities, reclaiming lands from the sea to provide room for the expansion of the city and constructing sanitary dwellings for the poor and the police." Owing to its limited powers and the various

difficulties which it encountered the Trust had to content itself for the first few years of its existence with "slum-patching," the development of a few building sites, the construction of a few chawls and the development of main roads. In more recent years, however, the Trust has been able to do a considerable amount of good work in the direction of industrial housing and has built over 1,300 tenements for housing its own labour and 99 chawls containing about 9,000 tenements in all for housing labour in general. The Bombay Port Trust which engages on an average about 8,000 manual workers in all its departments has provided accommodation for a little over 3,000 of its workers. The Bombay Municipality has provided a large number of chawls for its employees as will be evidenced by the fact that nearly 75 per cent. of the seven and a half thousand scavengers employed are provided with quarters. Varying proportions of the numbers of employees in the other departments of the Municipality are also provided with adequate housing. According to the information collected by the Bombay Labour Office in 1925, 28 out of the 76 textile mills in Bombay City which furnished information for the enquiry had provided housing for their operatives. 7 out of these mills provided residential accommodation only for employees in the Watch and Ward Department and the rooms provided were given free of rent. In the 22 mills which provide partial housing for all classes of operatives, the number of workers who lived in the tenements provided amounted to 12,149 out of 64,720 employed. More recent information collected by that office during the year 1933 shows a position of *status quo*. The G.I.P. Railway owns 20 chawls containing 841 one-room tenements and the B. B. & C. I. Railway owns more than 300 one-room tenements for housing their employees.

No action was taken by the Local Government in Bombay City for housing general industrial labour till after the end of the war. A broad and comprehensive policy was drawn up just after the end of the war by the Government of Bombay under the personal inspiration of Lord Lloyd, then Governor of Bombay, for dealing with the problem. A Development Directorate was formed in 1920 to co-ordinate the various housing activities of Government, the Municipality, the Improvement Trust and the larger labour employing organisations. The original intention of the Directorate was to construct 625 chawls located in 3 industrial centres and to comprise of 50,000 tenements for working classes, within a period of 9 years from 1921 to 1929. The original estimated cost was 5½ crores of rupees and a "town duty" of a rupee per bale of cotton on all cotton entering Bombay was imposed under the City of Bombay Municipal and Improvement Act of 1920. The scheme was launched at a time when the industrial prosperity of the country was at its zenith and labour conditions in the City were abnormal. By the end of 1927, 207 chawls with 16,524 tenements were constructed but only 123 chawls with 8,234 rooms were occupied. These chawls unfortunately do not attract industrial labour in Bombay to live in them, the reasons attributed to the failure being the distance of the chawls from the mills, the absence of travelling facilities and other amenities of city life. The average economic rent per tenement worked out at Rs. 16 per month but the actual rents charged were fixed, on an average at barely 50 per cent. of the economic rent and accommodation can now be had in the chawls at Worli at Rs. 5 per room on all floors, except for a corner room for which an extra rupee is charged. The rents in the Naigaum and Sewri chawls are Rs. 7 per room on all floors and for those in the chawls at DeLisle Road Rs. 8 per room per month on all floors. One rupee extra is charged for corner rooms. The rents charged prior to 1st April 1929 were, however, higher for all centres. Frequent strikes in the cotton textile mills and general industrial unrest in Bombay City have been largely responsible for the non-occupation of the rooms in the chawls of the Development Department during the last two years and the figure for the number of tenements occupied on the 31st March 1933 was only 8,730 out of 16,524 rooms available.

Ahmedabad City.—Probably in no other industrial centre in India is the condition of the housing of the working classes so bad as it is in Ahmedabad. The Textile Labour Union at Ahmedabad published a pamphlet entitled "A plea for Municipal Housing for the Working Classes in the City of Ahmedabad" a couple of years ago for submission to the Ahmedabad Municipality. In this pamphlet the Union deals with 23,706 tenements observed and studied by it. The Union reports that there is absolutely no provision of water in the case of 5,669 tenements: 3,117 tenements have a supply of some sort from wells. Even those which are supposed to possess the advantage of Municipal water have a hopelessly inadequate arrangement in this respect—a tap or two in a compound for a group of 200 or more families. Bathing and washing accommodation has not been thought of except in one or two chawls erected by mills 5,360 tenements had no latrine accommodation. In most of the remaining tenements the Union reports that the arrangements are miserable in quality and grossly insufficient in quantity and that urinals are conspicuous by their absence. Only a few tenements are provided with any sort of drainage. No other drainage arrangement exists.

The evils of bad housing in Ahmedabad were considerably aggravated as a result of the flood of July 1927 in Gujarat which destroyed over seven thousand houses in the City of Ahmedabad. The bulk of these houses belonged to the working classes. The Union in the pamphlet referred to, reports that the situation which had arisen in consequence of the flood was grave beyond words. Of the thousands who had been unhoused many came to share with their relatives and friends the accommodation that was already heavily overcrowded. Hundreds were altogether without shelter. The relief operations that were then carried out included the construction of huts intended to provide temporary accommodation to a number of those who could make no arrangement of their own. The Relief Committee set up by the leading citizens of Ahmedabad for reconstruction work

recommended that the Municipality should take as early steps as possible to construct 5,000 sanitary tenements by raising a loan for the purpose.

In the opinion of the Labour Union the solution of the question of housing constitutes one of the obligatory duties of the Municipality and a growing appreciation of this aspect of the housing question on the part of the authorities has led to the incorporation in the City Municipalities Act (1925) under section 71, of a provision permitting City Municipalities to undertake provision of sanitary dwellings for the proper classes. Owing mainly to the efforts of Mr. Guzarilal Nanda, Secretary of the Ahmedabad Labour Union, the Ahmedabad Municipality has recently decided to construct model dwelings for the working classes and considerable progress is being made on co-operative lines to provide industrial labour in Ahmedabad with better housing.

A Census taken by the Bombay Labour office in the early part of 1931 showed that of 69 mills working in Ahmedabad, 34 provided housing accommodation for about 18 per cent. of their employees, the total number of tenements being 3,708 of which 3,057 are one roomed, mostly 144 square yards in area with a cubic space of 1,592 cubic feet, the average rent of which was Rs. 3-5-3 per month.

Bengal Presidency.—Housing is generally provided in Bengal by employers but the extent and quality of the housing depend on the cheapness and availability of land. In the more congested areas in Calcutta, Howrah and the nearer neighbourhood housing facilities are not provided on so big or so good a scale as in other areas. Most jute mills provide for their workers rooms constructed in the neighbourhood of the mills at rents varying from annas 8 to Re. 1 per room per month. The sizes of the rooms vary from 8′×8′ to 10′×10′ and in some cases to 12′×10′. In nearly all cases the rooms are constructed back to back and in most *pucca* floors and tiled roofs have been provided with narrow verandahs generally 4′ wide used for cooking purposes. Very often the rooms are dark and in none of them can sun light penetrate through. Ventilation is unsatisfactory owing to the method of construction and the only openings in the rooms are the doors. If windows are provided they are kept shut. No chimneys or openings are provided for the escape of smoke in the majority of the houses. Recent enquiries made into the condition of housing in Bengal show that drainage, water supply and conservancy arrangements in *bastis* are abominable. Government and other public agencies do not provide housing, as in Bombay, for industrial purposes but some Government and public concerns do provide quarters for their own employees.

Madras Presidency.—As a result of the exertions of the Labour Department of the Government of Madras, Co-operative Building Societies and a number of local authorities some houses have been built for poor workmen in Madras City. Out of 1,530 registered factories a little over 200 factories are reported to have provided housing for a small number of their employees. Almost all plantation estates in the Nilgiris, Malabar and Coimbatore provide "lines" for the cooly labour employed.

United Provinces.—Out of 330 regulated factories some 80 make provision for the housing of workmen and their families. Altogether about 5,400 single room and 1,045 double room tenements are provided by the employers. The McRobertsganj and Allenganj settlements of the British India Corporation at Cawnpore are about the only important examples of housing provided by employers for their workmen in that city. A scheme has however been launched by some of the owners of factories in Cawnpore for providing housing for some twenty thousand workmen and their families but it is still under discussion. Except as employers the Government of the United Provinces has done very little in connection with industrial housing. The Improvement Trust of Cawnpore has put up some temporary housing and the Improvement Trust of Lucknow has put up a model barrack in the area set apart as an industrial area. In the *bastis* or *hatas* where housing is provided by private landlords the type of tenement available is usually a small mud hut with a room at the back and a room or a verandah in front. The size and height vary. The usual size is 10′×8′. The normal height is 6′ to 8′. The only outlet for ventilation is the small main door. Even such tenements are reported to be shared by 2, 3 or even 4 families and as many as 10 persons may be found as inmates.

Central Provinces.—Housing is provided for about 7,500 workers by some of the larger factories and mills in the Central Provinces. Nineteen per cent. of textile labour and 7·5 per cent. of the labour employed in minor industries is housed. The Pulgaon Cotton Mill maintains a settlement covering an area of 15 acres on which the millhands are allowed to build their own houses on payment of a nominal ground rent of annas 4 per annum per 100 sq. ft. Probably the most magnificent scheme of industrial housing conceived in India is that launched by the Empress Mills under the agency of Messrs. Tata Sons Limited at Nagpur. These mills have leased a plot of 200 acres at Indora, a suburb of Nagpur, two miles from the mills. The scheme is based on a desire to establish a model village. The idea is to build houses of the bungalow type standing on their own ground in plots measuring 36′×53′ with the limitation that building will not be allowed on more than one-third of the space provided. The houses are let to the workers on the hire purchase system and it is expected that many of the workers will ultimately own them.

Bihar and Orissa.—All the collieries in the Jharia coal field are amply and efficiently equipped with approved types of houses. Their design, construction, ventilation and general amenities are governed by the Jharia Mines Board of Health. Workers recruited from villages within five miles from the mine frequently prefer to live in their own villages and walk backwards and forwards to their work. In five collieries employing about ten thousand workers 4,775 houses are provided, five of the worst equipped mines employing 424 workers

provide 156 houses and five normally equipped mines employing 3,084 workers provide 1,162 houses. In many cases more than one employee is accommodated in one *dhowra* or house. Very frequently a man and his wife and his family all of whom may be recorded as separate labourers in the figures of the mining population occupy one house. Every house must be licensed. Licenses are not given unless the standards are complied with. If labourers are found in occupation of unlicensed premises the management is liable to prosecution. No rent is however charged and subletting is not known.

The Tata Iron and Steel Works at Jamshedpur have built nearly 5,000 residential buildings. Of these, 301 are rented at over Rs. 20 per month. Sixteen are rated as hotels. The accommodation provided at present is insufficient and one of the problems the Company will have to face is the provision of a larger amount of housing.

Assam.—Free quarters are provided for all residential employees on tea estates. Such non-resident labour as is employed is casual labour which comes from the adjoining villages and lives in its own houses. In the mines and oil fields free quarters are provided for the labour force employed. A Committee of Inquiry appointed in 1921-22 recommended that endeavours should be made to house immigrants from different provinces together in hamlets instead of putting workers from all provinces indiscriminately into barracks or lines. The main objection to this recommendation is the want of land as all available land is under tea. The housing conditions in the coal and oil fields are reported as being quite satisfactory. In Assam the tea estates are regularly inspected by District and Sub-Divisional officers. Although the legal powers of interference have been curtailed by the abolition of indentured labour and the repeal of so much of Act VI of 1901 as related to such labour, still in practice the inspecting officers do invariably report on the condition of the lines. They call attention to the need of improvement and the management is generally ready to effect such improvements as are considered necessary.

Other Provinces.—No special remarks are necessary in connection with the question of industrial housing in other provinces. Generally speaking no industrial slums as such or any big urban inflammation due to the presence of agglomerations of factory or other workers is particularly noticeable and the housing of labour is not to be differentiated from the ordinary poor citizen. Except in those cases where Government action has been definitely indicated, the governments of the various other provinces in India have done nothing for the improvement of industrial housing.

Railways.—The general policy on railways is to provide residential quarters where it is necessary for special reasons to provide accommodation for certain classes close to their work and where conditions are such that private enterprise does not adequately meet the demand for housing the staff. The total expenditure incurred on housing provided by the principal railways since the commencement of operations amounts to nearly twenty-five crores, while the expenditure incurred during the last five years amounts to over seven crores. Notwithstanding this expenditure there is, at present, a considerable dearth of quarters on most railways. Endeavours are, however, continuously made to construct new houses in accordance with an annually pre-arranged programme as funds permit.

HEALTH.

No satisfactory statistics are available regarding health conditions of industrial workers, *e.g.*, morbidity rates among the workers, their average weight, height, etc., and in the absence of any sound statistical data it is not possible to generalise about these matters. The problems associated with health are always difficult; they are much more so in a country where both climate and the poverty and ignorance of the people contribute to recurring outbreaks of tropical and other epidemic diseases. The main cause of ill-health particularly among the workers in Bombay and Bengal, appears to be the prevalence of malaria in the localities in which they live. Major Covell, the Special Officer appointed by the Government of Bombay to enquire into Malarial conditions in Bombay City who submitted his report in 1928, says: "It (Malaria) is still present in certain quarters of the southern portion of the City to a serious extent, but the most intense malaria at the present time exists in the vicinity of the mills, more especially in Worli and Parel sections. In the northernmost portion of Worli section, malaria is also slight, but as soon as the edge of the mill area is reached the incidence of the disease rises abruptly and extends over the greater part of Worli and Parel. The correlation between the intensity of Malaria and the proximity of mills was most striking, especially in certain cases where a single isolated mill happened to be present, *e.g.*, the Victoria Mill in Chowpaty and the Colaba Land Mill in Colaba. The vast majority of the mills in Bombay are situated in the highly malarious area." The anti-malarial measures taken by the City Municipality have however resulted in a gradual reduction of the number of deaths from malarial attacks.

In the mines in the Madras Presidency, Malaria prevails in the Cuddapah district and at every change of season there is a prevalence of widespread fever. Malaria also prevails in the Thummaragudi mines throughout the year and the cold winds during the rainy season from Sandur Hills affect the health of the labourers in the mines of Tonasigeri. Tuberculosis prevails among industrial workers in the United

Provinces and Bihar and Orissa, and *Kala Azar* is common among workers in certain tracts like Bihar and Orissa.

The following table gives the birth and death rates and the rate of infant mortality per thousand of the population for some of the important industrial centres. The figures, however, relate to the whole population in most cases and as such are not likely to give an adequate idea regarding mortality, etc., among industrial workers. Besides, in certain cities like Bombay, it is customary for married working class women to leave the city for their confinement and register births in the mofussil:

A table showing (a) Birth-rate and (b) Death-rate per thousand of population and (c) Infant mortality for 1,000 registered births for certain important industrial centres.

Centre.	Period.	Birth-rate per 1,000 of population.	Death-rate per 1,000 of population.	Infant mortality per 1,000 registered births.
Bombay	1932	24.8	19.7	218.00
Ahmedabad	1929	47.02	49.90	331.65
Sholapur	"	44.03	34.53	228.73
Karachi	"	55.83	30.97	230.55
Nagpur	"	50.63	52.24	290.77
Amraoti	"	59.60	49.14	330.91
Akola	"	41.73	35.36	251.27
Cawnpore	"	36.94	52.70	420.34
Lucknow	"	43.98	75.81	469.22
Allahabad	"	46.31	38.44	258.79

The relation between overcrowding and infant mortality is brought out in the following table extracted from the annual report of the Municipal Commissioner for Bombay City:—

Infant Mortality by the Number of Rooms occupied in 1932.

Number of rooms.	Births.		Deaths.		Infant mortality per 1,000 births registered.	
	Number.	Percentage.	Number.	Percentage.	1931.	1932.
1 Room & under	10,201	35.3	4,472	71.0	438	529
2 Rooms ..	2,401	8.3	638	10.1	265	412
3 " ..	348	1.2	92	1.5	264	372
4 or more Rooms	558	1.9	72	1.2	129	228
Hospitals ..	15,384	53.3	1,009	6.0	66	74
Road side ..	2	0.0	15	0.2	..	..
Total ..	28,894	100.0	6,298	100.0	218	272

Working conditions.—The factory department in Bombay has done much work in investigating the efficiency of different humidifying and ventilating plants in the weaving and spinning departments of Mills in Ahmedabad. As a result, all the new textile mills which have been constructed in Ahmedabad during the last five years are equipped with efficient ventilating and cooling systems and the benefits both to the workers and the processes involved are well recognised at that centre. There has been an extensive "uplift" in the older mills and there is hardly a mill that has not made efforts in the direction indicated. There has latterly been a marked tendency to increase the pace of improvements in the spinning departments and one group of mills has installed 12 expensive plants that effectively cool and humidify the atmospheres of the spinning as well as of the weaving departments." A few mills in Bombay City have also installed new cooling and humidifying systems. A few other mills provide vacuum stripping apparatus in the carding departments. A plenum system of blowing external air near the workers in the boiling department of a soap factory produced results gratifying both to the worker and the management and it is hoped to extend the method to a few industries where the removal of surplus heat is a difficult matter. An enquiry made into the effect of employment on the health of the dhobi bleachers in Ahmedabad revealed that although there was little history of rheumatism, some are adversely effected by working with bleaching solutions. Several workers were found to be suffering frim hyperaemia of the legs, but it was obvious later on that more care was being exercised by the contractors. Most of the dhobi work is done in uncovered tanks in the compounds and no shelters have been provided. It is said that the men are used to working in the hot Ahmedabad sun, but even the donkeys used so freely for load carrying take advantage of the shade when they are permitted to do so. The Bengal Report refers to the question of dust removal in Jute Mills and Tea factories and to the investigations made to determine at what stage dust or fluff impregnation could be regarded as definitely injurious. It is considered that where exhaust trunk extracting systems are deemed to be essential in all factories in an industry the necessity to instal such equipment should be promulgated by rule. The continued trade depression, however, precluded the issue of a general order by Government. The majority of firms find the initial cost of such installations prohibitive but a few concerns have provided mechanical ventilation in their factories. Although some improvement in ventilation has been effected during the year 1932, the bad design and unsuitability of the majority of the buildings occupied by the smaller factories is stated to be still the chief obstacle to all round progress. In regard to Cotton ginning factories the Punjab Report states that "ventilation was again far from satisfactory but apart from a drastic alteration in the method of gnning, little can be done to improve ventilation sufficiently to dispose of the dust in ginning rooms; the cost of such alteration is at present prohibitive." The Central Provinces Report mentions that ventilation arrangements have on the whole, shown satisfactory improvement in most perennial factories. In the present conditions, owners of ginning factories are unable to adopt the expensive system of ducts and exhaust fans to overcome the dust nuisance. The provision of ridge ventilation in cotton ginning factories has been a standard practice in the United Provinces in respect of new factories and is reported to have proved satisfactory when combined with a reasonable height of roof. Ventilation in other factories is steadily improving though the progress is not quite rapid due to depressed trade conditions. The extended use of electricity is steadily improving the general standard of lighting and is commended on with approval in the Provincial factory reports for the year 1932. The factory department in the province of Bihar and Orissa has compiled a little guide book to "Safety, Lighting and Ventilation in small factories," based on photometric observations, in order to help interested persons and builders of factories to so adjust the window area as to secure sufficient amount of natural lighting.

Extent of Medical Facilities provided.—The results of a recent enquiry into Welfare work conducted by the Labour Office shows that the provision of facilities for medical attendance and the supply of medicines is fairly general in all the larger labour-employing organisations in the Bombay Presidency. The Textile Labour Union in Ahmedabad is the only association of employees which provides medical facilities for its members. There are also Government, Municipal or charitable hospitals and dispensaries which are open to the public and which are used by the labouring classes. In the United Provinces, many of the larger employers maintain dispensaries but no hospitals. The Dufferin Fund, a private organisation aided by grants from Government and local bodies, maintains female hospitals at the more important towns. The Lady Chelmsford Maternity and Child Welfare League maintains a number of centres for child welfare and the treatment of maternity cases. Many of the employers in the Central Provinces and Berar have provided well-equipped dispensaries and medical facilities are within easy reach of the workers in almost all the factories and every important mining area in the Province. Some of the larger concerns in Bihar and Orissa and in the Punjab also provide medical facilities for their employees. In Madras only a few large factories provide dispensaries. Medical facilities in the plantations are fairly good. All the jute mills in the neighbourhood of Calcutta provide dispensaries but most of the doctors in charge are not registered medical graduates. Owing to financial stringency the Indian Jute Mills Association were unable to take any action on the welfare survey conducted by a lady doctor in the mill area and leprosy survey carried out by the school of tropical medicine. In spite of the general depression, the Julti Iron Works built a hospital with up-to-date equipment. In all the tea gardens in Assam and in Bengal medical attendance and medicine are provided for all classes of employees. The medical arrangements in a large number of estates are supervised by European medical officers. Well-

equipped hospitals are also provided for the labour force in the mines and oil-fields in Assam. Part-time medical attendance and medicines are provided by the employers in the Asansol Mines Board Area. Medical facilities are also provided in the mines in Madras. In the Jharia Mining Settlement eight hospitals are maintained by employers, the number of beds varying from 6 to 12 in each ward.

All the Provincial Factory Reports for the year 1932 record a year of normal health amongst factory workers. There was no dislocation of industry anywhere on account of epidemics during the year 1933 except perhaps to some extent in Poona on account of the severe epidemic of plague in that City which lasted from July to October. Continued improvement in general sanitary conditions in the larger factories is reported in all provinces. In Bombay concentration on several factories of the bazaar type has led to considerable improvements and a rise in the standard of neighbouring smaller concerns not yet amenable to this Act. The lack of municipal facilities for the disposal of trade waste in Ahmedabad is stated to be a cause of insanitary factory surroundings in that area. Conditions in the Dharavi Tanneries in the Bombay Presidency were investigated during 1932 and considerable improvements were effected. There was marked improvement in the sanitary conditions of factories in the Titaghur area in Bengal on account of the successful installation of a sewerage scheme. The Bihar and Orissa report states that the advisability and possibility of appointing. Medical Inspector of Factories was under consideration of the local Government. The United Provinces Report refers to occasional cases of persons suffering from obnoxious diseases being employed in food product factories and states that the Medical Officers of Health were asked to give this question attention in their capacities as Additional Inspectors of Factories with a view to stopping the practice.

Maternity Benefits.

In September 1924, Mr. N. M. Joshi made the first attempt in the Legislative Assembly to introduce a Bill to make provision for the payment of maternity benefits in certain industries. Under this Bill, the Local Governments were to be asked to establish a Maternity Benefit Fund and to make payments out of this Fund. The Bill, after circulation, was thrown out by the Assembly in August 1925.

The first Province in India to pass a Maternity Benefit Act was Bombay. The Act came into force on 1st July 1929. According to this Act, the payment of maternity benefits is an obligation which is imposed directly on the employer. The Annual Report on the administration of this Act for the year ending 30th June 1933 shows there were 11.7 claims paid per 100 women employed and the total amount of maternity benefit paid under the Act was Rs. 1,35,813. The Bombay Municipality has started since February 1928, a maternity benefit scheme by which benefit is given to halalkhore and scavenging women in the form of leave with full pay not exceeding 42 consecutive days, including the date of confinement, as certified by the Executive Health Officer, if the birth takes place in Bombay, and by a Police Patel or by hospital authorities if it takes place out of Bombay.

An Act was passed by the Central Provinces Council in 1930 on the same lines as that in Bombay. During the year 1932 benefits amounting to Rs. 12,394 were paid to 605 women workers.

In Assam, voluntary maternity benefit schemes have been adopted by almost every tea estate of repute. While pregnant women remain at work, they are put on light work on full rates of pay. During the period of advanced pregnancy and after childbirth leave on half pay is usually granted and in some cases full pay is allowed and a bonus at childbirth is often granted in addition. The bonus is in some cases conditional on the child being healthy. The Assam Railways and Trading Company, the next largest employers of labour in Assam, grants six months' leave on half pay provided the women have been examined by the medical officers and attend hospital once a week. The Assam Oil Company grants leave on half pay for three months. On some estates in Coimbatore District female coolies are fed free for a month before and a month after confinement. On other estates maternity benefit ranging from Rs. 3 to Rs. 5 is paid and in some other estates free feeding of the women for two weeks before and three weeks after confinement is arranged.

Labour Commission's Recommendations.—Among the more important recommendations made by the Royal Commission on Indian Labour in connexion with the health of the industrial worker are the following :—

(*a*) India should have an Institute of Nutrition.

(*b*) Local authorities should construct sanitary markets in all urban and industrial areas.

(*c*) Adulteration of Foods Acts should be in force in all Provinces.

(*d*) In industrial provinces Public Health Departments should be strengthened to deal with industrial hygiene and industrial disease.

(*e*) Women should be appointed to public health staff particularly in the more industrialised Provinces.

(*f*) Comprehensive Public Health Acts should be passed in all Provinces.

(*g*) Where piped water supplies are not available special precautions as to purity should be taken.

(*h*) Every provincial health department, every railway administration and all Boards of Health and welfare in mining areas should employ full time malariologists.

(*i*) A Government diploma for health visitors should be instituted as the recognised qualification required of all women aspiring to such posts.

(*j*) In the larger industrial areas Governments local authorities and industrial management,

should co-operate in the development of child welfare centres and women's clinics; and Government should give percentage grants for approved schemes.

(*k*) Maternity Benefit legislation on the lines of the Bombay and Central Provinces Acts should be enacted in all Provinces, and

(*l*) All methods should be explored that may lead to the alleviation of existing hardships arising from the need of provision for sickness.

Amendment of the Bombay Maternity Benefit Act.—It was represented to Government that the Act requires amendment in certain respects and the Royal Commission on Labour have also dealt with the question of maternity benenefit. Accordingly the Government of Bombay introduced in the Local Legislative Council on the 11th August 1933 a Bill to amend the Act. The Bill was referred to a select committee on the same day. The following changes in the Act were proposed in the Bill:—

(*a*) In place of the uniform rate of benefit of 8 as. a day provided in Section 5 of the Act, A rate of 8 as. a day in the Cities of Bombay, Ahmedabad and Karachi, and a rate of 8 as. a day or the average daily earnings whichever is less, for other places have been proposed. The average earnings are to be calculated over a period of three months ending on the date on which a woman worker gives notice under Section 6(1).

(*b*) The maximum period for which a woman shall be entitled to benefit is proposed to be raised from seven to eight weeks.

(*c*) The qualifying period of service is to be raised from 6 months to 9 months.

(*d*) The benefit is now payable in three instalments, one at birth of a child and the other two thereafter. The Bill provides for payments to be made either in two instalments, one before and the other after childbirth or in one lump sum payment after delivery.

(*e*) There is at present no time-limit within which the benefit may be claimed. It is proposed to prescribe a limit of six months after childbirth.

(*f*) The Bill permits employees to maintain a common combined muster for the purposes of this and the Factories Act.

The Select Committee did not agree to the proposed changes in the rate of benefit and deleted the clauses in the Bill relating to this question. The report of this Committee is to be considered during the Spring Session of the Bombay Lesgislative Council.

Under their rule-making powers under the Act, the Local Government made a new rule in December 1933 which makes an employer liable for paying maternity benefit in the event of his closing his factory. A woman entitled to maternity benefit is not to be deemed dismissed within the provisions of Section 8, if she is discharged on account of the closing of the factory in which she is employed.

WELFARE WORK.

(Excluding Health and Housing).

In 1926, the Government of India requested all Provincial Governments to collect full and comprehensive information with regard to the measures undertaken and the efforts made to ameliorate the conditions under which the workers live when they are not actually employed. The enquiry originated as the result of the Recommendation adopted by the Sixth Session of the International Labour Conference in connexion with the development of facilities for the utilisation of workers' spare time. The Labour Office conducted an enquiry in the Bombay Presidency, the results of which were published in the issue of the *Labour Gazette* for January 1927.

Apart from the few individual employers who have organised welfare work on modern lines, the first organised attempt to introduce welfare activities of a particular type was taken by the Bombay Millowners' Association early in 1930. In a circular letter dated 8th January, 1930, addressed to the mills affiliated to the Bombay Millowners' Association, this Association requested all mills in Bombay City to give their wholehearted cooperation to their efforts for devising machinery for the improvement of the relations between the management and labour by giving immediate effect, wherever it was possible, among other things, to those classes of welfare work which have been uniformly successful, *e.g.*, (*a*) periodical social gatherings of workpeople; (*b*) provision of free mill dispensaries as soon as financial considerations permit: and (*c*) the establishment of creches at all mills.

There are to-day 27 cotton mills in Bombay City which provide creche and in one of these mills the creche is for untouchables only. Fourteen of the mills which have creches have staffed the creches with both qualified nurses and *ayahs*. Light food such as milk, biscuits, etc. is given to the children in 17 cases and in 13 of them change of clothes also is provided for. Only seven working mills have no dispensaries for their workmen. A few mills keep patent medicines only. A large majority of the mills which maintain dispensaries have engaged full-time compounders. The E. D. Sassoon & Company have employed two male doctors and a lady doctor for the benefit of their employees and the company also have a staff for antimalarial propaganda. Nearly a third of the total number of the working mills in Bombay provide night schools for the education of their employees. The Sassoons also offer facilities to the workers for technical education. Facilities for recreation of a regular character such as games, wrestling, etc. are provided for by about ten mills. Occasiona recreational activities like cinemas, dramas

music, etc., are arranged for in a few mills while in a few others annual social gatherings are held. Tea shops are provided in a good number of mills while cheap grain shops for the benefit of the workers are run by four mills. The Sassoon group of mills allow their workmen to make purchases from their cloth shops at 10 per cent. discount on credit, recoveries being made from wages. The employees of 17 mills enjoy the benefits of provident funds while pension schemes for employees are in force in 9 mills. Co-operative credit societies are established in 23 out of the 65 working mills studied.

The Royal Commission on Indian labour have recommended that there should be a more general extension on the part of the employer of welfare work in its broader sense; and that in the larger jute and cotton industrial areas, mills and factories should organise in groups, each establishment having its own welfare centre and health visitor under the supervision of a woman doctor employed by the group.

Employment of Welfare Officers and Workers.—The All-India Industrial Welfare Conference of 1922 passed a resolution that social service organisations should be asked to take up the work of training welfare workers. The establishments of workers' committees in all industrial establishments was also urged but very little progress appears to have been made so far in this direction.

In the Bombay Presidency except in the case of the Sholapur Spinning and Weaving Mills in Sholapur and the Currimbhoy Ebrahim Workmen's Institute at Bombay, no other employers have employed any special welfare officers or workers to conduct their welfare activities. But Messrs. E. D. Sassoon & Co., Ltd., have appointed an England returned B. Sc. of the London University as a Labour Officer for all their eleven Textile Mills in Bombay City.

In Bihar and Orissa, the Tata Iron and Steel Company has recently appointed a welfare officer with an office and staff to co-ordinate the various welfare activities that have been carried on by the Steel Company.

In the Central Provinces and Berar, except at the Empress Mills, no regular staff of welfare officer and workers has been appointed.

In the United Provinces, the British India Corporation employ a full-time welfare superintendent and a trained staff consisting of 4 doctors, 5 nurses, 8 matrons, 8 compounders, about a dozen midwives, 19 teachers and 2 sergeant patrols.

In Bengal, attempts have been made by some mills to set up day and night schools but many of these schools are reported to have been closed owing to the lack of interest shown by the employees. Except for the facilities for technical training that are provided at the Icchapur Rifle Factory, the Cossipore Gun and Shell Factory and the Government Weaving School at Serampore there is little or no organised provision for industrial and vocational training in the industrial centres in Bengal.

The welfare centre inaugurated in Clive Jute Mills made good progress during the year 1932. The Indian Iron and Steel Company, Hirapur, established a Baby Clinic in the charge of a qualified nurse. The Burmah Shell Company's labour bureau and welfare department at Budge Budge continued to do excellent work. An instance of the progress made is stated to be the success of the night school conducted by the department. A number of workmen who attend the school were, until recently, absolutely illiterate but now many of them are able to fill up money order forms, write out an address, and read a telegram.

In Bombay, the Bombay Municipality has introduced compulsory education in F and G Wards which are chiefly peopled by millhands. In the Government factories at Kirkee, the Kirkee Education Society which is well supported by the factory authorities conducts six night schools. The Gokak Falls Mills Company maintains one night school for adult workers. In Ahmedabad one mill runs a school for half-timers and eight mills maintain schools for workers' children. Three mills in the Sholapur district and the Government workshop at Dapuri provide for the primary education of half-timers.

The Social Service League, Bombay, maintains 9 night schools and a Textile Technical School at Parel, for imparting practical and theoretical training to actual mill workers. The Bombay Y.M.C.A. conducts 14 night schools with an average daily attendance of about 200. The Ahmedabad Labour Union conducted in 1933, 16 day schools, 10 night schools, one Nursery school, one boarding school for boys and one boarding school for girls.

In Bihar and Orissa, the Tata Iron and Steel Company has established a Technical Institute at Jamshedpur to train in theory and practice certain selected students for positions in the operating departments. The Company also maintains twenty-two schools for the education of the children of its employees.

In Madras, seventy factories registered under the Indian Factories Act have provided schools for half-timers and in some cases for employees' children also. The Buckingham and Carnatic Mills maintain a day as well as a night school. The day school is an elementary school with 5 standards and has a technical section attached to it.

In Burma, very few firms provide facilities for education. The Burma Oil Company maintains schools in the Yenang-Yaung Oilfield for about 800 children and proposes to start a night school for its employees. The Burma Corporation makes an annual donation of Rs. 1,000 for the maintenance of the Anglo-Vernacular Middle School at Namtu and is also constructing a school at Baldwin for the education of the children of its employees.

In the United Provinces, the British India Corporation maintains four day schools for boys and girls, two night schools and two industrial classes, for employees. The Elgin Mills at Cawnpore, the United Agra Mills, Agra, and the B. N. W. Railway Workshops at Gorakhpur also provide for the education of the children of their employees. The Elgin Mills have built a permanent stage for dramas and purchased a cinema machine for the entertainment of their workers. Messrs. Begg Sutherland & Co.

e the managing agents for several large s, carry on welfare activities in providing free milk to supply pupils, dispensaries, ium and sports, library, recreational mes, etc.

Punjab, only the new Egerton Woollen mpany, Dhariwal, maintains a school.

e Central Provinces and Berar, the Mills in Nagpur have Nursery and classes for the children in the creches. the year 1932, 552 children received education in factory schools as against e previous year, the fall in attendance e to a general reduction in the number n employed. Créches are attached to n mills and one pottery works in this The educational work outside the nducted by the Young Men's Christian Association which has established 9 centres where the mill-workers reside. Of these, 8 centres have night schools. The Empress Mills also make annual contributions of about Rs. 3,500 to other schools where the children of the work-people study.

In Assam, some of the tea gardens maintain schools for children; but these schools are not popular as the labourers are generally recruited from the aboriginal tribes with whom education is at a discount particularly as it interferes with the earnings of their children who find employment in the gardens. The Assam Oil Company maintains a Middle English School and the Assam Railways and Trading Company provides a Middle English and a Primary School for the children of their employees. No industry provides schools for adult labourers.

Welfare Work on Railways.

ion.—Railways as a group are the mployers of labour in India and their ork is therefore being dealt with . All Railways provide facilities for recreation for their employees and their children. The number of recreational clubs or institutes provided on each railway are shown in the following table:—

Name of Railway.	Number of Institutes for	
	Europeans and Anglo-Indians.	Indians.
ern Railway	32	19
Railway	33	26
gal Railway	11	14
ways	15 in all.	
n Peninsula Railway	27	29 (2 for all nationalities).
roda and Central India Railway ..	17	12
pur Railway	14	19
Southern Mahratta Railway ..	24	7
n Railway	19 in all.	

te is regarded as a club provided way free of rent. The institutes eading room, indoor and outdoor and are generally self-supporting nts are made from fines' funds to urring expenses in deserving cases. s also undertake to recover the of the members through the i to remit them to the manager of The membership of the institutes on some railways.

mittees and athletic clubs have d on several railways, *e.g.*, d the East Indian Railways with promoting athletic sports among es and organizing tournaments. Railway Athletic Association he promotion and development ay athletic competitions of all kinds is a registered association and its membership is open to the Railway Board and its subordinate offices as well as to railways which are parties to the Indian Railway Conference Association. Inter-district or inter-divisional competitions are also run by local sports' committees with the idea of encouraging sports among all classes of staff. The inter-railway boxing, wrestling and football competitions are arranged in four groups. In 1931 the North Western Railway provided a stadium within easy reach of the living quarters of the Railway employees at Moghalpura.

The cinema shows and magic lantern lectures which have been recently organized for the recreation of railway employees are growing in popularity with the staff.

The East Indian Railway locomotive and carriage and wagon workshops, Lucknow, have Welfare Committees which meet monthly and dispose of matters brought forward by the various delegates. Such Committees have also been formed in the Perambur as well as the Golden Rock workshops of the South Indian Railway.

Education.—Almost all Railways provide facilities for the education of their illiterate staffs as well as the children of Railway employees. The progress made in this direction on each railway may be briefly stated as follows :—

The N.W. Railway have started three experimental schools for adult workers in the running locomotive sheds at Lahore, Sibsur and Kotri. The experiment has so far been confined to the locomotive staff as the majority of the staff in this branch are illiterate and education provides a great inducement in that wages can practically be doubled by qualifying for promotion to the higher grades of running staff. The East Indian Railway provide 37 schools for the employees of the Operating Department. The Eastern Bengal Railway provide 9 night schools for adult employees, the daily average attendance at these schools being 309. On the Burma Railways educational facilities for adult workmen have hitherto proved a failure and another experimental school has recently been opened for firemen.

The B. B. & C. I. Railway has recently opened classes for imparting instruction in the three R's at 3 centres on the Broad-Gauge and 3 on the Metre-Gauge systems. As an inducement to study, a bonus of Rs. 5 is paid to each man passing a simple test. On the E. B. Railway, the Locomotive Department holds classes at Lunding, Badarpur and Chittagong to assist drivers to qualify as "English speaking" which grade carries a higher pay. The only facilities given by the B. & N. W. Railway are first aid classes and subjects of a technical nature in the Locomotive Department. The Bengal Nagpur Railway provides 14 schools for imparting elementary training in reading, writing and rudimentary arithmetic to Indian drivers, shunters and firemen so as to enable them to make themselves personally acquainted with the rules and orders affecting train working. On the M. & S. M. Railway there are two night schools at Hubli and Guntakal respectively both of which receive financial support from the Company.

Schools for the education of adult workmen do not exist on the G. I. P. Railway but a school is established at Bina for imparting technical instruction and conducting refresher courses in Railway working.

For Workers' Children.—The facilities provided for the education of the children of railway employees are as under: —

About 100 schools for European and Anglo-Indian children and 130 schools for Indian children are maintained at suitable centres and the total number of pupils on the rolls is about 5,000 and 16,000 respectively. The total expenditure from revenue on the European and Anglo-Indian schools is Rs. 4 lakhs per annum and on the Indian schools Rs. 1.4 lakhs. The Railway Department also aids certain schools for children of railway employees. The total number of children in railway aided schools is about 4,000 (European and Anglo-Indian) and 8,000 (Indian) and the total annual grants made by the Railway are about Rs. 50,000 to each group. The Railway Department also gives direct financial assistance to its employees towards the education of their children in certain hill schools. The total expenditure on this account in 1927 28 was Rs. 3.5 lakhs for Europeans and Anglo-Indians and Rs. 28-8 thousands for Indians.

Facilities are also afforded by the grant of passes and concession tickets to enable the children to attend schools.

The present methods of assistance have recently evoked public criticism on the score of their being more favourable to European and Anglo-Indian employees than to the Indian and with a view to eliminating all trace of racial discrimination the Railway Board placed Mr. C. E. W. Jones, C.I.E., I.E.S., on special duty in 1927 with instructions to collect all facts and figures regarding the assistance given by railways for the education of the children of their employees. On a consideration of Mr. Jones' report the Board have now formulated their future policy on the following lines :—

All railway schools would be transferred to local authorities or private bodies, special grants being given out of railway funds where necessary. The assistance given by the Railway Department would be confined to employees who draw pay below a prescribed maximum and to parents who are obliged to send their children to boarding schools. The assistance would take he form of grants to the employees of a fixed proportion not exceeding one-half of the board and tuition fees, the proportion depending upon the pay drawn by the parent and falling with the increase in pay. The assistance would be open to all employees without distinction of community, race or creed.

Several company managed railways have also signified their willingness to adopt a similar policy. But the question is still receiving further consideration because of the representations received in connexion with the scheme.

Co-operation.—The Railway Administration have noticed that heavy indebtedness degrades the employee and impairs his efficiency and they have therefore encouraged the formation of co-operative credit societies and co-operative stores for all grades of employees.

Co-operative Credit Societies have been formed on all railways and are managed by committees generally elected from among the shareholders. But in some cases, the heads of the departments are required to be the chairmen of the committees and they have power to nominate some of the members of the committee.

who are the managing agents for several large concerns, carry on welfare activities in providing schools, free milk to supply pupils, dispensaries, gymnasium and sports, library, recreational programmes, etc.

In the Punjab, only the new Egerton Woollen Mills Company, Dhariwal, maintains a school.

In the Central Provinces and Berar, the Empress Mills in Nagpur have Nursery and primary classes for the children in the creches. During the year 1932, 552 children received primary education in factory schools as against 765 in the previous year, the fall in attendance being due to a general reduction in the number of children employed. Créches are attached to six cotton mills and one pottery works in this province. The educational work outside the mills is conducted by the Young Men's Christian Association which has established 9 centres where the mill-workers reside. Of these, 8 centres have night schools. The Empress Mills also make annual contributions of about Rs. 3,500 to other schools where the children of the work-people study.

In Assam, some of the tea gardens maintain schools for children; but these schools are not popular as the labourers are generally recruited from the aboriginal tribes with whom education is at a discount particularly as it interferes with the earnings of their children who find employment in the gardens. The Assam Oil Company maintains a Middle English School and the Assam Railways and Trading Company provides a Middle English and a Primary School for the children of their employees. No industry provides schools for adult labourers.

Welfare Work on Railways.

Recreation.—Railways as a group are the largest employers of labour in India and their welfare work is therefore being dealt with separately. All Railways provide facilities for recreation for their employees and their children. The number of recreational clubs or institutes provided on each railway are shown in the following table:—

Name of Railway.	Number of Institutes for	
	Europeans and Anglo-Indians.	Indians.
North-Western Railway	32	19
East Indian Railway	33	26
Eastern Bengal Railway	11	14
Burma Railways	15 in all.	
Great Indian Peninsula Railway	27	29 (2 for all nationalities).
Bombay, Baroda and Central India Railway ..	17	12
Bengal Nagpur Railway	14	19
Madras and Southern Mahratta Railway ..	24	7
South Indian Railway	19 in all.	

Each institute is regarded as a club provided by the Railway free of rent. The institutes provide a reading room, indoor and outdoor games, etc., and are generally self-supporting although grants are made from fines' funds to meet the recurring expenses in deserving cases. The railways also undertake to recover the subscriptions of the members through the paysheets and to remit them to the manager of the institute. The membership of the institutes is compulsory on some railways.

Sports committees and athletic clubs have been formed on several railways, *e.g.*, the G.I.P. and the East Indian Railways with the object of promoting athletic sports among the employees and organizing tournaments. The Indian Railway Athletic Association formed for the promotion and development of inter-railway athletic competitions of all kinds is a registered association and its membership is open to the Railway Board and its subordinate offices as well as to railways which are parties to the Indian Railway Conference Association. Inter-district or inter-divisional competitions are also run by local sports' committees with the idea of encouraging sports among all classes of staff. The inter-railway boxing, wrestling and football competitions are arranged in four groups. In 1931 the North Western Railway provided a stadium within easy reach of the living quarters of the Railway employees at Moghalpura.

The cinema shows and magic lantern lectures which have been recently organized for the recreation of railway employees are growing in popularity with the staff.

The East Indian Railway locomotive and carriage and wagon workshops, Lucknow, have Welfare Committees which meet monthly and dispose of matters brought forward by the various delegates. Such Committees have also been formed in the Perambur as well as the Golden Rock workshops of the South Indian Railway.

Education.—Almost all Railways provide facilities for the education of their illiterate staffs as well as the children of Railway employees. The progress made in this direction on each railway may be briefly stated as follows:—

The N.W. Railway have started three experimental schools for adult workers in the running locomotive sheds at Lahore, Sibsur and Kotri. The experiment has so far been confined to the locomotive staff as the majority of the staff in this branch are illiterate and education provides a great inducement in that wages can practically be doubled by qualifying for promotion to the higher grades of running staff. The East Indian Railway provide 37 schools for the employees of the Operating Department. The Eastern Bengal Railway provide 9 night schools for adult employees, the daily average attendance at these schools being 309. On the Burma Railways educational facilities for adult workmen have hitherto proved a failure and another experimental school has recently been opened for firemen.

The B. B. & C. I. Railway has recently opened classes for imparting instruction in the three R's at 3 centres on the Broad-Gauge and 3 on the Metre-Gauge systems. As an inducement to study, a bonus of Rs. 5 is paid to each man passing a simple test. On the E. B. Railway, the Locomotive Department holds classes at Lunding, Badarpur and Chittagong to assist drivers to qualify as "English speaking" which grade carries a higher pay. The only facilities given by the B. & N. W. Railway are first aid classes and subjects of a technical nature in the Locomotive Department. The Bengal Nagpur Railway provides 14 schools for imparting elementary training in reading, writing and rudimentary arithmetic to Indian drivers, shunters and firemen so as to enable them to make themselves personally acquainted with the rules and orders affecting train working. On the M. & S. M. Railway there are two night schools at Hubli and Guntakal respectively both of which receive financial support from the Company.

Schools for the education of adult workmen do not exist on the G. I. P. Railway but a school is established at Bina for imparting technical instruction and conducting refresher courses in Railway working.

For Workers' Children.—The facilities provided for the education of the children of railway employees are as under:—

About 100 schools for European and Anglo-Indian children and 130 schools for Indian children are maintained at suitable centres and the total number of pupils on the rolls is about 5,000 and 16,000 respectively. The total expenditure from revenue on the European and Anglo-Indian schools is Rs. 4 lakhs per annum and on the Indian schools Rs. 1.4 lakhs. The Railway Department also aids certain schools for children of railway employees. The total number of children in railway aided schools is about 4,000 (European and Anglo-Indian) and 8,000 (Indian) and the total annual grants made by the Railway are about Rs. 50,000 to each group. The Railway Department also gives direct financial assistance to its employees towards the education of their children in certain hill schools. The total expenditure on this account in 1927 28 was Rs. 3.5 lakhs for Europeans and Anglo-Indians and Rs. 28-8 thousands for Indians.

Facilities are also afforded by the grant of passes and concession tickets to enable the children to attend schools.

The present methods of assistance have recently evoked public criticism on the score of their being more favourable to European and Anglo-Indian employees than to the Indian and with a view to eliminating all trace of racial discrimination the Railway Board placed Mr. C. E. W. Jones, C.I.E., I.E.S., on special duty in 1927 with instructions to collect all facts and figures regarding the assistance given by railways for the education of the children of their employees. On a consideration of Mr. Jones' report the Board have now formulated their future policy on the following lines:—

All railway schools would be transferred to local authorities or private bodies, special grants being given out of railway funds where necessary. The assistance given by the Railway Department would be confined to employees who draw pay below a prescribed maximum and to parents who are obliged to send their children to boarding schools. The assistance would take he form of grants to the employees of a fixed proportion not exceeding one-half of the board and tuition fees, the proportion depending upon the pay drawn by the parent and falling with the increase in pay. The assistance would be open to all employees without distinction of community, race or creed.

Several company managed railways have also signified their willingness to adopt a similar policy. But the question is still receiving further consideration because of the representations received in connexion with the scheme.

Co-operation.—The Railway Administration have noticed that heavy indebtedness degrades the employee and impairs his efficiency and they have therefore encouraged the formation of co-operative credit societies and co-operative stores for all grades of employees.

Co-operative Credit Societies have been formed on all railways and are managed by committees generally elected from among the shareholders. But in some cases, the heads of the departments are required to be the chairmen of the committees and they have power to nominate some of the members of the committee.

WAGES.

It was in 1873 that one of the earliest attempts to collect wage statistics in India was made by issuing instructions to District Officers to submit half yearly returns showing the average monthly wages of certain classes of skilled and unskilled labour. The returns thus collected were utilized for compiling a series of comparable statistics of wages for selected Districts in each Province and these statistics were published in the publication "Prices and Wages" issued annually by the Director-General of Commercial Intelligence and Statistics. A reference, however, to Mr. Dutt's Report on an Enquiry into Rise of Prices in India would show that these statistics were found to be wholly unreliable and consequently these half yearly returns from District Officers have been discontinued since 1910. In their place a quinquennial wage census was adopted in all Provinces, except in the Central Provinces where an annual return was obtained from District Officers. The first quinquennial wage census was held in 1911-12 and the second in 1916-17. The statistics regarding wages continued to be published in "Prices and Wages" which gave the results of the quinquennial wage censuses in respect of a few urban and rural occupations. As the statistics were still far from satisfactory the third wage census, which was due in 1921-22, was abandoned except in Madras and the Punjab. In 1921 an attempt was made by the Government of India to hold an All-India census of industrial wages with the active and voluntary co-operation of employers, but nothing could be done partly because a number of employers either failed to submit returns or submitted incomplete returns and partly because neither the Central nor the Local Governments were able to provide the staff required for the purpose owing to financial stringency. The annual issues of Prices and Wages were also suspended in 1923 as a result of retrenchment and no regular official wage statistics are now published for British India as a whole.

In the United Provinces a scheme for a census of Industrial Wages to be taken along with the regular census was considered but was not carried through. A periodical survey of wages has been carried out every five years since 1912 in the Punjab. These surveys deal with the wages of certain classes of workers in three principal towns, in selected villages unaffected by urban conditions, and at certain Railway stations to secure a means of comparison with rural wages in the same neighbourhood. Beyond the figures of average monthly wages of certain classes of labour submitted by factories in all Provinces every year for inclusion in the annual Reports on the Administration of the Indian Factories Act, no regular and detailed statistics of industrial wages are available. In Madras quinquennial wages censuses have been conducted since 1908 showing the average wages of certain artisans (as well as farm servants employed in agricultural labour) in respect of homogeneous tracts and districts. These censuses, however, only relate to rural and urban wages and not to industrial wages. A thorough investigation of the conditions of labour, and particularly the rates of wages on tea estates in Assam, was made in 1921-22 by a Committee appointed by the Government of that Province. The Labour Office of the Government of Bombay conducted three enquiries into the wages of workers in the cotton mills in the Bombay Presidency in 1921, 1923 and 1926 respectively. Apart from these enquiries, the Labour Office has also conducted enquiries into (1) Wages of peons in Bombay, (2) Agricultural Wages, (3) Wages of Municipal workers, (4) Clerical Wages in Bombay City and (5) Wages of Printing Press Workers in selected Printing Presses in Bombay City. The results of all these enquiries have been published either in the form of special Reports or in the "Labour Gazette."

The Government of Bombay have now launched a general wage Census which is intended to cover in about two years, all factories, transport workers, workers in docks, municipalities and building trades, etc. The first part of the Census will be held for the month of May 1934 and will cover every perennial factory in the Bombay Presidency. The enquiry is to be conducted on the basis of the muster roll and essential information regarding the number of days worked during a pay period by each worker, his rate of wages and his earnings will be called for. Seasonal factories will be covered for one month of intensive working during the winter of 1934-35 and all non-factory industries and organisations will be covered between March and December next year. To the best of the knowledge of the Labour Office no other country in the world has attempted an enquiry into wages on such a gigantic scale and the results of the Census will be of a far reaching character.

WAGE RATES.

Agriculture.—Whether wages paid to agricultural labour in India have kept pace with the increase in the cost of living is, for several reasons, a very difficult question to answer. Firstly conditions vary so markedly between province and province that it is almost impossible to obtain accurate and comparable figures of wages for different classes of agricultural labour. Secondly there exists a variety of methods adopted for remunerating the workers engaged in different agricultural areas in India. For example, in the Punjab, there are four forms of wages, such as (*a*) purely cash wages, (*b*) cash wages with supplements which may consist of food, tobacco, lodging, bedding, clothing, etc., (*c*) purely grain wages, and (*d*) wages other than in cash or grain. In the Punjab the results of the last quinquennial wages survey which was held in December 1927 show that the following were the average daily wages of the three important classes of agricultural labour in rural areas in the Punjab :—

Carpenters ..	.. 16 to 32 annas a day.
Masons	.. 16 to 38 annas a day.
Unskilled labourers	.. 5½ to 16½ annas day.

As regards the last occupation it may be pointed out that the most frequent wage was between 7½ to 8½ annas. The Labour Office of the Government of Bombay published a Report in 1924 of an Enquiry into Wages in Agriculture which gave the average daily earnings of three classes of agricultural labour, *viz.*, skilled labour, ordinary labour and field labour in each of the 26 districts of the Bombay Presidency separately for urban areas and rural areas for each of 23 years from 1900 to 1922. The figures for each year from 1923 to 1932 have been published in the Bombay Administration Reports. The wages prevailing in other provinces for similar types of labour do not compare very unfavourably with wages in the Bombay Presidency for any particular year for which a comparison is made. This statement requires an important qualification. It is not meant that the money amounts actually paid are similar. The rates of wages in different provinces vary according to the extent of their industrialisation and money wages in provinces which are mainly agricultural are on a lower level than the money wages in Provinces which are highly industrialised such as Bombay and Bengal. There is no doubt whatever that wages considerably improved in all parts of India between 1918 and 1925. Taking the Bombay Presidency as a whole the downward tendency in the level of wages which set in 1925 and continued up to the end of 1927 was checked during the year 1928 during which period wages of all classes of agricultural labour, except field labour in urban areas and ordinary labour in rural areas, either remained stationary or showed a definite upward tendency, but there has been a sharp fall in agricultural wage rates during the last three years.

Comparison of conditions in India to-day with the pre-war year shows that during this particular period the condition of the Indian labourer has undoubtedly improved. This is amply proved by the figures given below showing the index numbers of daily average wages of skilled labourers, ordinary labourers and field labourers for urban areas and for rural areas for the Bombay Presidency.

AGRICULTURAL WAGES (NOMINAL).

Index Numbers for the Bombay Presidency (including Sind) 1913 - 100.

Year.	Urban areas.			Rural Areas.		
	Field Labour.	Ordinary Labour.	Skilled Labour.	Field Labour.	Ordinary Labour.	Skilled Labour.
1922	189	192	195	170	162	179
1923	200	200	196	171	171	187
1924	195	196	209	176	181	191
1925	221	208	224	206	181	211
1926	221	204	216	198	181	215
1927	200	192	211	176	176	206
1928	191	192	212	186	175	210
1929	188	193	206	180	179	213
1930	174	179	198	171	173	205
1931	153	157	185	139	143	172
1932	144	151	180	131	135	165

The Cotton Textile Industry.—The most important centres of the cotton textile industry in India are situated in the Bombay Presidency. The main sources of information as regards the wages paid in this industry are the Reports of three Enquiries conducted by the Labour Office of the Government of Bombay, into Wages and Hours of Labour in the Cotton Mill Industry in the Bombay Presidency.

It is claimed that the 1926 Enquiry as compared with the previous two Enquiries, was more satisfactory in its method, more detailed in its scope and more accurate and reliable in its results as the information collected related to each individual worker and not to groups of workers in each occupation as was the case in the previous Enquiries. The results of this Enquiry give among other things, figures for average daily earnings of all occupations of cotton mill operatives, average monthly earnings for operatives covered in Bombay and Sholapur, the average number of days worked, the number of operatives working 'Full time' *i.e.*, working on all the working days during the Census month, the average earnings of those working full time frequency of attendance for the mills in Bombay the percentage absenteeism by departments and details regarding amounts of bonuses secured by the workers.

Wages in the Bombay and the Sholapur mills are paid monthly irrespective of the fact whether they are based on time rates or piece rates or fixed on a daily or a monthly basis or in any other manner. While in the case of the Ahmedabad mills wages are paid fortnightly or by 'haptas' referring to a period generally of 14 days for piece workers and to a period of 16 days for time workers. Wage periods of a week or 'haptas' of 8 days are also to be found.

Different systems are adopted at these three centres with regard to the methods of calculating wages. In the case of the mills in Bombay City there is first a "basic" rate to which was added a dearness allowance of 80 per cent. for male piece workers and 70 per cent. for male time workers and all female workers. Those mills which grant a good attendance bonus add the amount of the bonus granted, to the gross wage from which are deducted any fines that might be inflicted before arriving at the net wages payable. The term 'basic' in the case of the Bombay mills may be generally considered to apply to the pre-war year although in the case of some individual mills it might apply to any year between 1913 and 1918 in which year the first increase of 15 per cent. was granted as dearness allowance. This was increased to 35 per cent. on the 1st January 1919. The next increase granted on 1st February 1920 was 20 per cent. extra to male workers on time rates and to female workers both on time and piece rates, and 40 per cent. extra to male operatives on piece rates—the total percentages amounting to 55 and 75 respectively. On the 1st November 1920 the 55 per cent. was raised to 70 per cent. and the 75 per cent. to 80 per cent. During the year 1932 most of the working Mills in Bombay have reduced wages by effecting cuts in these allowances. There has been no uniformity in the matter and although in some mills allowance of 60 per cent. are granted these allowances in other mills have been reduced to 25 per cent. or less. The weighted average cut for the whole industry in Bombay amount to about 18 per cent.

In the Ahmedabad mills there is a complete lack of uniformity in the methods adopted for calculating the different additions and deductions before arriving at the final earnings. In Ahmedabad, the millowners and the local Labour Union have been recently engaged in examining a proposl by the owners to reduce wages by 25 per cent. but at the moment of writing no final decision has been reached in the matter although the question was considered by the Permanent Arbitration Board consisting of Seth Chamanlal Parekh and Mr. M. K. Gandhi.

The methods of calculating wages in Sholapur are different from those in Bombay and Ahmedabad. There are five items which go to make the full wage of an operative. These items are (1) the basic rate, (2) dearness allowance which is 35 per cent. in the case of all female workers and all male time workers and 40 per cent. in the case of all male piece workers, (3) the number of grace days granted for which payment is made, (4) bonus, and (5) the benefit derived for the grain concession. The Sholapur Millowners decided to reduce wages by 12½ per cent. with effect from 1st January but the proposal was met by a violent strike which at the moment of writing still continues.

The following table gives the average daily earnings by centres for all adult made operatives, all adult female operatives, all children and all adult operatives, covered by the 1926 Enquiry (*the averages for Bombay should, in all cases, be reduced by about* 18 *per cent. and those for Sholapur by* 12½ *per cent.*)

Centre.	Average daily earnings for.			
	Men.	Women.	Children	All adults.
	Rs.a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs.a. p.
Bombay ..	1 8 0	0 11 11	..	1 5 3
Ahmedabad.	1 6 8	0 12 6	0 5 6	1 4 8
Sholapur .	1 0 5	0 6 8	0 4 0	0 14 8

The average monthly earnings of all workers in mills selected for the 1926 Enquiry at Bombay and Sholapur in the month of July 1926 in each age and sex group were as follows:—

Sex and Age group.	Centre.	
	Bombay.	Sholapur.
	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.
Men	37 10 2	23 15 5
Women ..	17 12 4	9 15 7
Children ..	..	5 10 4
All adults ..	32 14 0	21 7 9

The following table shows by centres for each sex and age group the average monthly earnings of all operatives who worked on all the working days in the census months for Bombay and Sholapur and for Ahmedabad. The figures for Ahmedabad were arrived at by multiplying the average daily earnings by 27.

Average monthly earnings of Full Time Workers.

Sex and Age group.	Centre.		
	Bombay.	Ahmedabad.	Sholapur.
	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.
Men	44 3 6	38 8 6	26 10 2
Women ..	20 4 6	20 15 3	11 6 7
Children ..	..	9 4 6	6 13 10
All adults ..	40 4 6	35 0 3	24 1 6

Occupations.	Average Daily Earnings in Bombay July 1926.	Ahmedabad May 1926.	Sholapur July 1926.
Men.	Rs.a. p.	Rs.a. p	Rs.a. p.
Head Jobbers ..	3 15 4	3 1 8	2 13 5
Other Jobbers ..	2 4 0	1 11 9	1 12 1
Mixing Nawghanies .	1 2 2	0 14 7	0 12 5
Drawing Frame Tenters	1 4 8	1 1 3	0 12 4
Slubbing Frame Tenters	1 6 3	1 3 0	0 13 3
Inter Frame Tenters.	1 4 6	1 0 11	0 12 9
Roving Frame Tenters	1 3 8	1 0 4	0 11 4
Ring Siders	1 0 3	0 15 2	0 11 5
Ring Doffers ..	0 12 1	0 10 7	0 8 1
Winders	0 14 10	0 13 3	0 7 10
Warpers	2 1 9	2 1 7	1 12 8
Creelers	0 13 2	0 10 7	0 9 8
Front Sizers ..	3 1 8	1 13 7	1 9 9
Back Sizers	1 9 9	0 15 9	1 0 8
Two Loom Weavers.	1 13 4	1 13 5	1 9 9
All Weavers ..	1 13 11	1 14 1	1 5 11
Front Folders ..	0 15 9	0 15 9	0 11 10
Back Folders ..	0 15 0	0 15 1	0 11 1
Sarangs	2 1 10	1 5 10	1 14 4
Engine Drivers ..	4 3 10	1 11 1	3 11 5
Firemen	1 5 4	1 7 1	1 3 9

Occupations.	Average Daily Earnings in Bombay July 1926.	Ahmedabad May 1926.	Sholapur July 1926.
Men.	Rs.a. p.	Rs.a. p.	Rs.a. p.
Turners	2 13 2	2 6 7	1 8 2
Blacksmiths ..	2 10 6	2 5 3	2 0 0
Tinsmiths	2 9 2	2 2 0	1 11 2
Masons	2 1 0	2 5 4	1 5 6
Moulders	2 12 4	2 2 7	2 3 9
Assistant Moulders ..	2 3 10	1 4 1	0 10 4
Carpenters	2 7 5	2 9 2	1 10 11
Fitters	2 15 4	2 10 1	2 6 9
Assistant Fitters ..	1 9 4	1 6 6	1 3 3
Oilers	1 2 6	1 2 7	0 13 11
Mochies	1 2 0	1 9 7	0 12 1
Coolies	0 15 11	0 14 1	0 11 3
Sweepers	0 13 6	0 13 3	0 10 8
Women.			
Waste pickers ..	0 8 8	0 8 5	0 4 10
Ring Siders	0 15 2	0 15 1	0 11 0
Ring Doffers ..	0 11 5	0 10 5	0 7 10
Winders	0 12 10	0 12 7	0 6 4
Reelers	0 10 11	0 14 5	0 6 9
Coolies	0 9 6	0 9 9	0 6 7
Sweepers	0 8 8	0 9 2	0 5 9

The available information in connexion with cotton mill workers in other provinces is reproduced below.

Occupation.	Central Provinces. Range of wages per month (in one mill).	Bengal. Range of wages per month.	Punjab. Average wage per month.	Madras. Average daily earnings.
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.
Spinner Piecer	15 to 24	15–12–0 to 28–8–0	27 0 0	0 9 9
Weaver	22 to 50	40	38 0 0	0 15 11
Dyer	15 to 26	..	23 0 0	
Doffer	14 to 15	16–8–0 to 23		
Frame Tenter	20 to 29	15–4–0 to 23–8–0		
Reelers (women)	10 to 17	12 to 14	22 0 0	
Warper	21 to 38	....	....	....
Sizer	20 to 39	....	....	....
Finisher	17 to 32	....	....	....
Blacksmiths	62 to 92	34 to 43	....	....
Turners	62 to 92	31 to 50	....	....
Carpenters	39 to 62	22	....	....
Fitters	62 to 122	33 to 46	....	....

Jute Industry.

The jute industry holds the premier position amongst the industries in the Benga Presidency. The following table gives the average monthly wages of some important occupations in a jute mill. The figures are not the exact averages of wages of the total number of employees in the industry. They are averages obtained from the actual payments made in some representative mills.

Department.	Designation.	Average monthly wages.	
		Multiple shift.	Single shift.
	Men.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.
Roving Machines	Rovers	12 15 0	14 7 0
	Shifters	12 6 0	14 2 0
Spinning Frames	Warp spinners	13 4 0	16 14 0
	Weft spinners	16 0 0	17 10 0
Winding	Bobbin cleaners	10 0 0	11 0 0
	Warp winders (piece workers) ..	21 6 0	23 0 0
Weaving	Weft ,, (,, ,,) ..	26 8 0	28 2 0
	Hessian weavers (,, ,,) ..	28 3 0	31 0 0
Dressing and Beaming	Sacking weavers (piece-workers) .	29 5 0	32 1 0
	Beamers and dressers	28 8 0	32 0 0
Sack sewing workers Sewing machine	Machine sewers (piece)	21 11 0	25 10 0
Engineering Section Engine Staff.	Oilers	19 0 0	22 8 0
	Firemen	28 1 0	30 2 0
Workshop hands—	Mason	34 0 0	34 0 0
Machine shop fitting	Carpenters (Chinese)	85 0 0	93 5 0
	Carpenters (Indian)	30 0 0	33 2 0
Tin Smithy	Turners (Metal)	40 0 0	40 0 0
	Tin Smith	30 0 0	30 0 0
Blacksmith shop	Blacksmith	36 0 0	36 0 0
	Women.		
Batching Softners	Feeders	11 12 0	13 5 0
	Receivers	11 8 0	13 5 0
Teasers	Feeders	9 6 0	12 9 0
Preparing Breaker Carding Machines	Feeders	9 8 0	11 13 0
	Receivers	9 0 0	11 2 0
Finishing Carding Machines ..	Feeders	10 6 0	11 7 0
	Receivers	9 7 0	11 0 0
Drawing machines	Feeders	10 0 0	11 2 0
	Receivers	10 0 0	11 2 0
Roving machines	Feeders	10 6 0	11 6 0
	Sweepers	9 6 0	11 2 0
Twist Frames	Twisters	13 8 0	14 15 0
Weaving	Sweepers	12 1 0	12 10 0
Sack Sewing	Hand Sewers	18 5 0	14 11 0

It will be seen from the above table that there is an appreciable monetary advantage to workers in the single-shift system.

Wages in Mines.

The tables given below show the daily earnings in the month of December for each of the two years 1931 and 1932 for workers in the main occupations in coalfields and the other important mines in British India.

Daily earnings of underground workers in important coalfields in British India.

I

Coalfields.	Over men & Sirdars Foremen & Mates.		Miners.		Loaders.	
	1931.	1932.	1931.	1932.	1931.	1932.
	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. p. a.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.
Jharia (Bihar & Orissa).	1 5 0	1 3 0	0 11 6	0 9 9	0 11 6	0 8 6
Raniganj (Bengal) ..	1 1 3	1 0 6	0 11 0	0 9 3	0 9 6	0 8 0
Giridih (Bihar & Orissa).	1 8 0	1 7 9	0 12 6	0 9 9	0 10 9	0 7 0
Assam	1 9 3	1 7 0	1 8 3	1 4 9	1 2 6	1 1 6
Punjab	1 0 9	0 14 0	0 12 6	0 12 6	0 11 6	0 14 9
Baluchistan	1 11 3	1 6 9	1 0 0	0 13 3	1 1 6	0 13 0
Pench Valley	1 4 6	1 5 6	0 14 6	0 14 0	0 7 9	0 6 9

II

Coalfields.	Skilled Labour.		Unskilled Labour.		Females.	
	1931.	1932.	1931.	1932.	1931.	1932.
	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.
Jharia (Bihar & Orissa) .	0 12 0	0 10 9	0 8 6	0 7 9	0 7 6	0 6 6
Raniganj (Bengal) ..	0 11 6	0 10 9	0 8 3	0 7 6	0 6 6	0 5 9
Giridih (Bihar & Orissa).	0 14 3	0 10 6	0 8 0	0 8 6	0 7 6	0 5 9
Assam	1 2 6	1 2 0	0 15 6	0 15 0	..	.....
Punjab	0 10 3	0 11 6	0 8 0	0 7 0	..	.....
Baluchistan	1 4 6	0 12 6	..	1 0 0	..	.....
Pench Valley	0 10 0	0 10 6	0 7 6	0 6 9	0 7 3	0 6 9

Daily Earnings of Workers engaged on "Open Workings" in Important Coalfields in British India.

I

Coalfields.	Over Men and Sirdars Foremen and Mates.		Miners.		Loaders.	
	1931.	1932.	1931.	1932.	1931.	1932.
	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.
Jharia (Bihar & Orissa).	1 0 6	0 14 9	0 12 0	0 8 6	0 9 3	0 7 9
Raniganj (Bengal) ..	0 15 3	0 12 9	0 7 9	0 6 0	0 5 9	0 5 6
Giridih (Bihar & Orissa).	1 0 0	0 13 6	0 11 0	0 8 0	0 9 0	0 5 0
Assam	..	.....	..	.....	..	.....
Punjab	..	0 11 9	..	.....	..	.....
Baluchistan	1 0 0	.....	0 10 0	.....	0 10 0	.....
Pench Valley	..	.....	..	.....	..	.....

II

Coalfields.	Skilled Labour.		Unskilled Labour.		Females.	
	1931.	1932.	1931.	1932.	1931.	1932.
	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.
Jharia (Bihar & Orissa).	0 11 0	0 10 0	0 9 0	0 7 9	0 8 0	0 7 0
Ramganj (Bengal) ..	0 8 0	0 6 0	0 8 0	0 5 0	0 5 0	0 4 0
Giridh (Bihar & Orissa).	..	..	..	0 6 6	0 6 0	0 5 0
Assam	..	..	..	..	..	..
Punjab	..	..	..	0 6 9	..	..
Baluchistan	..	..	..	..	..	..
Pench Valley (C. P.) ..	..	..	..	..	..	..

Daily Earnings of Labourers working on Surface in important Coalfields in British India.

Coalfields.	Skilled Labour.		Unskilled Labour.		Females.	
	1931.	1932.	1931.	1932.	1931.	1932.
	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.
Jharia (Bihar & Orissa).	0 11 9	0 10 9	0 8 3	0 7 0	0 6 3	0 5 3
Ramganj..	0 10 9	0 9 9	0 7 9	0 7 3	0 5 3	0 4 9
Giridh (Bihar & Orissa).	0 13 0	0 11 9	0 7 8	0 8 0	0 5 6	0 5 3
Assam	1 0 0	1 0 0	0 12 3	0 11 9	0 8 0	0 8 0
Punjab	0 11 3	0 14 0	0 8 9	0 9 3	0 5 3	0 4 3
Baluchistan	..	0 13 9	..	1 0 0	..	..
Pench Valley (C. P.) ..	0 12 9	0 12 9	0 8 9	0 6 9	0 5 9	0 5 0

Gins and Presses.

The male coolies in the gin factories in Madras and the Punjab earn on an average annas 8 per day while the female coolies get only as. 5-1 and as. 6 respectively. In the Central Provinces the average daily earnings of male and female coolies are as. 10-2 and as. 5-10 respectively.

The average daily wages of female press coolies in Madras and the Central Provinces amount to annas 5-10 while those of male coolies amount to annas 9-6 and annas 13-10 respectively.

The Plantations.—Labour in the tea gardens in Assam is paid on a piece-work basis. In addition to the standard daily task which the worker must execute in order to earn his wages (called *Harira*) the labourer is given an opportunity at certain seasons to supplement his earnings by the performance of a second task the payment for which is known as *ticca*. In some cases where it is impracticable to prescribe a definite task as in leaf plucking at the beginning and the end of the season payment is made by time. A distinctive feature of work in the gardens is that the labourer usually brings his family with him and the wife and sometimes the children are also wage earners. The joint earnings of a family must always be taken into consideration. The average family of a labourer

has been calculated as consisting of one working man, one working woman, about three-tenths of a working child and non-working child and about two-tenths of an adult non-working dependant. The following table gives the average monthly earnings of the labourers in the tea gardens in Assam:

Table showing the average family monthly earnings in the tea gardens in Assam calculated on the average daily strength in 1914, 1922 *and* 1928.

District.	1914.	1922.	1928.
	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.
Darrang Sadr ..	14 14 10	18 15 8	24 13 5
Mangaldai ..	15 11 5	18 15 4	28 4 2
Nowgong ..	16 11 9	18 8 10	23 2 7
Jorhat	15 7 7	18 0 11	23 4 4
Sibsagar	15 15 11	20 1 0	24 12 1
Golaghat ..	14 0 11	17 7 4	22 0 5
Lakhimpur Sadr .	18 2 4	21 15 2	30 11 3
North Lakimpur .	15 13 10	20 4 3	24 4 2
Cachar Sadr ..	13 13 6	15 0 4	19 2 8
Halla Kandi ..	13 11 7	15 8 10	19 10 8
North Sylhet ..	13 0 4	14 2 10	20 11 7
Karimganj ..	13 7 7	15 14 1	19 11 4
South Sylhet ..	13 15 0	15 13 8	21 7 11
Habibganj ..	14 12 1	16 8 9	21 5 6

Periods of Wage Payment.—There is a complete absence of uniformity as regards the periods for which payments of wages are made in the various important branches of organised industry in India. In scarcely any industry is there a single period of wage payment. Different systems are found in establishments belonging to the same industry and in the same district and within the same establishment different classes of workers are frequently paid for different periods. The month, the fortnight and the week are generally the periods of wage payment in Cement and Brick Works, Cotton Ginning and Pressing Factories, Flour Mills and Engineering Works. Monthly payment of wages is mainly adopted for workers in Printing Presses, Municipalities, Tramways and Railways. In the Cotton Mill Industry wages are calculated on a monthly basis in all the mills outside Ahmedabad. In the case of the Ahmedabad mills, wages of process operatives are calculated on a fortnightly basis and of workers in the maintenance department on a monthly basis.

In mines, tea gardens and rice mills the predominant periods of wage payment are a month and a week. In jute mills wages are calculated per week. Wages are calculated on both the monthly and the fortnightly basis in the Iron and Steel Industry, Sugar Mills and in Tanneries. The system of monthly payment appears to be universal in its application to supervisory and clerical staffs engaged in all different industrial establishments, while the most general system in the case of casual labour is of a daily payment of wages.

Periods elapsing before payment.—The "waiting period" or the time which elapses between the end of the period for which wages are earned and the date of payment varies considerably from industry to industry and from establishment to establishment in the same industry. It may be generally stated that the longer the wage period the more delayed is the payment of wages. Monthly wages are not paid so promptly as fortnightly wages, weekly wages are withheld for still shorter periods and daily wages of casual labour are nearly always paid on the day on which they are earned or on the following day. Speaking generally the average period of waiting may be considered to be 10 to 20 days in the case of monthly payments, 5 to 7 days for fortnightly payments, and 2 to 4 days in the case of weekly payments. Another factor which affects the period of waiting is the method of payments. Where workers are paid on piece rates, intricate calculations are required to ascertain the amount due, and consequently piece rate wages cannot be paid so promptly as wages of workers on fixed time rates of pay.

Indebtedness prevails to a very great extent among the labourers, but no reliable figures are available except those for the Bombay Presidency which were collected by the Bombay Labour Office during its enquiries into the workers' family budgets for different centres. From the statistics of the Empress Mills the percentage of labourers indebted appears to be more than 50. Though exact figures for the Punjab are not available it is reported that the volume of indebtedness amongst the agriculturists is greater than anywhere else in India. As regards urban and industrial labourers it may safely be assumed that a greater majority are in debt to their food suppliers. In Madras the indebtedness of the worker is heavy especially in the case of plantations where it is reported that 75 per cent. of the wages of the labourers are taken away by money lenders on pay days. The mine managers of the Jharia coalfields in Bihar and Orissa generally put this figure at one week's wages. It is also stated that the extent of indebtedness varies with caste and social custom. In Bombay City, interest on debts forms nearly three per cent. of the total monthly expenditure. Of the families considered for the Labour Office enquiry no fewer than 47 per cent. were in debt. The extent of the indebtedness of the family in debt is ordinarily the equivalent of two and a half months' earnings. The extremes were 14 months' and one-third of a month's earnings respectively. As regards single men, for whom 603 budgets were collected, 45 per cent. were in debt, the average expenditure on interest being as. 12-3 and the average expenditure on interest for those in debt being

1-11-2 per month. Enquiries for the Bombay Port Trust workers showed that over 80 per cent. of the families considered were found to be in debt. In the majority of cases the amount of debt varied from a month's income to four months' income. In Ahmedabad during 1926 about 69 per cent. of the families were in debt. The amount of debt varied from a few rupees to many times the monthly income. According to an enquiry made by the Labour Office in the year 1925 into the family budgets of cotton mill workers in Sholapur City, 63 per cent. of the cotton mill workers' families in Sholapur were in debt, the extent of which varied from less than a month's income to many times the monthly income. In 49 per cent. of cases, however, a family's debt was equal to between one and four months' of its income.

Bonus and Profit Sharing Schemes.—"The successful working of a profit sharing scheme pre-supposes the realisation by the worker of an identity between the various interests engaged in the concern and a conscientious effort on their part to do their best for its maximum success. The employers of labour do not feel that labour conditions in India are such as to justify the hope that this high ideal of co-operation will be realised in a substantial measure in practice." The only solitary concerns in which profit sharing schemes have been tried are the Tata Iron and Steel Company, and in the Buckingham and the Carnatic Mills. In 1928 the Tata Iron and Steel Company introduced a scheme under which a monthly bonus based on production is paid to all men drawing less than Rs. 300 per mensem or Rs. 10 per day, whose work contributes to the production obtained and who have been in the Company's service for at least six months. In the Buckingham and the Carnatic Mills a bonus is paid to the workmen on a basis relative to the dividend declared.

Bonuses are paid for a variety of reasons. Some concerns grant bonus for regular attendances and for economical utilization of material. In some collieries in Bihar and Orissa a worker is paid a sort of bonus for working six days a week. A bonus is also being granted for raising and loading extra tubs. The Tata Iron and Steel Company grant bonuses; (1) for general production, (2) for departmental output, and (3) regular attendance. This is paid to all employees drawing less than as. 8 per day. The Company has also introduced a 'Jack pot scheme.' The idea of this scheme is that if 50 men are required to perform certain duties connected with the operation of any unit and the full force is not present, the wages which would have been payable to the absentees are distributed amongst those present.

The system of paying bonus in addition to a cash wage either for better work or for better attendance used to obtain in several industrial concerns in the Bombay Presidency especially in cotton textile mills but, except in Ahmedabad where bonuses are paid for better attendance and for better efficiency, the majority of the mills which used to pay such bonuses have either consolidated these bonuses with pay or have abolished them altogether. In countries which have no legislation for the control of deductions which may be made from wages on account of fines, the bonus might be regarded as a voluntary gift paid by the employer to the worker who attends regularly without absence or produces work better than specified standards but in countries where 'truck" legislation exists, the bonus easily degenerates into a device whereby an employar tries to get round the Act which lays down percentages of wages beyond which deductions on account of fines shall not be made by dividing the wages into part wages and part bonus. In the Ahmedabad textile mills all weavers who produce 80 to 85 per cent. efficiency on quantity production are paid a bonus of eight annas per loom per fortnight. In this centre all damaged cloth is handed over to the weavers and its cost at whole-sale price is deducted from their wages. In the case of minor defects the weavers are fined. As the total estimated bonus of the deductions made from the Ahmedabad weavers' wages both on account of fines and damaged material handed over amounts to more than Rs. 15 lakhs annually, the efficiency bonus is not so profitable to the worker as it would appear to be. The good attendance bonus also operates very harshly in certain cases. In one mill in Western India, workers earning Rs. 30 or under a month are paid a bonus of 4 annas a week for a complete week's work and a further bonus of eight annas a month for a complete month's work. If a worker loses a day he loses twelve annas and if the day lost be a Saturday preceding a closed day he loses two thirtyones of his monthly wages.

Good attendance and efficiency bonuses are not granted in Government, local board and public utillity concerns.

WAGES ON RAILWAYS.

No information more recent to that for the year 1929 is available regarding wages paid on Indian Railways. In that year every individual system and the Railway Board, in the memoranda of written evidence submitted to the Royal Commission on Indian labour, gave statistics of rates of pay. The following information, therefore relates to the year 1929 but it is understood that all-round reductions have been made on almost all railway systems during the last two or three years.

Owing to the different types of grades of pay which are prevalent on the Railways it is not possible to give particulars for all of them. Scales of pay of some important classes of railway servants on some principal railways have therefore been set out in the tables below. The limits of pay given in the tables, show the minimum of the lower grade and the maximum attainable in the higher grade.

Statement showing scales of pay of important classes of Railway servants other than Workshop employees and Colliery Staff on the principal Railways.

Name of Railway System.	ENGINEERING.		
	Mates.	Gangmen.	Trolleymen.
North-Western Railway ..	Rs. a. to Rs. a. 20 0 to 34 0	Rs. a. to Rs. a. 13 0 to 22 0	Rs. a. to Rs. a. 15 0 to 24 0
East Indian Railway ..	13 0 to 39 0	12 0 to 16 0	12 0 to 16 0
Eastern Bengal Railway ..	20 0 to 52 0 *	13 0 to 18 0	13 0 to 18 0
G. I. P. Railway	12 6 to 37 0	9 0 to 26 0	11 0 to 24 0
B. B. & C. I. Railway (Broad-gauge)	14 0 to 37 0	12 0 to 26 0	12 0 to 27 0
Bengal Nagpur Railway ..	15 0 to 34 0	10 0 to 17 0	18 0 to 25 0
Rohilkhand and Kumaon Railway	11 0 to 19 6	9 6 to 15 6	11 0 0
M. & S. M. Railway ..	13 6 to 30 0	10 6 to 22 0	10 6 to 15 0
South Indian Railway ..	14 0 to 25 0	12 0 to 15 0	12 0 to 15 0
Assam Bengal Railway ..	20 0 to 30 0	14 0 to 16 0	14 0 to 16 0

* Per day Senior mates only are in the grade of Rs. 37-3-52.

Name of Railway System.	TRAFFIC.		
	Station Masters.	Guards.	Signallers.
North Western Railway. ..	Rs. a. to Rs. a. 45 0 to 500 0	Rs. a. to Rs. a. 30 0 to 210 0	Rs. a. to Rs. a. 33 0 to 190 0
East Indian Railway ..	52 0 to 500 0	30 0 to 180 0	30 0 to 200 0
Eastern Bengal Railway ..	40 0 to 350 0	45 0 to 210 0	30 0 to 170 0
G. I. P. Railway	50 0 to 395 0	70 0 to 210 0	45 0 to 140 0
B. B. & C. I. Railway (Broad-gauge)	55 0 to 400 0	50 0 to 210 0	60 0 to 70 0
Bengal Nagpur Railway..	52 0 to 500 0	35/40 to 210 0	30 0 to 170 0
Rohilkhand and Kumaon Railway	30 0 to 330 0	20 0 to 150 0	15 0 to 30 0
M. & S. M. Railway	40 0 to 425 0	40 0 to 170 0	25 0 to 110 0
South Indian Railway ..	30 0 to 325 0	25 0 to 120 0	25 0 to 95 0
Assam Bengal Railway ..	40 0 to 450 0	40 0 to 200 0	20 0 to 100 0

Name of Railway System.	TRAFFIC.		MECHANICAL.
	Goods clerks, Booking clerks and Parcel clerks.	Ticket Collectors.	Pointsmen.
North Western Railway ..	Rs. a. to Rs. a. 33 0 to 270 0	Rs. a. to Rs. a. 32 0 to 160 0	Rs. a. to Rs. a. 19 0 to 27 0
East Indian Railway ..	28 0 to 300 0	28 0 to 125 0	12 0 to 18 0
Eastern Bengal Railway ..	34 0 to 145 0	32 0 to 160 0	13 0 to 17 0
Great Indian Peninsula Railway	40 0 to 100 0 *	50 0 to 90 0	15 0 to 18 0
B. B. & C. I. Railway (Broad-gauge)	15 0 to 180 0(2)	55 0 to 190 0	....
Bengal Nagpur Railway ..	50 0 to 250 0(5)	30 0 to 120 0	13 0 to 18 0
Rohilkhand and Kumaon Railway	25 0 to 60 0(2)	18 0 to 40 0(6)	10 0 to 14 0
M. & S. M. Railway.. ..	75 0 to 180 0(2)	25 0 to 80 0	15 0 to 16 8
South Indian Railway ..	25 0 to 125 0(5)	25 0 to 100 0	12 0 to 18 0
Assam Bengal Railway ..	32 0 to 120 0(2)	20 0 to 100 0	12 0 to 16 0

* Parcel Clerks only.
(2) Goods Clerks only, wages are regulated according to local market rate.
(5) Goods and Parcels Clerks.
(6) Maximum of the Maximum scale not given.

Name of Railway System.	MECHANICAL.		
	Cabinmen.	Drivers.	Firemen.
North Western Railway ..	Rs. a. Rs. a. 15 0 to 45 0	Rs. a. Rs. a. 31 0 to 220 0	Rs. a. Rs. a. 0 8½ to 100 0
East Indian Railway ..	....	40 0 to 200 0	15 0 to 50 0
Eastern Bengal Railway ..	....	34 0 to 220 0	13 0 to 90 0
Great Indian Peninsula Railway	65 0 0(1)	72 0 to 310 0	16 4 to 32 8
B.B. & C.I. Railway (Broad-gauge)	....	2 8 to 7 8(3)	0 10 to 1 12(3)
Bengal Nagpur Railway ..	11 0 0	5 0 to 11 0(4)	2 8 to 4 8(4)
Rohilkhand and Kumaon Railway	....	31 0 to 46 0(6)	13 0 to 35 0
M. & S. M. Railway	....	35 0 to 200 0	16 0 to 50 0
South Indian Railway ..	25 0 to 30 0	41 0 to 250 0	21 0 to 88 0
Assam Bengal Railway ..	16 0 to 25 0	75 0 to 263 0 30 0 to 275 0	12 0 to 22 0 14 0 to 60 0

(1) Maximum.
(3) Indians per day.
(4) Europeans per day.
(6) Maximum of the maximum scale not given.

Statement showing scales of pay per day of some important skilled labourers in Workshops.

Name of Railway System.	Fitters.	Moulders.	Welders.
North Western Railway ..	Rs. a. p. Rs. a. p. 0 8 0 to 2 8 0	Rs. a. p. Rs. a. p. 1 0 0 to 2 8 0	Rs. a. p. Rs. a. p. 1 4 0 to 2 8 0
East Indian Railway ..	0 10 0 ,, 2 8 0	0 10 0 ,, 2 4 0	0 10 0 ,, 2 4 0
Eastern Bengal Railway ..	0 10 0 ,, 3 14 0	0 12 3 ,, 3 2 3	0 12 3 ,, 3 2 3
Great Indian Peninsula Railway*	50 0 0 ,, 86 0 0*	44 0 0 ,, 86 0 0*	44 0 0 ,, 89 0 0*
B. B. & C. I. Railway ..	0 8 0 ,, 3 5 0	0 7 0 ,, 3 5 0	0 8 0 ,, 2 9 0
Bengal Nagpur Railway ..	0 12 0 ,, 2 0 0	1 0 0 ,, 2 14 0	1 0 0 ,, 2 0 0
Rohilkhand and Kumaon Railway	0 15 4 ,, 1 14 8	1 4 0	1 0 0
M. & S. M. Railway ..	0 7 0 ,, 5 4 0	0 11 0 to 5 4 0	0 12 0 to 5 4 0
South Indian Railway ..	0 14 0 ,, 2 8 0	0 14 0 ,, 2 8 0	0 14 0 ,, 2 8 0
Assam Bengal Railway ..	0 12 0 ,, 3 0 0	....	1 8 0 ,, 2 8 0

Name of Railway System.	Turners.	Carpenters.	Blacksmiths.
North-Western Railway ..	Rs. a. p. Rs. a. p. 1 1 0 to 2 8 0	Rs. a. p. Rs. a. p. 0 14 0 to 2 8 0	Rs. a. p. Rs. a. p. 1 4 0 to 2 8 0
East Indian Railway ..	0 10 0 ,, 2 4 0	0 10 0 ,, 2 4 0	0 10 0 ,, 2 8 0
Eastern Bengal Railway ..	0 12 3 ,, 3 2 3	0 12 3 ,, 3 2 3	0 12 3 ,, 3 2 3
Great Indian Peninsula Railway*	50 0 0 ,, 89 0 0*	39 0 0 ,, 69 0 0*	44 0 0 ,, 93 0 0*
B. B. & C. I. Railway ..	0 7 0 ,, 3 5 0	0 9 0 ,, 2 11 0	0 9 0 ,, 3 9 0
Bengal Nagpur Railway ..	1 0 0 ,, 2 14 0	1 0 0 ,, 2 14 0	1 0 0 ,, 2 0 0
Rohilkhand and Kumaon Railway	1 4 8	1 7 4	1 7 4
M. & S. M. Railway ..	1 0 0 to 5 4 0	0 8 0 to 4 4 0	0 7 0 to 5 4 0
South Indian Railway ..	0 14 0 ,, 2 8 0	0 11 4 ,, 2 0 0	0 14 0 ,, 2 8 0
Assam Bengal Railway ..	0 12 0 ,, 2 12 0	0 12 0 ,, 3 0 0	1 1 4 ,, 3 0 0

N. B.—These rates are exclusive of Overtime and Piece-work profits.
* The scales of pay for the G. I. P. Railway are per mensem.

The following rates may be taken as representatives of daily wages of workshop employees in important centres.

Centre.	Unskilled.	Semi-skilled.	Ordinary skilled.
	As. p. to As. p.	As. p. to As. p.	As. p. to As. p.
Bombay	14 0 to 16 0	17 0 to 24 0	26 0 to 46 0
Lahore	10 0 „ 12 0	14 0 „ 18 0	14 0 „ 40 0
Lillooah	9 0 „ 11 0	10 0 „ 16 0	12 0 „ 40 0
Lucknow	7 6 „ 10 9	10 0 „ 18 0	16 0 „ 36 0

Besides the usual pay the employees of the railways are granted allowances and perquisites for special work, climatic and local conditions, etc.

Amount sent to villages.—In the absence of a completely urbanised industrial labour force in India, the practice of remitting part of the wages earned by workers in industrial centres to their place of origin appears to be very common. But no authorised or statistical information for a definite period of time is available as regards the amounts sent by workpeople in this manner. If statistics pertaining to this subject were compiled, it would help a good deal in estimating the agrarian contact of Indian industrial workers. In the Central Provinces and Berar 80 per cent. of immigrants from the United Provinces leave their families behind in their villages to look after cultivation. These labourers are reported to be remitting more than 50 per cent. of their income home. The other immigrants in that province from Central India and the Bombay Presidency are said to be sending 25 per cent. of their earnings to their homes. Estimates of amounts sent by money order by the various post offices in the jute mill areas in Bengal are annually published in the reports of the Indian Jute Mills Association. The figure for 1928 comes to Rs. 1,73,57,816-1-2, but it does not purely represent the amounts sent by Jute mill employees only. Labourers from coal mines in Bengal coming from outside the coal fields are reported to send or take home to their villages from 30 to 40 per cent. of their earnings. In the case of the miner in the mining fields of Bihar and Orissa it is roughly estimated that he sends home all his savings which amount to about 8 annas to Re. 1-8-0 per week. Results of a special enquiry made in the case of an important cotton mill at Cawnpore in which wages are paid fortnightly showed that during the particular period of two weeks covered by the enquiry, 3.8 per cent. of the wages received by workmen was remitted by money orders through the office attached to that mill. In the course of its family budget investigation, the Labour Office of the Government of Bombay collected some information regarding remittance of amounts by workers' families. In Bombay City a large number of workers do not maintain an establishment, but live as boarders and though married keep their dependants in their villages. In the case of resident families the average monthly amount remitted comes to Rs. 1-11-1 which constitutes 3.2 per cent. of the family income which is Rs. 52-4-6 per month. In the case of persons living singly in Bombay City, the average monthly remittance comes to Rs. 11-7-1 which constitutes 36.2 per cent. of their monthly income. The labour force in Ahmedabad is not immigrant to the same extent as in Bombay and therefore remittances to dependants is not an important item in the worker's budget. It appears that nearly 7 per cent. of the working class families in Ahmedabad remit money to their dependants living away from them. The average for only those families remitting money comes to Rs. 6-6-9 per month. Sholapur draws its labour force from the immediate neighbourhood and the labour there is not of the same cosmopolitan character as in Bombay. Of the total number of families whose budgets were collected during the family budget enquiry at that centre only 6 per cent. reported that they had to remit money every month to their dependants in villages. The average of the amount remitted by such families comes to Rs. 4-12-7.

Deductions.—Deductions from wages on account of fines and for services rendered by an employer to his workmen is a subject which has been engaging the attention of the Government of India since 1926. In that year, the Government of India requested all local governments to make enquiries, in their respective administrations, as to the extent to which fines and other deductions were being realised by employers in India from their workpeople.

The views of the local governments were also invited on the desirability of taking any action, legislative or otherwise to counter any abuses which might be found to prevail. The Labour Office of the Government of Bombay conducted a very comprehensive enquiry into the subject covering all factories, railways, municipalities, transport services, commercial houses, shops, hotels, etc., and the results were published in the form of a special report. As a result of its investigations that Government came to the conclusion that fining was an abuse grave enough to require legislation for its control and recommended accordingly. The subject was again examined in 1928-29 by the Bombay Strike Enquiry Committee (The Fawcett Committee) in connexion with the standardised rules put up by the employers and the demands put up by the workers during the prolonged general strike in the cotton mills in Bombay City in 1928. The Committee recommended *inter alia*, that deductions from wages on account of fines should not exceed two per cent. of an operative's earnings during a particular pay period. The Millowners' Association, Bombay, accepted this recommendation and it is very noteworthy that almost all textile mills in Bombay which are affiliated to the Association have limited their monetary punishments within this limit. There is, however, no control on fining in textile mills in Ahmedabad. In that centre the work of 'cutlooking' or scrutinising manufactured cloth is often entrusted to contractors who often pay a lump sum every year to the mills for this privilege. Commissions varying from six annas to twelve annas in the rupee on all fines inflicted is paid by the mill to the contractor. The system is also closely linked up with that of handing over damaged cloth to the worker concerned and deducting its value at cost or wholesale price from the worker's wages. The cutlooker also receive commissions on the value of the cloth handed over. It is estimated that these deductions in the Ahmedabad cotton mills amount to nearly if not more than fifteen lakhs of rupees every year. The matter is a grave abuse and a scandal which calls for immediate legislative action. The action already taken by the Government of India in implementing the recommendations of the Royal Commission on Indian labour on the subject have already been dealt with elsewhere in this section.

The Royal Commission on Indian Labour have made several important recommendations in connexion with the income of industrial workers and the question of their indebtedness. In discussing the possible application to India of the minimum wage Convention adopted at the 1928 session of the International Labour Conference, the Commission are of opinion that the convention, "in referring to trades in which wages are exceptionally low, must be regarded as having in view trades in which wages are low, not by comparison with western or other foreign standards but by comparison with the general trend of wages and wage levels in kindred occupations in the country concerned." If the principle of the minimum wage is to be applied to India, they consider that it would first be necessary to create machinery for fixing minimum rates of wages in those trades in which wages are lowest and where there is no question of collective bargaining. The industries indicated for a careful study of conditions are mica, wool cleaning, shellac, bidi (the indigenous cigarette) manufacturing, carpet weaving and tanneries and those in which there is a strong presumption that the conditions warrant detailed investigation. Full information *re.* wages and conditions should be collected and if the surveys indicate 'Sweating' the trades should be demarcated and the number and the composition of wage Boards should be decided. In the setting up of wage boards important criteria for consideration should be the cost of enforcement; and a policy of gradualness should not be lost sight of. If the investigations appear to warrant minimum wage fixing machinery, the necessary legislation for setting up such machinery should be undertaken. These recommendations are under the consideration of the various Provincial Governments and the Government of Bombay have already initiated a general wage census to be completed in about two years in order to collect all possible information on the subject of wages in all types of industrial concerns in the Bombay Presidency.

COST OF LIVING AND STANDARD OF LIFE.

The publication of a cost of living index with a pre-war base for the working classes in Bombay City was started in the *Labour Gazette* from September 1921 and the scope and method of its compilation are described in the issues of the *Labour Gazette* for September 1921, September 1923 and April 1929. The index number is based on what is known as the aggregate expenditure method and includes in all 24 items representing food, fuel and lighting, clothing and rent. The table below gives the Bombay working class cost of living index numbers month by month from January 1918.

Bombay working class cost of living index numbers by months
(July 1914=100).

Month.	1918	1919	1920	1921	1922	1923	1924	1925	1926	1927	1928	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933
January	134	182	183	169	173	156	159	157	155	156	154	149	147	117	110	109
February ..	134	176	181	162	165	155	156	157	154	155	148	148	144	113	110	106
March	136	172	177	160	165	154	154	159	155	155	145	149	141	111	111	106
April	144	167	172	160	162	156	150	158	153	153	144	148	140	111	108	101
May	147	168	173	167	163	153	150	156	153	152	147	147	139	110	107	100
June	148	174	181	173	163	152	153	154	155	154	146	147	140	109	107	104
July	149	186	190	177	165	153	157	157	157	156	147	148	139	108	109	103
August	153	179	191	180	164	154	161	152	155	157	146	149	136	108	109	103
September ..	165	172	192	185	165	154	161	151	155	154	145	149	136	108	109	102
October	175	174	193	183	162	152	161	153	155	151	146	149	131	108	109	100
November ..	175	173	186	182	160	153	161	153	154	150	147	150	127	108	110	101
December ..	183	174	181	179	161	157	160	155	156	151	148	150	121	109	110	98
Annual Average..	154	175	183	173	164	154	157	155	155	154	147	149	137	110	109	103

The Labour Office conducted in the year 1926 an enquiry into working class budgets in Ahmedabad and the results of this enquiry have been used in the construction of a cost of living index for that centre. The Ahmedabad working class cost of living index number has been compiled on a post-war base and has been published in the *Labour Gazette* since January 1930. Items representing food, fuel and lighting, clothing, house-rent and miscellaneous groups have been included in the index. The following table gives the index numbers from August 1927 to November 1933:—

Ahmedabad working class cost of living index numbers by months
(Average prices from August 1926 to July 1927=100.)

Month.	1928	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933	Month.	1928	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933.
January ..	93	99	93	75	76	73	July ..	97	98	88	75	75	73
February..	92	99	91	74	75	72	August ..	96	98	87	77	76	73
March ..	90	99	89	75	75	70	September..	96	97	85	75	78	73
April ..	91	96	89	75	74	70	October ..	97	98	82	74	79	73
May ..	91	94	89	75	74	71	November..	97	98	81	75	78	73
June ..	95	96	90	73	75	72	December ..	99	95	77	77	76	71
							Average..	95	97	87	75	76	72

A cost of living index number based on the results of the enquiry into family budgets of cotton mill workers in Sholapur conducted by the Labour Office in 1925 has been published in the *Labour Gazette* since February 1931.

Sholapur working class cost of living index numbers by months. (Average prices from February 1927 to January 1928=100).

Month.	1928	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933	Month.	1928	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933
January ..	..	100	104	76	72	73	August ..	95	102	89	73	73	70
February ..	97	99	100	77	75	72	September	95	104	91	73	74	69
March ..	93	98	96	75	76	69	October ..	95	102	85	72	74	68
April ..	92	98	94	72	72	67	November ..	95	104	82	71	75	68
May ..	94	100	95	71	72	68	December.	97	106	76	71	71	68
June ..	95	103	95	71	73	70							
July ..	95	100	92	71	74	70	Yearly Average ..	..	101	92	73	73	69

Cost of Living Indexes have, during recent years, been compiled for Nagpur and Jubbulpore in the Central Provinces (with January 1927 as base) and for four classes of industrial workers in Rangoon in Burma (with 1931=100). The monthly figures of the cost of living Index numbers or these six Indexes during the year 1933 were as follows :—

Month.	Nagpur.	Jubbulpore.	Rangoon.			
			Burmans.	Tamils, Telegus and Oriyas.	Hindustanis.	Chittagonians.
January	58	58	92	93	94	91
February	59	57	92	93	95	91
March	58	56	91	92	93	90
April	55	52	91	92	92	88
May	59	56	92	93	92	90
June	59	54	93	94	92	91
July	59	55	95	94	92	92
August	58	55	90	92	90	88
September	58	54	90	93	90	89
October	58	54	87	91	89	86
November	59	55	86	90	90	85
December	..	..	88	91	91	87
Average for year ..	..	..	91	92	92	89

Standard of Life.—Very little information is available regarding the standard of living of the working classes in India. The most satisfactory method of obtaining this information is by means of a family budget enquiry in which information is collected regarding the composition, income and expenditure of the family. To enable general conclusions to be drawn from investigations of this type it is always necessary to conduct the enquiries by what is known as the extensive method, an attempt being made to secure the information from a large number of families so as to minimise the effect of the peculiarities of exceptional cases. The sampling method is often resorted to in conducting extensive family budget enquiries because of the impracticability of collecting data by the census method. It is essential that the sample should be representative in order to yield reliable results.

At the Third International Labour Conference of Labour Statisticians held at Geneva in October 1926, the Committee on family budgets passed a resolution that in order to provide adequate information with regard to actual standards of living, enquiries should be conducted generally at intervals of not more than ten years into the income, expenditure and conditions of living of families representative of large homogeneous sections of the population. It was also decided that for a complete enquiry information should be collected as to the district in which the family resides, the composition of the household, the industries and occupations of members of the family, the nature of the housing accommodation and the amount of each important item of family income and expenditure together with quantities of purchases, where practicable. It was agreed, however, that a less detailed investigation omitting the particulars of the family income would be sufficient where the sole object of the enquiry is to provide weights for the calculation of cost of living index numbers.

Family budgets were collected by the Labour Office for 3,076 working class families in Bombay City in 1921-22 and the report based on the results thereof was published in 1923. A new family budget enquiry in Bombay City was undertaken by the Bombay Labour office in 1932-33 and the results are in the process of tabulation. It is expected that the report of the enquiry will be published during the summer of 1934. Weights based on the results of this enquiry are to be used in compiling a fresh cost of living index number for Bombay on a new base period. The Labour Office collected 985 budgets of working class families in Ahmedabad in 1926 and 1,133 budgets of cotton mill workers in Sholapur in 1925. The reports based on the results of these enquiries were published in 1928. A small family Budget investigation for cotton mill workers in Bombay City was also conducted by the Labour Office in 1930 but the results of this investigation have not been published so far.

In the United Provinces a number of budgets were collected at Cawnpore with the object of compiling a cost of living index number. But the results of the enquiry were not found to be satisfactory and the province has not been compiling any cost of living index number.

The Labour Statistics Bureau, Rangoon, which was established by the Government of Burma in 1926, has made an extensive enquiry into the Standard and cost of living of the working classes in Rangoon and the report based on 4,309 budgets was published in 1928. The results of this enquiry have been separately analysed for Burmese, Telugu, Tamil, Uriya, Hindustani, and Chittagonian workers. Separate index numbers for each of the different classes of workers have also been published at the end of the report. 1,002 budgets for the working class families in Nagpur and 507 budgets for working class families at Jubbulpore were collected between September 1926 and January 1927 for compiling cost of living index numbers for these two centres. The figures for the Nagpur, Jubbulpore and Rangoon Indexes for the year 1933 have been given in the above table.

TRADE UNIONS.

The history of trade unionism in India is a history of recent years. It was not until 1918 that labour had begun definitely to organise itself. Previous to that year very little effort appears to have been made to establish organisations of labour. The earliest association of workers in India was the Amalgamated Society of Railway Servants of India and Burmah which had been registered under the Indian Companies Act and its main activities were in connexion with the provision of various benefits to its members, such as Legal Defence, Sickness Insurance, Life Assurance, etc. After the Indian Trade Unions Act, 1926, came into force this Association registered under it as a Trade Union with the new name of the National Union of Railwaymen of India and Burmah. The Bombay Postal Union, founded in 1907, mainly for the clerical classes employed in the Bombay Post Offices, a Union of warpers in the Ahmedabad cotton mills formed in 1917; the Clerks' Union, Bombay, established in April 1918 in order to organise the various classes of clerical labour employed in commercial and other offices in Bombay city; and the Madras Labour Union formed in 1918 for the textile workers in the three mills in the city of Madras, were the main labour organisations in existence at the end of the year 1918. In addition, there existed certain benevolent social institutions such as the Kamgar Hitwardhak Sabha and the Social Service League, whose activities were directed towards the betterment of the condition of the working classes. But these Societies were not composed of workers themselves.

The year 1918 may be said to be a landmark in the history of the Indian Trade Union movement, for from that year onwards there has been a more or less steady growth of trade unions despite the inevitable fluctuations in their prosperity. The economic circumstances of the time must be regarded as the dominant factor contributing to the establishment of trade unionism in India. In the two years following 1918, the epidemic of industrial strife assumed serious proportions and reached a climax towards the close of the year 1920. The number of labour unions also increased very rapidly and unions were formed of workers in all possible industries and occupations. Most of these Unions were, however, merely Strike Committees brought into existence either before or after particular strikes in order either to engineer or to conduct them. These Committees were either dissolved as soon as their purpose was served or remained dormant until another strike in the trade broke out. Most of the remaining Unions formed during the period 1918-20 were unstable and nearly 75 per cent of them died an early death in the following year. There was a definite check to the progress of the trade union movement in India during the next two or three years. But although individual Unions collapsed as rapidly as they were formed the movement itself showed signs of some permanence and vitality.

Perhaps the most important factor which retarded the growth in the movement immediately following the successes which met the earlier formations or Strike Committees, which they really were, was the definitely hostile attitude of the employers to all combinations of their employees. It was not until the passage of the Indian Trade Unions Act which made it morally obligatory on employers to recognise those Unions of their employees which had registered under the Act, that a change in the angle of vision was noticeable.

Nature of leadership.—The Indian Trade Union movement, in its early beginnings, was essentially an economic one, and to regard labour unions as being engineered solely by politicians as the result of their propaganda is to misread the origin of this movement. The Indian workman is predominantly illiterate and has even now few leaders from his own class to whom he can turn for guidance. In consequence, trade unions in India have been led by middle class men, especially professional lawyers and others, who have not perhaps in all cases made a distinction between economic and political considerations. In the words of Mr. A. R. Burnett-Hurst, "social workers did not take the initiative" but "allowed the lawyer-politician class to capture and control these bodies." Many of the so-called leaders of Indian Labour who were drawn from the lawyer-politician class often exploited the ignorance and credulity of the labour force for their own material advantage, or for the propagation of their pet political doctrine, in addition to looking after the welfare of the labourers. There were, however, several notable exceptions. Leaders like Mr. N. M. Joshi, Dewan Chaman Lal, the Rev. C. F. Andrews, Mr. M. K. Gandhi, Mr. V. V. Giri, Mr. B. Shiva Rao, Mr. R. R. Bakhale, M.L.C., Mr. Syed Munawar, M.L.C., and Miss Anasuya Sarabhai endeavoured to create Unions for the benefit of the workers and for the general improvement in the conditions of life and work of the labouring classes. During the last few years, however, the principles of communism have been disseminated amongst the masses of India by the members of the Workers and Peasants Party which is an agent in India of the Communist International. The Communists took advantage of the economic unrest prevalent in the country early in the year 1928 and usurped the leadership of the working classes within a short period of time and were able to assume control over the executives of the principal textile and railway unions in Bombay, Madras and Bengal. They captivated the minds of the workers by painting the existing conditions as black as possible and contrasting them with a supreme state of wealth and happiness which is promised under the regime of a dictatorship of a workers' proletariat. The discontentment amongst the workers over conditions of work was aggravated by the incessant preachings of revolutionary doctrines. The credulity of the Indian labourer has been of great advantage to these emissaries of revolution in creating in him a class hatred against the employers and also in instilling in his mind an abhorrence for the Government established by law in the country. These agitators, occupying positions of vantage, instigated several disastrous strikes in pursuance of purely political ends often with a callous disregard of the subsequent sufferings and losses inflicted on their ignorant and hapless dupes. But during the years 1929 and 1930 the workers began to lose their faith even in these Communist leaders after the failure of the prolonged general strike of the year 1929 in the majority of cotton mills in Bombay City. The sanity and sobriety of moderate leadership have no great attraction for the large majority of the labourers. The moderate leaders have, however, been fighting their battles for leadership with the extremist revolutionaries, and were for a time successful in keeping the latter under control. At the moment of writing, it has become impossible for the moderates and the avowed Communists to work shoulder to shoulder in the labour movement, and a split has occurred between the two, the Unions standing for constitutional progress rallying under the banner of the Moderates whilst those in favour of Communist principles have accepted the leadership of the Red Flag Organisations.

Progress of Trade Unions since 1918.—The trade union movement spread to various industries and occupations in India during the years following the Armistice, but a number of them passed out of existence very soon after they were started. The more stable Unions were of clerks, railway workers, postal employees, seamen and textile workers in Ahmedabad. The peculiar feature of the trade union movement in India is that it did not in the early stages of its progress make much headway in the more important manufacturing industries and this constituted a weak point in the movement. Whereas in other countries, the clerical employees organised themselves on the model of the industrial workers long after the latter had well organised themselves in strong Unions, in India the former have come up if not first, at least simultaneously with industrial unions and have established themselves more permanently.

The following figures illustrate the progress of the Trade Union Movement in the Bombay Presidency :—

Year.	No. of Unions.	No. of Members.	Year.	No. of Unions.	No. of Members.
1922	22	51,472	1928	94	198,072
1923	19	46,037	1929	99	196,748
1924	36	52,227	1930	93	128,393
1925	38	49,318	1931	97	115,657
1926	56	74,875	1932	100	111,526
1927	72	87,340	1933	105	115,469

The distribution of the membership as at 1st September 1933 by classes of industries was as follows:—

Class of Industry.	No. of Unions.	Membership.	Percentage of membership to total.
Textiles	17	40,116	34.74
Railways (including railway workshops)..	8	21,909	18.97
Seamen	3	29,138	25.24
Posts and Telegraphs	34	8,136	7.05
Municipal	6	2,495	2.16
Miscellaneous	37	13,675	11.84
Total ..	105	115,469	100.00

There are in addition two federations of Postal Unions, one of Railway Employees' Unions and a fourth which is a Central Union governing a number of individual Unions of textile workers in Ahmedabad. (For the constitution, membership and other particulars regarding these organisations, reference may be made to the issues of the Bombay *Labour Gazette*). The Central Labour Board and the Bombay Trades Council which had been included in the list of Federations in the Bombay Presidency are now defunct.

The Punjab has no heavy concentration of industrial labour and consequently the extent of organisation among both employers and employed is up to the present little. There is, however, a vague striving among the employed towards co-operation and combination especially for the purpose of demanding better remuneration and considering the question of resorting to direct action for enforcing their demands on their employers. No Communist influence has been noticeable in the Punjab where industrial disputes have been stated to have occurred as a result of the normal antagonism between employers and employed. The only large employers of labour in the Punjab are the N.-W. Railway Administration, and four out of the 19 registered Unions are of the employees of the various departments of the N.-W. Railway and cover, in all, about 13,000 members.

In the United Provinces, the number of Associations of workers is rather small, compared to its industrial importance. There are in all Councils which, under the Executive, are responsible for co-ordinating the work in the about 10 Unions, all of recent growth. Some of the Associations formed during the general upheaval following the War and especially during the days of Non-Co-operation have since died or become moribund. Organised labour forms a very small proportion of the total. Organisation of labour outside Cawnpore is almost non-existent and even in Cawnpore only about 10 per cent. of the labour is organised. There has been a growing interest of labour in trade unionism which appears to have the prospect of a rapid development in the future.

The Central Provinces and Berar have seven registered trade unions. The classes of workers who have been embraced by the Trade movement in this part of Indian are (1) Textile workers, (2) Press employees, (3) Scavengers, (4) Motor drivers, (5) Railway workers, (6) Postal employees and (7) Clerks. Trade unionism is stated to be yet in its infancy in this Province and the Labour Unions appear to have done little to improve the conditions under which their members work.

The trade union movement in **Madras** received a setback in 1921-22 as a result of the failure of the strike in the Buckingham and Carnatic mills. During the year 1922-23 most of the Unions were dormant and the only Union which showed signs of activity was the M. and S. M. Railway Workshop Employees' Union, Perambur. The trade union activities were revived in 1923-24 and the following Unions became once more active :—(1) The Madras Labour Union, (2) The Madras Tramwaymen's

Union, (3) The Corporation Scavengers' Union, (4) The S. I. Railway Employees' Union and (5) The Coimbatore Labour Union. The Madras Harbour Port Trust Workmen's Union was revived in 1925-26. A section of the workmen of the Buckingham and Carnatic mills organised a separate Union in 1925-26 called the Buckingham and Carnatic Mills Employees' Union, as a rivival to the Madras Labour Union which is an old organisation in the same industry. The Cordite Factory Labour Union, Aruvankadus came into prominence during 1926-27. Unions were newly formed for the employees of the Public Works Department workshops and the Government Central Press, Madras, while the Diocesan Press Employees' Union which had remained dormant was revived. The labourers working in the cotton ginning and pressing factories in Tiruppur, Coimbatore District, started a Union for their benefit. Most of the Unions included in their programme a demand for separate representation for Labour in the Legislative Council. The Oil Workers' Union and certain other Unions came into prominence only when there was an impending labour dispute. There were nineteen registered Trade Unions in the Madras Presidency at the end of March 1931.

Railways.—Labour Unions are, or have been, operation on ten of the Class I railways, on some of which as many as three or more operate at the same time. Most of them are registered trade unions and the majority have secured some measure of recognition from the respective railway administrations. Many railway trade unions came into existence during the period 1918-1921 but several of them were short-lived. Those unions which have managed to survive are actively looking after the interests of their members and show signs of improved organisation and usefulness especially in those where union committees are not dominated by communists. A noteworthy feature is that there is an increasing tendency in many railway unions to look for office-bearers and leaders from amongst members who are actually engaged in railway work. There can be no doubt that, within the last few years, the appointment of establishment and employment officers and special attention to welfare of railway labour have been due largely to trade union propaganda.

All-India Labour Association.—The following is a list of such All-India Federations of Trade Unions or All-India associations of workers for which some information is available.

The All-India Railwaymen's Federation—Though not a registered body under the Indian Trade Unions Act, this Federation has been taking an active part in collective bargaining with railway authorities. Having affiliated to it about twelve unions of men working on all but two of Class I railways and with a membership of nearly 1,00,000, it has been able to exercise considerable influence with the Railway Board and arrangements have been made for half-yearly conferences with the Board for the discussion of matters affecting wages and conditions of service of railway employees as a whole. The federation is taking continuous interest in bringing railway employees closer together and securing greater unity in the trade union movement in the country. At the last annual convention held in February 1933 and again at a special convention held in November 1933 the Federation devoted special attention to the question of reinstatement of retrenched staff, wage-cuts, the proposed statutory Railway Board, etc.

The National Union of Railwaymen of India, Burma and Bombay.—This Union was started by the Amalgamated Society of Railway Servants of India and Burma which came into existence as a sequel to the Great Indian Peninsula Railway Guards' strike in 1897. It was at first registered under the Indian Companies Act, but after the Indian Trade Unions Act came into being, it altered its name, redrafted its constitution and registered as a Trade Union. It has a membership of about 2,700. It provides for its members various voluntary and other benefits such as death, sickness, unemployment and life insurance benefits. It is the only trade union in Bombay which maintains a political fund.

The All-India and Burmah Covenanted Non-Gazetted Railway Services Association.—This Association, whose membership is limited to covenanted Europeans employed as foremen in railway workshops in India, was started in October 1926 with the object of securing for its members the benefits of the Lee Commission's recommendations. It submitted a memorial to the Viceroy on this question in November 1926. It has a membership of about 300 employees scattered all over India and it originally had its Head Office in Bombay. The Association registered with the Registrar of Trade Unions, Bombay Presidency, in March 1928, but transferred its Head Office to Punjab in 1929 and again to Madras during the year 1932-33.

The All-India Trade Union Congress.—This organisation was inaugurated in 1920 for two main purposes: (1) to co-ordinate the activities of the individual Labour Unions in India which till then remained incohate and were unable to take concerted action and (2) to recommend workers' delegates to the International Labour Conferences. When the Government of India had to select a Labour representative to attend the Washington Conference in 1919, there was no representative body of labour in India to be consulted and they therefore appointed Mr. N. M. Joshi as the Workers' Delegate. In order, therefore, that responsible Labour opinion in India might have a voice in the selection of the delegates to the International Labour Conferences, the All-India Trade Union Congress was organised and the first session of the Congress was held in Bombay on the 31st October 1920. Eight hundred delegates from different parts of India were present and sixty Unions were affiliated and 42 others expressed their sympathy with the Congress. It became a central organisation of the trade union movement in India but from the beginning it had a strong political colour. Its presidents and secretaries have all been politicians first and labour leaders next, with the exception of a few persons like Mr. N. M. Joshi. The Congress appointed itself a permanent body to meet once a year. It has a definite constitution, an elected Executive to carry on its work, and Provincial

respective provinces. The main object of the Congress is "to co-ordinate the activities of all the labour organisations in all the provinces in India and generally to further the interests of Indian labour in matters economic, social and political. It may also co-operate and federate with organisations of labour having similar objects in any part of the world."

The Executive Council of the Congress consists of a Chairman, the Vice-Chairman or Vice-Chairmen, the Treasurer, the General Secretary or General Secretaries, the Secretary or Secretaries and the Assistant Secretary or Assistant Secretaries as ex-officio members and not more than ten additional members including the ex-Presidents of the All-India Trade Union Congress, elected at the annual session of the Congress and the representatives elected by the affiliated unions on the following basis:—

1 Representative for unions with a membership upto 1,000;

2 Representatives for unions with a membership between 1,000 and 3,000.

3 Representatives for unions with a membership between 4,000 and 5,000.

4 Representatives for unions with a membership above 5,000

The individual Unions affiliated to the Congress are conceded full autonomy with regard to the management of their own affairs according to their rules.

The second Session of the Congress was held in 1921 at Jharia under the Presidentship of Mr. Joseph Baptista. The third Session was held at Lahore in 1923 with Mr. C. R. Das as President. The fourth Session held at Calcutta in 1924 was also presided over by Mr. C. R. Das. Out of the 43 resolutions passed at this Session some dealt with the recruitment of Seamen and their eligibility for securing compensation under the Workmen's Compensation Act. The fifth Session was held in Bombay in 1925 with Mr. Dhundiraj R. Thengdi of Nagpur in the chair. Mr. V. V. Giri of Berhampur was the President of the sixth Session held in Madras in 1926. Delhi was the centre where the seventh Conference of the Congress was held in 1927 and the President was Rai Saheb Chandrika Prasad. Dewan Chaman Lall, M.L.A., was the President of the Cawnpore Session of the Congress held in 1927. The ninth Session was held in 1928 at Jharia with Mr. M. Daud in the chair. It is significant that at this Conference Pandit Jawaharlal Nehru moved a resolution protesting against imperialism.

The tenth assembly of the Trade Union Congress which met at Nagpur in 1929 under the presidentship of Pandit Jawaharlal Nehru will remain as the most important land-mark in the history of organised labour in India. It marked the culmination of a long period of mischievous activity inspired by Moscow and fomented by Communist Agents in India resulting in a split between the genuine trade union leadership on the one hand and the votaries of communism on the other. The fundamental issue upon which the split in the Trade Union movement occurred was whether the labour movement in India shall be inspired and conducted for the betterment of the industrial workers or whether it shall be utilised as a means to promote and bring about revolution in the country. The proceedings at the Session made it impossible for the rival forces to carry on any longer under a common organisation. The reasons contributing to the ultimate split were as follows:—The Bombay Girni Kamgar Union and the G. I. P. Railwaymen's Union applied for affiliation, the former with a membership figure of 54,000 and the latter 45,000. The Bombay Girni Kamgar Union could produce no audited documents as required. However it was admitted a member on the basis of a membership of 40,000. The G. I. P. Railwaymen's Union was affiliated on a strength of 30,000 members. This meant that a large part of the voting power was vested in the representatives of these two Unions which were of communist persuasion. The Executive of the Congress was also captured by the revolutionaries, and resolutions for the boycott of the Royal Commission on Indian Labour, affiliation of the Congress to the League against Imperialism, the appointment of the Workers' Welfare League, a Communist organisation in England, as Agents of the Congress for Great Britain and the boycott of the International Labour Conferences at Geneva were passed both by the Executive Committee and the open session of the Congress. The moderate leaders of labour, including Messrs. N. M. Joshi, V. V. Giri, B. Shiva Rao, R. R. Bakhale and Dewan Chaman Lall seceded from the Congress and set up a separate federation under the name of the "All-India Trades Union Federation" in order to co-ordinate the activities of non-communist Trade Unions in India. Endeavours made to draw the seceders back into the fold of the All-India Trade Union Congress have not met with any success. The Labour Unions in Ahmedabad which draw their inspiration mainly from Mr. M. K. Gandhi and are the best organised and most successful trade unions in India have not during the fifteen years of the Trade Union movement in India shown any desire to become affiliated to the Congress.

The eleventh Session of the Trade Union Congress, held in Calcutta in July 1931, led to further disintegration in the ranks of labour and once again the Communists from Bombay were responsible. The Girni Kamgar Union had split into two parts, both bitterly opposed to each other. One led by Mr. S.V. Deshpande, General Secretary of the Trade Union Congress and the other by Mr. G. H. Kandalkar, President of the G.K.U. and a Vice-President of the Congress and both groups claimed to be the Girni Kamgar Union and therefore entitled to vote at the Congress. The President, Mr. S. C. Bose, a Congress politician, decided in favour of Mr. Kandalkar whereupon Mr. Deshpande and the representatives of a few other unions broke away from the Congress with the result that this organisation which should guide and control the Trade Union movement in India is a useless and effete body with no influence and a trifling membership.

The twelfth Session of the Congress was held at Madras on 10th and 11th September 1932 under the presidentship of Mr. J. N. Mitra. The report of the General Secretary stated that twelve new Unions from Madras affiliated themselves to the Congress and that the membership of the Congress covered Unions with more than a lakh of organised workers. The Conference adopted resolutions damanding the immediate and unconditional release of all the political prisoners including the Meerut undertrials; condemning leaders like Messrs. Jamnadas M. Mehta, V. V. Giri and N. M. Joshi for postponing a general strike on railways; and adopting the platform of unity formulated by the Bombay Girni Kamgar Union which included class struggle as one of its main planks.

The thirteenth Session opened at Cawnpore on 23rd December 1933. Mr. G. L. Kandalkar of the Bombay Girni Kamgar Union presided. The president declared that the Trade Union Congress would participate in the political movement only on condition that key industries like Railways and Banks were nationalised and their control transferred to councils of workers. There was a free fight between the votaries of the Indian National Congress which is a purely political body, and labour leaders and a pandemonium resulted. Several resolutions were passed at this session one of which authorised the Bombay Girni Kamgar Union to take steps to organise an All-India Textile Workers' Conference in Bombay to consider the question of wage-cuts in the textile industry and concert measures to defend the cause of the workers. Pandit Hariharnath Shastri of Cawnpore was elected President for 1934.

The National Trades Union Federation.—The Indian Trades Union Federation which was formed in 1929 by moderate leaders of labour like Mr. N. M. Joshi and others after the split in the Nagpur session of the All-India Trade Union Congress, held its first annual session at Madras on July 16 and 17, 1932, with Mr. V. V. Giri as President. The Federation claimed the allegiance of 40 unions in various parts of the country including Native States and a total membership of 78,000. The Conference adopted the provisional constitution of the Federation framed by the Committee of management and also considered the question of trade union unity.

Almost from the time of the unfortunate split which occurred at Nagpur in 1929, the necessity of bringing about trade union unity has been felt in almost every quarter. Efforts have been made since 1930 to bring the different groups together informally and to try to find a reasonable basis of agreement. Some Bombay unions formed a 'platform of unity' the main planks of which were (1) that the Trade Union is an organ of class struggle involving purely direct action; (2) that the Trade Union Congress should not be affiliated to the International Federation of Trade Unions, Amsterdam, and (3) that delegates should not be sent to the International Labour Conferences. In these efforts the railway unions which had remained aloof from the two rival national organisations took very great interest and the All-India Railwaymen's Federation convened in Bombay a representative conference in May 1931 when a committee was appointed for the purpose of considering and reporting upon the best methods of bringing about unity in the ranks of Indian labour. The platform of unity referred to was particularly examined by this committee whose suggestions for amendments were not approved by the extremist labour leaders belonging to the All-India Trade Union Congress. The All-India Trade Union Federation at its first session held in Madras however welcomed the efforts made by the Trade Union Unity Conference held under the auspices of the All-India Railwaymen's Federation and authorised its working committee to co-operate with other unions in facilitating the reconciliation of differing points of view. A special session of the All-India Trades Union Federation was held at Calcutta in April 1933 for the purpose of considering the question of Trade Union unity amongst other subjects, and a resolution was passed authorising the General Council to negotiate with the Provisional Committee of the National Federation of Labour (a new national trade union organisation formed by certain leaders of labour) on the question of trade union unity with a view to bring about amalgamation between the two organisations on a fair and equitable basis. As a result of these negotiations, the National Trades Union Federation came into existence on and from 10th May 1933 in place of the All-India Trades Union Federation and the National Federation of Labour.

The main objects of this Federation are: (*a*) to establish a socialist State in India, (*b*) to socialise and nationalise the means of production, distribution and exchange as far as possible, (*c*) to ameliorate the economic and social conditions of the working classes, and (*d*) to support and actively participate in the struggle for India's political freedom from the point of view of the working classes by all legitimate, peaceful and democratic methods such as legislation, negotiation, propaganda, etc., and, in the last resort, by strikes and similar other methods. Each affiliated union has to pay to the Federation an annual fee of Rs. 20 for 2,000 members and below, Rs. 10 for every additional 1,000 members or less upto 10,000 and Rs. 5 for every additional 1,000 members or less above 10,000.

The first session of the National Trades Union Federation was held in Bombay on the 24th to 26th Dec. 1933 with Mr. Mrinal Kanti Bose, the President of the Federation, in the chair. The number of unions affiliated to the Federation was reported at 50 and the total membership of individual members at 1,37,000. It was resolved to organise an All-India Textile Labour Federation to resist the employers' attacks on the workers in the textile industry, and to provisionally affiliate the National Trades Union Federation with the International Federation of Trade Unions for a period of two years in the first instance.

There was a split in the Federation at its first session held in Bombay. The representatives of several Bengal Unions walked out of the conference on the 26th December 1933 in

consequence of differences of opinion between them and Mr. N. M. Joshi and held a meeting on the same day under the presidency of Mr. Abdul Ghani and resolved to form an All-India federation of labour with the name and style of the *All-India Trades Union Federation* with headquarters at Calcutta. Mr. M. Daud, M.A., Bar.-at-Law, was elected President. It was proposed to draft a constitution and place it for adoption before the next session to be convened at an early date. Six unions, all situated in Bengal, with a total membership of 15,000 promised affiliation to the new body.

There are, in addition, the following All-India Associations in existence :—

(1) The All-India Postal and R. M. S. Association, (2) The All-India Postmen's and Lower-Grade Staff Union, (3) The All-India Telegraph Union, (4) The All-India Post and Telegraph Administrative Offices Staff Association, (5) The All-India Government Employees' Federation, (6) The All-India Currency Association, (7) The Central Body Military Accounts Association and (8) The National Federation of Textile Labour in India.

Trade Union Legislation.

In 1920 a Company owning a mill whose workers were on strike brought a suit against the leader of the local labour union which was conducting the strike and others, seeking to restrain them from inducing the plaintiff's workmen to break their contracts, and suing for damages for their actions in this respect. The Madras High Court to whom the suit was referred gave their decision granting an *interim* injunction restraining the defendants from inciting the plaintiffs' employees to continue the strike. The case was eventually withdrawn but the proceedings suggested that, in the absence of legislation, even legitimate trade union activity was attended by considerable peril. As a result of a resolution moved by Mr. N. M. Joshi and accepted by the Legislative Assembly in March 1921, Government were committed to take steps as soon as practicable to introduce such legislation as might be necessary for the registration and protection of Trade Unions. The Government of India, accordingly, formulated certain tentative proposals and circulated them for eliciting public opinion. The opinions expressed were by no means unanimous,—some considered the proposed legislation premature, while some others realised that legislation was necessary but at the same time considered Trade Unions as a pernicious and dangerous growth which should be rigidly controlled, and others again urged that sufficient protection should be granted to them. In August 1924, the Government of India circularised a draft Bill for opinion. The Bill conferred certain privileges only on registered Trade Unions and left the question of registration at the option of Trade Unions themselves. Provision was also made to ensure that the funds of a registered Trade Union are not expended on causes in which the bulk of the members have little interest. A regular audit of the funds was proposed to be made compulsory and the manner in which the executive should be composed was also provided for.

A number of amendments were made by the Select Committee and in the Legislative Assembly. A clause permitting registered Trade Unions to maintain funds for political purposes was added. The provision was on the model of the British Law on the subject and those members who contracted out of the liability to subscribe were not to be compelled to contribute to the Political Fund nor did failure to contribute involve any disability or disadvantage except in so far as the control and management of the Political Fund was concerned. The Bill was passed on the 8th February and received the assent of the Governor-General on the 25th March 1926. The Indian Trade Unions Act came into effect from the 1st June 1927.

Mr. N. M. Joshi introduced in the Leislative Assembly on the 9th February, 1928, a Bill to amend Section 43 of the Indian Penal Code in order to extend to the officers and members of unregistered Trade Unions the protection afforded by Section 17 of the Indian Trade Unions Act, 1926, which lays down that no officer or member of a registered Trade Union shall be liable to punishment under sub-section (2) of section 120B of the Indian Penal Code, in respect of any agreement made between the members for the purposes of furthering any such object of the Trade Union as is specified in Section 15, unless the agreement is an agreement to commit an offence. The Assembly, however, threw out the Bill.

A Bill was introduced in the Legislative Assembly on the 4th September 1928 with a view to amending Section 11 of the Indian Trade Unions Act, 1926. It was pointed out in the Statement of Objects and Reasons that the existing section 11 of the Act admitted of doubt in two respects namely : (1) It did not indicate clearly whether the first appeal lay to the judge appointed for the area within which the Registrar's office is situated or to the judge appointed for the area within which the head office of the trade union is situated. The amendment was intended to make it clear that the latter is the competent court ; (2) It did not indicate clearly what judge might be appointed to hear appeals in the Presidency towns and in Rangoon. The amendment was designed to make it clear that in such areas the appeal lies to the High Court and there is no second appeal. The opportunity was also taken to define clearly the powers of the High Court in second appeals. The Bill was passed and received the assent of the Governor-General on 25th September 1928.

Working of the Act.—The Act has now been in operation for nearly seven years. All-India Statistics on the workng of the Act for the year ending 31st March 1932 published in July 1933 show that there were 131 registered trade unions in the British Provinces in the whole of India during the year ending March 1932 as compared with 119 registered unions during the year ending 31st March 1931. The distribution of the registered Trade unions together with the figures for total membership

for all unions which submitted returns is as follows:—

Provinces.	Total No. of Unions registered.	Total memberships of registered Unions.
Ajmer-Merwara	2	34
Bengal	28	81,725
Bihar and Orissa ..	3	1,378
Bombay	32	68,306
Burma	1	56
Central Provinces ..	10	6,788
Delhi	4	3,482
Madras	23	42,402
Punjab	22	21,627
United Provinces ..	6	9,895
Total ..	131	235,693*

*These figures are for the Unions which submitted returns of membership. Ten Unions did not submit their returns in time for their membership figures to be included.

Only a few associations of employers have yet applied for registration. No Trade Union was registered in the provinces of Assam, Baluchistan, and Coorg up to the end of March 1932. The great inducement to register has been the predisposition of employers generally to recognise Unions that are registered. In the case of Associations of Government Servants, one of the conditions of their recognition by Government was that they should get themselves registered when the Trade Unions Act was brought into force. In view of the fact, however that certain difficulties have arisen in connexion with the application of the Act to Government servants, the question is under the consideration of the Government of India who have not yet formulated any definite conclusions. Pending the consideration of this question, Government have relaxed the provision contained in the existing rules for the recognition of Associations of Government servants which requires them to register under the Act.

A few Associations of Goverment employees have pressed for their registration under the Act and such of them as had complied with the requirements of the Act were duly registered in the Bombay Presidency and in certain other provinces also.

The registration of Trade Unions is not compulsory and although there is an increasing resort to registration there are still a large number of Unions which apparently regard the benefits of registration as an insufficient return for the obligations imposed on registered Trade Unions by the Act. Some progress, as a whole, was however visible in the trade union movement in India. Not only has the membership of the Unions increased but their financial position is also satisfactory. Organisation among women-workers in India continues to be slow. The figures for female membership of registered Trade Unions in successive years were as follows:—

Year.	Membership.
1927-28	1,166
1928-29	3,842
1929-30	3,299
1930-31	3,151
1931-32	3,454

The figure for 1931-32 represents 1.5 per cent. of the total membership of registered trade Unions.

Royal Commission's Recommendations.—With regard to Trade Unions, the Labour Commission recommended that every employers' organisation should set up a special committee for the purpose of giving continuous consideration to the improvement of the well being and efficiency of the workers in establishments controlled by its members; and that "recognition" of a Union should mean that the Union has the right to negotiate with the employer in respect of matters affecting either the common or individual interest of its members. The fact that a Union exists only of a minority of employees or the existence of rival Unions are not sufficient grounds for refusing recognition. With regard to the internal administration of Trade Unions the Commission recommend that Union leaders should endeavour to give as many members as possible some share in the work of the Union and that Trade Union organisers should endeavour to find suitable men within the Union to act as officials and should train them for the position.

With regard to the Trade Unions Act, the Commission recommended that it should be re-examined during the year 1934 and that all limitations imposed on the activities of registered Unions and their officers should be reconsidered so as to ensure that the conditions attached to registration are not such as to prevent any well-conducted *bona fide* Union from applying for registration. Section 22 of the Act should be amended so as to provide that ordinarily not less than two-thirds of the officers of a registered Trade Union shall be actually employed or engaged in an industry with which the Union is concerned.

INDUSTRIAL DISPUTES.

The weapon of the "strike" in industry first came into prominence in India during the period immediately following the close of the War when the majority of the strikes as shown in the introductory Section were designed to secure increases in wages commensurate with the rise in the cost of living. The epidemic of industrial strikes which characterised the period 1919-20 reached a climax in the winter of 1921. During this period strikes took place purely from economic causes and most of them ended successfully from the view-point of the workers, after a short struggle. After this period, however, they tended to be more prolonged and less successful and, partly owing to political causes, there were a number of fairly serious disputes in public utility services. In more recent years the machinations of the Communists have been increasingly responsible for the calling of general strikes and their undue prolongation.

Extent of Disputes.—All-India statistics of industrial disputes for each quarter and for each year have been compiled and published since 1920 by the Government of India in the Department of Industries and Labour.

The following tables show the number of disputes which occurred during the eight years 1925-33 in each province and in each class of industry respectively:—

Provinces.	No. of disputes in								
	1925.	1926.	1927.	1928.	1929.	1930.	1931.	1932.	1933.
Bengal	43	57	34*	60	35	34	47	27	29
Bombay	69	57	54	111	70	75	53	53	82
Madras	4	2	19*	7	12	11	15	14	6‡
Central Provinces & Bear	6	4	2	1	2	1	7	8	8
United Provinces ..	6	3	3	2	4	2	11	2	5
Bihar & Orissa	2	3	4*	8	2	4	1	1	..
Burma	3	1	3	7	4	3	10	4	5
Punjab	1	..	..	2	..	..	7	3	..
Assam	..	1	12	5	9	16	15	7	10
Ajmer-Merwara	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	2
Total ..	134	128	129	203	141†	148	166	119‡	146‡

* One strike extended to three provinces. † Includes 3 disputes in Delhi.

‡ One strike extended to two provinces.

Industries.	No. of disputes in								
	1925.	1926.	1927.	1928.	1929.	1930.	1931.	1932.	1933.
Cotton and woollen mills	69	57	60	110	78	68	75	54	87
Jute Mills	15	33	11	19	13	13	22	13	11
Engineering Workshops	7	4	6	11	7	10	5	3	1
Railways including Railway Workshops ..	6	3	3	9	4	9	8	6	3
Others	37	31	49	54	39	48	56	42	44
Total ..	134	128	129	203	141	148	166	118	146

The peak in respect of the number of industrial disputes (203) was reached in the year 1928. More than 50 per cent. of these disputes occurred in the Bombay Presidency while only about 30 per cent. occurred in Bengal. In none of the other provinces was there an average of at least one dispute per month during that year. The industry which was hit hardest was the cotton and woollen mill industry in which no less than 110 disputes took place during the year.

In 1933, 164,938 work people were involved in the 146 disputes and 2,168,961 working day were lost.

CONCILIATION AND ARBITRATION MACHINERY.

Prior to the passing of the Trade Disputes Act as an All-India measure early in the year 1929, there was, with the exception of a conciliation panel in Bengal, which will be dealt with lower down, no official machinery for conciliation and arbitration in industrial disputes in India. The Employers' and Workmen's (Disputes) Act which was passed in 1860 to make provision for the speedy termination of certain disputes between workmen engaged in railway and other public works and their employers and which was extended, in case of the Bombay Presidency, to the districts of Ahmednagar, Broach, Ahmedabad, Kaira, Poona, Sholapur, Surat and Thana in 1860 and 1861 and to Sind in 1872 dealt with individuals and did not provide any machinery for the settlement of disputes in other trades or industries. No records are available to show the extent to which this Act was made use of in India. The Act was repealed in March 1932. The only provinces in which *ad hoc* Committees have been appointed during the past fifteen years either to enquire into the question of providing machinery for the settlement of disputes or to deal with specific strikes are the Bengal and the Bombay Presidencies.

Bombay Presidency.—The first Committee to be appointed in the Bombay Presidency was the Industrial Disputes Committee appointed on the 18th November 1921 with Sir Stanley Reed as Chairman "to consider and report on the practicability or otherwise of creating machinery for the prevention and early settlement of industrial disputes." This Committee made several recommendations with regard to the standardization of wages, trade unions, the attitude employers should adopt towards Unions of their workers and the recognition of Unions, Works Committees, Welfare Work, Co-operative Societies, Housing of Labour, etc. Their recommendations were in the nature of measures that might contribute to the prevention of industrial disputes. With regard to the methods of settlement when such disputes either develop irreconcilable differences between capital and labour or else become a menace to the community, the Committee recommended the formation of an Industrial Court of Enquiry to be followed, if necessary, by an Industrial Court of Conciliation.

In pursuance of the recommendations made by the Industrial Disputes Committee, the Government of Bombay published a Bill to provide for enquiry into and settlement of trade disputes in the *Bombay Government Gazette* in May 1924. It was intended to introduce this Bill in the Bombay Legislative Council at the Poona session in July of the same year; but, in the meanwhile the Government of India asked the Local Government not to proceed with this measure because they themselves intended to introduce similar legislation for the whole of India. This, however, was not the first occasion on which the Government of India considered the question of the advisability of introducing legislation to provide for the settlement of disputes. In 1920 they circularised all Local Governments asking their opinions as to the advisability of providing legislation on the lines of the Industrial Courts Act 1919. The opinions obtained by provincial Governments were almost unanimous that labour was not properly organised and that therefore no useful purpose would be served by such legislation. The majority of the provincial Governments adopted the same view.

Bonus Dispute Enquiry Committee.—The next Committee to be appointed by the Government of Bombay was the Committee of Enquiry with Sir Norman Macleod, as Chairman to enquire into the general strike of the Bombay cotton mill workers of the year 1924 in connexion with the non-payment of an annual bonus for the year 1923 by the Bombay mills.

The findings of the Committee were:—

(1) That the mill workers had not established any enforceable claim, customary, legal or equitable, to the annual payment of a bonus; and

(2) that the results of the working of the mill industry as a whole for the year 1923 were such as to justify the contention of the millowners that the profits did not admit of the payment of a bonus.

Bombay Strike Enquiry Committee.—The third *ad hoc* Committee to be appointed in the Bombay Presidency was the Bombay Strike Enquiry Committee under the Chairmanship of Sir Charles Fawcett, Judge of the Bombay High Court, in connection with the general strike of the cotton mill workers in Bombay city of the year 1928 in pursuance of the agreement arrived at between the Bombay Millowners' Association and the Joint Strike Committee at a conference held under the Chairmanship of the Hon. Sir Ghulam Hussain Hidayatullah, General Member of the Government of Bombay, on the 4th October 1928.

This Committee sat for a continuous period of five and a half months and its Report was published on the 26th March 1929.

Some of the conclusions and recommendations of the Bombay Strike Enquiry Committee were as follows:—

(1) The proposals of the Millowners' Association (*a*) for standardization of wages, duties and numbers of operatives in a mill and (*b*) for Standing Orders for the operatives about the conditions of their employment were in the main fair and reasonable.

(2) While there was justification for the Association's proposal to make a cut of 7½ per cent. in weavers' wages, there were reasonable objections to be urged against its adoption in the present circumstances, and it was recommended that it should be dropped by the Association provided the Labour leaders undertook to co-operate in working the scheme for the standardization of wages.

(3) That part of the standardization scheme which is called the "Rational" or "Efficiency" system and which aims at reducing the number of operatives employed in mills while raising their wages and providing conditions favourable for the extra efficiency expected from the operatives was fair and reasonable.

(4) With regard to the Seventeen Demands submitted by the Joint Strike Committee some of the demands which were considered to be fair and reasonable were—

(*a*) That the Millowners shall not vary any of the present conditions to the disadvantage of the workers before securing the approval of the workers through their organisations.

(*b*) That the Millowners' Association shall not permit its individual members to vary the conditions of service to the disadvantage of the workers without the sanction of the Association.

(*c*) The rates of new varieties shall be fixed by the Millowners' Association in consultation with the representatives of the Workers' organisations.

(*d*) Notices in vernacular showing the rates of piece work in detail should be posted in the Departments for the information of the workers.

(*e*) That there should be no victimisation of men who had taken part in the strike or any Union activities.

Most of the above were eventually conceded by the Millowners' Association.

(5) The following demands were held to be unfair and unreasonable—

(*a*) The wages of those workers whose average monthly wage is less than Rs. 30 should be raised substantially.

(*b*) The newly introduced system of compelling the workmen (1) to take out and present tickets of attendance and (2) to clean machinery daily should be discontinued.

(6) The recommendations of the Committee for alleviating unemployment consequent on the introduction of efficiency methods of work were as follows :—

(*a*) The millowners should set up some machinery for taking note of all cases where workers are discharged on account of reduction of staff, and help them as far as possible to get suitable employment either in some other mill or in some other industry.

(*b*) The Millowners' Association should consider the advisability of a scheme for the payment of a gratuity to a worker, which may amount to say, four weeks or six weeks' wages according to his length of service payable in suitable cases to discharged employees who may need help during the waiting period while they are seeking employment. The formation of an Out-of-Work Donation Fund on a voluntary basis to be created by a system of setting aside a contribution by the Millowners of one anna per operative per month to which fund the operatives through their representatives should be invited to contribute one anna or at least half an anna per head per month was suggested.

(7) The Trade Unions should combine to arrange for the assistance of an expert technical adviser in dealing with disputes arising under the Standardisation Scheme.

(8) In view of the fact that several matters required adjustment in connexion with the scheme for wage standardisation after it had been brought into operation and with a view to avoiding strikes and lockouts, machinery was provided by "Mediation Rules" agreed to by both sides for setting up joint Committees to enquire into disputes arising under the scheme and to endeavour to arrange for their settlement.

Owing to the undue prolongation of the general strike in the Bombay Cotton Mills of the year 1929 and the consequent disruption of labour, it was not possible for the Bombay Millowners' Association to bring into operation the Mediation Rules recommended by the Bombay Strike Enquiry Committee for the simple reason that there are no recognised Unions representatives of Bombay Cotton Mill workers in the City. The Bombay Textile Labour Union, of which Mr. N. M. Joshi, M.L.A., is the President has barely 400 members. The recognition accorded by the Bombay Millowners' Association to the Bombay Girni Kamgar Union which claimed a membership of over fifty thousand after its registration in May 1928 was withdrawn by the Association on the publication of the reports of the Court of Enquiry appointed under the Trade Disputes Act to inquire into questions connected with the general strike of the year 1929 and the Riots Inquiry Committee. The Association has been giving anxious consideration to the practical steps which might be taken by mills to bring about better relations between employers and their workmen and for the prevention of accumulation of grievances. In a circular letter dated the 8th January 1930 addressed by the Association to all the mills affiliated to it, they issued instructions that all mills should take immediate steps whereby complaints and grievances of the workers may be attended to by the management concerned at once. For this purpose complaint boxes were to be placed in the compounds of all mills in which workers are invited to put in petitions regarding their grievances or suggestions for improvement of conditions of work. The mills have been requested to give sympathetic consideration to any complaints or suggestions made and to redress or give effect to them wherever possible. Further measures calculated

to improve the relations between the employers and the employed are under consideration. The Association have also devised measures for joint discussions between managers of mills and the Association on general questions relating to the internal administration of the mills.

The next Committee to be appointed in the Bombay Presidency was a Court of Enquiry appointed under the Trade Disputes Act in connexion with the general strike of cotton mill operatives in Bombay City of 1929. After a prolonged enquiry into the causes of and the conduct of this strike which lasted for nearly four months, the Pearson Court of Enquiry came to the unanimous conclusion that the whole of the blame for the calling and the continuation of the strike rested with the Bombay Girni Kamgar Union. The Report of the Court was published on the 16th Sept. and its moral effect was so great that the union called off the strike unconditionally on the next day.

Bengal.—Several special Committees were appointed by the Government of Bengal during the period of intense industrial unrest during the years 1920-21.

(1) As the result of a strike of taxi-drivers and professional drivers of private cars in Calcutta which was caused by objections to certain rules, particularly (*a*) a new rule requiring medical examination of applicants for professional driver's license, and (*b*) another rule forbidding the carrying of attendants in taxis, Government appointed a Committee of Enquiry into the existing licensing regulations and the control of taxicabs generally. The strike lasted from the 12th to the 20th January 1921, and ceased as a result of the institution of the inquiry. The Committee made a number of proposals for amendments in the existing regulations. These proposals were ultimately accepted and brought into effect on the 12th October 1921.

(2) As the result of a strike of drivers and conductors of Calcutta and Howrah tramways, which lasted from the 27th January to the 24th February 1921, Government appointed a Committee of Enquiry after the resumption of work by the strikers on the 8th March 1921. The men resumed work towards the end of February on condition (*a*) that the Calcutta Tramways Company would investigate their grievances and announce their decision within a week, and (*b*) that if the men were dissatisfied with the Company's decision, Government would appoint a Committee of Enquiry. There was general agreement between the Company and the men's representatives in regard to the majority of the Committee's recommendations. Some, however, of the Directors of the Company did not accept the terms. Another strike of the tramway employees of a much more protracted character broke out in 1922. It lasted from 20th December 1922 to 27th January 1923. No Committee of Enquiry was appointed, although the representatives of the men raised several points which arose from the previous inquiry. Work was resumed unconditionally.

(3) During a strike on the light railway of Messrs. Martin and Company in the 24 Parganas and Howrah which lasted from the 15th June to the 2nd July 1921, a special Conciliation Board was constituted by Government by a special resolution at the joint request of the employers and the employees concerned. The result of the Board's efforts was a compromise on most of the points raised by the workers, and as a result of the Board's recommendations it was agreed that joint works committees should be set up on the Howrah-Amta and Howrah-Sheakhala lines. Works Committees were established soon after the Board's report was published, but they failed to function owing to the men's indifference.

(4) The Bengal Legislative Council passed a resolution on the 4th March 1921 to the effect that Government should appoint a Committee to enquire into the general causes of the prevailing unrest and to suggest remedial measures. The report of the Committee was published on the 18th June 1921. The main recommendations of the Committee were—

(*a*) the establishment of joint works committees in industrial concerns;

(*b*) non-intervention of Government in private industrial disputes, which it was considered. should be settled by voluntary conciliation;

(*c*) the constitution by Government of a conciliation panel to deal with disputes in public utility services; and

(*d*) the appointment by Government of special conciliation bodies in the case of private industrial disputes, if both parties desired outside intervention.

As the result of the recommendations of this Committee, a conciliation panel was constituted under Government resolution dated the 29th August 1921. The panel contained thirty names, and was composed on a representative basis, leading public bodies being asked to recommend persons to serve on it. The panel was reconstituted every year till 1929, when it was superseded by the Trade Disputes Act. Several applications for Government intervention were received during the period of the panel's existence but in no case did Government consider that intervention was justified.

The Government of Bengal agreed with the Committee's view that there was no reason why voluntary conciliation boards, wisely constituted, should not achieve a large measure of success in labour disputes affecting public utility services, where the parties had come to a deadlock, and a solution of the disputes could only be found in the intervention of outsiders. The panel was intended to deal only with disputes affecting public utility services in Calcutta and its neighbourhood. In the settlement of ordinary labour disputes not directly affecting the public, the Committee held that it was not ordinarily the duty of Government to intervene in such disputes either directly or indirectly, but if both parties express a desire that their differences should be investigated by an impartial authority, the Governor in Council should to prepared to establish a conciliation board be deal with the matter, or to take such other action as might be suitable in the circumstances of the case.

TRADE DISPUTES LEGISLATION.

The history of the various proposals for legislation providing machinery for the prevention and settlement of industrial disputes in India covers a period of about ten years. The findings of the Industrial Disputes Committee appointed by the Government of Bombay in the year 1921 in pursuance of a Resolution moved in the Bombay Legislative Council for the appointment of a Committee "to consider and report on the practicability or otherwise of creating machinery for the prevention and early settlement of industrial disputes" has already been dealt with above. Mention has also been made of the action taken by the Government of Bombay under circumstances which led to its abandonment owing to the Government of India circularising a draft Bill as an All-India measure. The Bill circulated by the Government of India in August 1924 was very wide and comprehensive in scope and extent.

Nothing further was heard about this Bill until the end of 1925 when His Excellency the Viceroy in a speech at the Annual Meeting of the Associated Chambers of Commerce of India and Ceylon, at Calcutta, said: "The question of providing means of conciliation of trade disputes has been thoroughly explored but it would be premature to legislate on this question until the Trade Union Bill has become law." The Trade Unions Act was passed in the Legislative Assembly in March 1926 and was brought into operation with effect from the 1st June 1927.

In August 1928 the Government of India published their second Bill making provision for the investigation and settlement of trade disputes and for certain other purposes. This Bill was introduced in the Legislative Assembly with a motion for circulation on the 21st September 1928. The Bill differed in several important respects in comparison with the Government of India's original Bill of 1924. The main part of the Bill falls into three parts. Clauses 3 to 14 of the 1928 Bill related to the establishment of tribunals for the investigation and settlement of trade disputes. This part of the Bill was based generally on the British Industrial Courts Act of 1919 and its detailed provisions were adopted for the most part from clauses in that Act. The main difference was that, whereas the British Act sets up a Standing Industrial Court, the Conciliation Boards which the Bill proposed to establish were intended to be appointed *ad hoc* like the Courts of Inquiry, in order to deal with particular disputes. The object of Courts of Inquiry which would ordinarily be composed of persons having no direct interest in the disputes would be to investigate and report on such questions connected with the dispute as might be referred to them. The objects of Boards of Conciliation which would ordinarily include representatives of the parties to a dispute would be to secure a settlement of the dispute. Provisions were made so as to enable both Courts of Inquiry and Boards of Conciliation to enforce the attendance of witnesses and the production of documents. Neither party would be under any obligation to accept the finding of the Court or the advice of the Board; and in cases where the dispute is not brought to an end during the deliberations of the tribunal that had been appointed, reliance was to be placed on the force of public opinion which would be enabled by the publication of the report of the tribunal to arrive at just conclusions on the merits of the dispute.

The second part of the Bill consisted of clause 15 which related to public utility services. In accordance with the definition of "Public Utility Services" in clause 2 of the Bill, Clause 15 would be applicable to such railway services as would be notified by the Governor-General in Council. The clause made it a penal offence for workers employed on monthly wages in public utility services to strike without previous notice and also provided heavy penalties for persons abetting such an offence. The clause was based on the principle that persons whose work was vital to the welfare of the community generally should not be entitled to enter into a strike before sufficient time had been given to examine the merits of their grievances and to explore the possibilities of arriving at a possible settlement. Provisions of a somewhat similar type already exist in the Indian Post Offices Act, in a number of Municipal Acts in India, and the principle is one which is widely accepted in other countries.

Clauses 16 to 20 of the Bill contained certain special provisions relating to illegal strikes and lockouts. These clauses followed closely the provisions of sections 1, 2 and 7 of the British Trade Disputes and Trade Unions Act, 1927. They were to be applicable only in the case of the strikes and lockouts which satisfied both of two conditions: in the first place, the strike or lockout must have other objects than the mere furtherance of a trade dispute within the industry to which the strikers or employers belonged; and, in the second place, the strike or lockout must be designed to coerce Government either directly or by inflicting hardship on the community. If these conditions were satisfied, the strike or lockout would become illegal. Persons furthering the strike or lockout were liable to punishment and would be deprived of the protection granted to them by the Indian Trade Unions Act, while persons refusing to take part in it would be protected from Trade Union disabilities to which they might otherwise be subjected.

The motion for circulation was adopted in the Legislative Assembly and the Bill was circulated to all Local Governments for opinion. Some Provincial Governments recommended that questions connected with picketing and intimidation of the type which were entirely responsible for the undue prolongation of the general strikes in the cotton mills of Bombay City of the years 1928 and 1929 and the rioting in Bombay in the year 1929, should also be covered. The Bill was referred to a Select Committee of the Legislative Assembly in February 1929.

The Select Committee decided to limit the duration of the Act to five years. In connection with the definition of the term "Public Utility Services" they were of the opinion that the wide power enabling the Government to declare any industry, business or undertaking to be a public utility service was undesirable as well as unnecessary and the provision made for this in the draft Bill was omitted. Various proposals designed to lay upon the Government a definite obligation to convene a Court of Inquiry or a Board of Conciliation in cases where one of the parties so required were considered. But the Committee thought that unless both parties were agreed in desiring a reference it would be useless to fetter the discretion of the Government as to the time at which the matter was reported for action under clause 3. At the same time they held that no option should be left to the Government to refuse to appoint a Court or Board where the Government was assured that both parties were agreed as to the necessity as well as to the form which it should take. They therefore considered it necessary to provide that in every case a Court of Inquiry, where it consisted of one or more persons, should not include persons having an interest in the dispute or in any industry affected by it, and in this connection the Committee proposed a further definition of the term "An independent person." The clause relating to the publication of the findings of Courts and Boards was maintained on the lines of the English Act so as to make it quite clear that every report of a Court or Board, whether final or *interim*, must be published, and that only the publication of such information or evidence as the appointing authority thought fit should be left to its discretion. It was considered inadvisable to forbid the representation of parties before Courts and Boards by legal practitioners subject only to exceptions and they redrafted the clause in such a manner as to permit that such representation would ordinarily be permissible subject, however, to such conditions and restrictions as might be provided by the rules.

The Select Committee accepted the principle underlying the clause in connection with strikes in public utility services but they held that the clause as originally drafted was open to certain criticisms. For example, it was pointed out that many persons are actually employed upon a daily wage which is in practice paid monthly; also that the clause as provided would appear to penalise abstention from work on the part of a particular individual; and further that the clause was one-sided and inflicted no penalty upon an employer who locks out his workmen. The latter point was considered as one which should certainly be met as by the nature of his employment a casual or day-to-day labourer must be entitled to cease work at any moment and be similarly liable to dismissal and it was agreed that he should therefore be excluded altogether from the operation of this clause. The Committee adopted a suggestion made by the Government of Bombay which made it clear that the cessation of work must be in the nature of a strike as defined in the Bill and it was provided that in order to render it a penal offence the strike must be in breach of a definite contract between the employer and the workmen. The Committee added a collateral provision penalising an employer for locking out his workmen in breach of any contract. The Committee adopted the clause in connection with illegal strikes but with some amendments which, in their opinion, would restrict its scope without materially impairing its effectiveness. In sub-clause 2 of this section they made it clear that, for the application of money to be illegal it must not merely tend to further or support the strike, but have the direct effect of so doing. This was intended to exclude a case in which money is spent upon the relief of the dependants of strikers. A further sub-clause, borrowed from a similar provision from the English Act of 1927 explaining the circumstances in which a group of workmen should be deemed to be within the same trade or industry was added. The penalties provided for the instigation of an illegal strike were modified. With regard to clause 20 of the draft Bill, the Committee held that there was no sufficient justification for giving an option to the Government to apply for injunctions restraining the expense of the funds of a Trade Union in connection with an illegal strike. It was considered that under clause 16 such expenditure had been declared illegal and the persons properly interested in seeing that the funds were not mis-spent are the members of the Trade Union concerned. The Committee were of the opinion that the Bill had not been so altered as to require republication and they recommended that it should be passed as duly amended by them.

The Select Committee as such did not deal with the question of making provision for picketing and intimidation in their report but in a minute of dissent Sir Victor Sassoon, Bart., stated that the alteration of the law relating to picketing was one for which, in his opinion, the time was ripe. Picketing of any kind should be rendered illegal while a Court or Board is sitting and the law on picketing at any time should be altered to render it illegal at or near a workmen's house as under the English Law. There appeared to be some doubt as to whether legislation of this kind should take place in this Bill or by an Amending Bill to section 503 of the Indian Penal Code. It had been stated that if an amendment of this kind were passed in the Select Committee it would delay the Bill. As he did not desire to delay the acceptance of the provisions of this Bill he did not press the point which was raised by other members of the Select Committee. Sir Victor Sassoon, however, thought that suitable action should be taken by Government either when the Bill came up before the House or by bringing out an amending Bill to the Indian Penal Code to deal with this most important and necessary point. The action taken by the Government of Bombay in connection with the passing of an Intimidation Act has been dealt with in the chapter on Industrial Disputes.

The Bill as amended by the Select Committee was passed by the Legislative Assembly on the 8th April 1929 without any change and received the assent of the Governor-General on the 12th April 1929.

During the period of nearly five years for which the Act has been in operation, it has only been made use of on four occasions:

once by the Government of Bombay when they appointed a Court of Enquiry in the year 1929 to enquire into the general strike in Cotton Mills in Bombay City in that year, twice by the Government of India who appointed a Board of Conciliation in 1930 in connexion with a dispute in the Bombay, Baroda and Central India Railway which arose over the question of the transfer of a number of workmen from the Railways' workshops in Bombay to the new workshops which they were starting in Dohad, and another Court of Enquiry in 1931 to enquire into and report on the grievances of the large numbers of workers who were retrenched on all Indian Railways during that year; and once by the Government of Burma.

Royal Commission's Recommendations.—The Royal Commission on Indian labour were of opinion that some statutory machinery will be permanently required to deal with trade disputes and that it will be necessary to consider the form which such machinery should take before the Trade Disputes' Act expires in 1934. They recommend that the possibility of establishing permanent courts in place of *ad hoc* tribunals under the Act should be examined and also that the question of providing means for the impartial examination of disputes in public utility services should be considered. The Commission also recommended that Section 13 of the Trade Disputes' Act should be amended so as to provide that no prosecution or suit shall be maintainable on account of any breach of the section or any damage caused thereby, except with the previous sanction of the Government which appointed the tribunal. Act XIX of 1932, giving effect to this recommendation was passed by the Indian Legislature in September 1932.

In May 1933, the Government of India issued a circular letter to all Provincial Governments inviting opinions, after consultation with the interests concerned as to (1) whether the Indian Trade Disputes Act, 1929, should be converted into a permanent measure, and (2) what amendments, if any, should be made in the Act. The Government of India were provisionally disposed to accept the Royal Commission's recommendation to include "Inland Water Services" within the definition of a "Public Utility Service" but not "Tramway Services" because the later generally have no monopoly in transport in the areas in which they run. Opinions were also specifically invited on the following five questions: (1) whether any statutory provision should be made in the Act for the appointment of Conciliation Officers; (2) whether a permanent Industrial Court on the lines of the British Industrial Court should be framed in each Province; (3) whether strikes or lockouts should be prohibited during the pendency of a Court of Enquiry or a Board of Conciliation; (4) whether awards of Boards of Conciliations should be made binding on both employers and the employed; and (5) whether picketing either by itself or when it is resorted to while a strike has been referred to a Court or Board should be made illegal. The Government of India were also disposed to accept the recommendation made by the Commission to omit the words "between an employer and any of his workmen" in Section 3 of the Act because as this Section stands at present it requires notices of the appointment of a tribunal appointed under the Act to be sent to every individual employer affected by a dispute. The Government of India requested all local governments to send them their replies by 1st November 1933. At the moment of going to press the Legislative Assembly passed a bill introduced by the Government of India to convert the Trade Disputes Act into a permanent measure. As regards the various amendments in the provisions of the Act it is understood that the Government of India propose to introduce another bill in the Assembly sometime later. Indian labour in general has been very badly let down by the communist agitators who dominated labour platforms all over the country in 1928 and 1929 and to-day there are few labour leaders in India who can command respect and adherence from both the employers and the employed. Great labour leaders like Mr. N. M. Joshi, M.L.A., have, during the last two or three years, been engaged in fighting the cause of labour either before the Round Table Conferences in connexion with India's political future or in the Legislative Assembly in connexion with Bills and proposals for new labour legislation.

With regard to the action which should be taken by Provincial Governments the Commission recommended that every Provincial Government should have an officer or officers whose duty it would be to undertake the work of conciliation and to bring the parties privately to agreement. The Commissioner of Labour in Madras, the Director of Industries in the Punjab, the Director of Statistics and Labour Commissioner in Burma and Deputy Commissioners and the Director of Industries in the Central Provinces have already been entrusted with powers as Conciliation Officers.

INDIA AND INTERNATIONAL LABOUR CONVENTIONS.

The Preamble to Part XIII of the Treaty of Versailles refers to the fact that "the failure of any nation to adopt humane conditions is an obstacle in the way of other nations which desire to improve the conditions in their own countries." In order to establish universal peace based on social justice, the Peace Treaty not only laid down general principles in regard to questions affecting labour which were recognised by the High Contracting Parties to be of "special and urgent importance," but also brought into being the **International Labour Organisation** which was entrusted with the task of securing, as far as practicable, the observance of these principles. The International Labour Conference has been discussing various questions connected with industrial, agricultural and maritime labour since 1919 and has recorded its findings in conventions and recommendations. The Conventions and Recommendations adopted by the Conference are not automatically binding

on the State Members, but they have to be submitted to the Legislature of each country, and this secures the regular examination both by the Executive Governments and the Legislatures of schemes which international opinion considers necessary and desirable for the amelioration of labour conditions. During the seventeen Conferences that have been held, 40 Conventions have been adopted. Out of these the following thirteen have been ratified by India :—

1. Hours of work (1919).
2. Unemployment (1919).
3. Night work of Women (1919).
4. Night work of young persons in Industry (1919).
5. Rights of Association (Agriculture) (1921).
6. Weekly Rest in Industry (1921).
7. Minimum age of stokers and trimmers (1921).
8. Medical Examination of Young Persons employed at Sea (1921).
9. Workmen's Compensation (Diseases) (1925)
10. Equality of Treatment (Accidents) (1925).
11. Inspection of Emigrants on board ship (1926).
12. Seamen's Articles of Agreement (1926).
13. Weight of Packages transported by vessels (1929).

In addition to the Conventions dealt with above, the International Labour Conferences have also adopted numerous Recommendations.

The Seventeenth Session of the International Labour Conference held at Geneva from the 8th to 30th June 1933 adopted conventions in respect of (*a*) employment agencies, (*b*) widows and orphans' insurance and (*c*) invalidity and old age insurances. It also adopted Recommendations in connection with the first two subjects.

GOVERNMENT ADMINISTRATION.

During pre-Reform days Labour was not a question to which the Central or Provincial Governments in India gave the same attention as they did to such subjects as education, health or justice. After the amendment of the Indian Factories Act of 1891 in 1911, the appointment of the **Indian Industrial Commission** in May, 1916, may be considered to be the first milestone in the progressive interest taken by Government in questions connected with labour. The active participation of India in the Great War led to the 'creation of an unprecedented opportunity' and 'the emergence of an unprecedented need' for a definite industrial policy for India as a whole. The examination of various industrial questions by the Industrial Commission included, to a certain extent, the examination of questions connected with labour as well. Previous to this date no provincial or All-India inquiries of a general character were held into conditions of labour with the exception of some quinquennial censuses into agricultural wages. No information was available in 1919 as to the rates of wages which were paid in industry, and, for that matter, very little information in this direction is available even to-day. Indian labour secured its first opportunity with her participation in the signing of the treaty of peace and her becoming a live member of the international comity of nations. The participation by India, in the first International Labour Conference held at Washington in the year 1919 made it necessary for the Government of India and the Governments of the more industrialised provinces not only to consider the question of the representation of labour in the Central and Provincial Legislatures but also to allocate to special departments or offices the administration of labour questions.

Under the Devolution Rules (Schedule I, Part 2, Rule 26) industrial matters included under the heads factories and welfare of labour fall within the scope of the provincial legislatures. Under the same rules "regulation of mines" and "inter-provincial migration" are central subjects. A Labour Bureau was established by the Government of India in the year 1920 but it was abolished in March 1923 on the recommendation of the Indian Retrenchment Committee. The administration of labour matters since then has been in the hands of the Department of Industries and Labour with a Member of the Viceroy's Council holding the portfolio. Amongst Local Governments, the Bengal and the Madras Presidencies were the first in the field for the creation of special Labour Officers, but it was the Government of Bombay who took the lead in the field for the creation of a proper Labour Office for the collection and compilation of all kinds of statistics in connexion with prices, cost of living, wages, etc.

Bengal.

The Government of Bengal appointed a Labour Intelligence Officer in the year 1920. Labour laws were to be administered in the Commerce Department, but the Revenue Department continued the administration of the Assam Labour Immigration Act. The Labour Intelligence Officer was to keep a record of industrial disputes in the Presidency and also the number of labour organisations. From time to time, as circumstances permitted, he was to conduct special inquiries. He was, however, not provided with an adequate staff for the purpose. The Labour Intelligence Officer is also the Deputy

Secretary to the Government of Bengal in the Commerce Department and since the bringing into effect of the Indian Trade Unions Act, 1926, he has also been appointed Registrar of Trade Unions. The Royal Commission on Indian Labour have recommended that Bengal should have a properly staffed Labour office on the same lines and with at least the same staff as the Labour office of the Government of Bombay.

Madras.

The Government of Madras appointed a Labour Commissioner in the same year, *viz.*, 1920, to watch and study at all times the conditions of labour particularly industrial labour throughout the Presidency and to keep Government informed by periodical reports of its movements and tendencies and of the existence of any disputes between employers and employed. The settlement of labour disputes and prevention of strikes are features of his work but his interference in such disputes is limited to tendering his offices to settle them. In the case of disputes affecting the internal administration of a railway he may interfere only if both sides agree to his intervention but he must obtain the previous sanction of Government in each case. He is also the Protector of Depressed Classes in which work most of his time is occupied. On a par with the Labour Intelligence Officer, Bengal, the Labour Commissioner in Madras has also no special statistical office to deal with labour statistics and no reports have been published of any special inquiries into questions connected with industrial labour in the Presidency. Since the creation of the Office the conduct of periodic censuses into agricultural wages is, however, placed in his hands.

The Bombay Labour Office.

The real pioneer work in the field of labour information and statistics in India during the last thirteen years has been done by the Labour Office of the Government of Bombay which was established in April 1921. In the Government resolution announcing the establishment of this office the following were declared to be its functions:—

"(1) *Labour Statistics and Intelligence.*—These relate to the conditions under which labour works and include information relating to the cost of living, wages, hours of labour, family budgets, strikes and lockouts, and similar matters;

"(2) *Industrial Disputes.*—As experience and knowledge are gained and the activities of the Labour Office develop it will promote the settlement of industrial disputes when these arise; and

"(3) *Legislation and other matters relating to labour.*—The Labour Office will advise Government from time to time as regards necessary new legislation or the amendment of existing laws."

When the Labour Office was first started it was placed in charge of Director of Labour. The post of the Director of Labour was, however, abolished in 1926 and the labour office was placed under the charge of the Director of Information whose designation was changed to Director of Information and Labour Intelligence. With a view to implementing the recommendation of the Royal Commission on Indian Labour in the matter, the Government of Bombay in May 1933 again changed the designation of the Director of Information and Labour Intelligence to "Commissioner of Labour and Director of Information." With this change in designation the administrative control of the Factory and Boiler Departments was transferred from the Collector of Bombay to the Commissioner of Labour and the Commissioner of Labour was also appointed ex-officio Commissioner for Workmen's Compensation and Registrar of Trade Unions. In addition to the Commissioner there are three gazetted officers attached to the Labour Office. Two of these are Assistant Commissioners of Labour at headquarters in Bombay and the third who is called the Labour Officer at Ahmedabad is stationed at that centre. There are also three full time Lady Investigators but these are not gazetted appointments. The Assistant Commissioners, the labour Officer and all the Investigators receive conveyance allowances. The office staff contains two Statistical Assistants, three senior clerks, eight junior clerks, two stenographers, one typist, one cashier, one despatcher, one daftari and five peons in Bombay and one peon in Ahmedabad. The activities of the office comprise (1) prices and cost of living, (2) wages and hours of labour, (3) rents, (4) economic and social conditions of various communities, (5) unemployment, (6) industrial disputes, (7) trade unions, (8) other industrial and labour intelligence, (9) international labour intelligence, (10) labour legislation, (11) the *Labour Gazette*, (12) library, and (13) office organisation.

The *Labour Gazette* has been published monthly from September 1921. It is intended to supply complete and up-to-date information on Indian labour conditions and especially the conditions existing in the Bombay Presidency, and to supply to local readers the greatest possible amount of information regarding labour conditions in the outside world. The *Labour Gazette* circulates to many different countries and is perhaps the only publication of its kind in India from which foreigners interested in labour and economic conditions in India can obtain accurate and up-to-date information. It has also hitherto been practically the only medium through which the work and publications of the International Labour Office have been made regularly available to people in India. A substantial grant is allowed by the Local Government to the Labour Office for the purchase of books and the Labour Office has accumulated a very useful and fully catalogued library on labour, industrial and economic matters. The Labour Office library is open to research workers in Bombay. In addition to books, the library contains bound copies of all the more important periodical received from Labour Ministries. International organisations and research organisations in various parts of the world.

The Labour Office has conducted several **special inquiries**, the results of which have either been published in the form of special reports or as special articles in the *Labour Gazette*. Among the inquiries the results of which have been published in the form of reports

are three inquiries into wages and hours of labour in the Cotton Mill Industry in the Bombay Presidency for the years 1921, 1923 and 1926: four reports of inquiries into family budgets three of which related to working class family budgets in Bombay, Ahmedabad and Sholapur and the fourth to middle class family budgets in Bombay City. The remaining reports dealt with inquiries into agricultural wages in the Bombay Presidency, an inquiry into deductions from wages or payments in respect of fines and an inquiry into middle class unemployment in the Bombay Presidency. Other special inquiries related to wages of peons and municipal workers, welfare work, rentals in Bombay and Ahmedabad, maternity cases among women operatives, methods of wage payments, creches, clerical wages in Bombay City, incidence of sickness among cotton mill operatives, infant mortality, etc. In the *Labour Gazette* statistics are regularly published for working class cost of living index numbers for Bombay, Ahmedabad and Sholapur, wholesale prices index numbers for Bombay and Karachi, retail food prices for five important centres in the Bombay Presidency, for industrial disputes in the Bombay Presidency and for Workmen's Compensation, prosecutions under the Indian Factories Act, and the employment situation. A new working class index number has been compiled for Ahmedabad and statistics with regard to this have been published in the issues of the *Labour Gazette* since January 1930. A working class cost of living index number for Sholapur has also been published. Quarterly information is also collected with regard to all known Trade Unions in the Bombay Presidency and full information is published in the *Labour Gazette* every three months. The present staff of the Labour Office is as follows:—

Commissioner of Labour and Director of Information, Commissioner of Workmen's Compensation and Registrar of Trade Unions.—Mr. J. F. Gennings, C.B.E., Bar-at-Law, J.P.

Assistant Commissioners of Labour.—Mr. S. R. Deshpande, B. Litt. (Oxon), and Mr. N. A. Mehrban, B.A., F.S.S., Mr. Mehrban is also assistant to the Registrar of Trade Unions, Bombay Presidency.

Labour Officer at Ahmedabad:—Mr. A. S. Iyengar, B.A., LL.B.

Lady Investigators.—Mrs. K. Wagh, Miss G. Pimpalkhare and Miss S. Dabholkar. (These are non-gazetted appointments.)

The Commissioner of Labour and Director of Information has six offices under his charge: (1) The Labour Office; (2) the Information Office; (3) the Office of the Commissioner for Workmen's Compensation, (4) the office of the Registrar of Trade Unions, (5) The office of the Chief Inspector of Factories; and (6) the office of the Chief Inspector of Boilers. In the case of the Office of the Registrar of Trade Unions one Asst. Commissioner of Labour has been appointed as Assistant to the Registrar of Trade Unions and the office work is done by a Statistical Assistant and a junior clerk from the staff of the Labour Office. The Information Office is under the administration of the Home Department. The Labour Office was under the administration of the Home Department till the year 1925, but it was transferred to the General Department and is now under the control of the Political and Reforms Department.

Central Provinces.

The Department of Commerce and Industry is the administrative authority which deals with all labour questions. The Revenue Department deals with mines. The Department of Industries under the Director of Industries is in immediate charge of all matters relating to labour. He is also Registrar of Co-operative Credit Societies and Registrar of Trade Unions. The Factory Office is under the general supervision of the Director of Industries. There is no special Labour Office or Labour Officer in the Central Provinces but the factory staff is utilised for collecting such information on labour questions as may be required from time to time. A Board of Industries consisting of representatives of the employers and the employed has been in existence since the year 1914 and all matters affecting the interests of labour are considered by this Board. But the Board acts purely in an advisory capacity.

Other Provinces.

In Burma a Labour Statistics Bureau with a Special Officer in charge was set up in 1926. This Bureau has conducted an extensive investigation into the standard and cost of living of the working classes in Rangoon, the Report of which was published in 1928. In the Punjab the Director of Industries is the administrative officer for all acts concerned with labour. In the United Provinces almost all departments of the Local Government deal with labour questions. Labour as such is with the Home Member, electricity is with the Finance Member, the factory staff is under the immediate control of the Director of Industries who is under the Minister of Education and Industries and Boiler Inspection is under the Public Works Department. The Registrar of Co-operative Societies of the United Provinces has been appointed Ex-officio Registrar of Trade Unions in the Province. In Assam the main question connected with labour is that concerning the recruitment of labour for the tea plantations from other provinces. As inter-provincial migration is a Central subject, the Local Government are not very actively interested in the special consideration of other labour questions.

Representation on Legislatures.—The Government of India nominates one member for labour interests in the Legislative Assembly. Since the last reforms were brought into operation Mr. N. M. Joshi, of the Servants of India Society, has been continuously nominated as labour member in the Legislative Assembly. In the Bombay Presidency the Local Government had provided one seat for labour, and Mr. S. K. Bole was nominated as the labour member in the first two Councils after the reforms. In 1927 the Local Government increased the number of seats for labour to three but the principle of nomination was maintained. The three persons representing labour interests in the Bombay Legislative Council at present are Messrs. S. K. Bole, Syed Munwar and R. R. Bakhale. In the

Central Provinces, Mr. R. W. Fulay, a Nagpur pleader, has been nominated as a representative of urban factory labour. In Bengal there have been two nominated members to represent labour interests since the introduction of the reforms. The Assam Government reserves one seat for the nomination of a member to represent labour but it has been found impracticable to find any one who could adequately represent this constituency and therefore the seat is vacant in the present Assam Legislative Council.

Relation between Central and Local Governments.—It has already been stated above that under the Devolution Rules, factories, settlement of labour disputes and welfare of labour are reserved subjects. These subjects are, however, subject to central legislation. The provincial legislatures are not debarred from initiating legislation on these matters but they can only do so with the previous sanction of the Governor-General in Council. The actual administration of the Acts passed by the central legislature under the above heads falls on the Local Governments who have to bear the entire cost of administration, as it is not permissible under the constitution to incur any expenditure from central revenues on the administration of provincial subjects. This constitutional position is perhaps, to some extent, responsible for the opposition shown by some of the Local Governments to labour measures on which their opinions have been invited by the Government of India during recent years. The Governor-General in Council exercises control over the administration of the Acts passed by the legislature in two ways: in the first place he is vested by Statute with the general power of superintendence, direction and control, and, secondly, these Acts in most cases either reserve certain powers to him to make the powers conferred on Local Governments subject to his control. The general principle observed by the Government of India has been to grant to the provinces as free a hand as possible in the administration of the various All-India Acts.

Effect of differences in Law in Indian States and British India.—Few Indian States have any labour legislation but most of them are of little industrial importance. The only States which have more than 8,000 persons employed in factories and mines are Hyderabad, Mysore, Indore, Baroda, Jammu and Kashmir, Gwalior and Travancore. Most of these States have a Factories Act which, however, is much below the standard of the corresponding Act in British India. In recent years there has been a tendency on the part of certain capitalists to endeavour to evade the provisions of the Factory Law in British India by establishing mills or factories in the territories of Indian States.

Recommendations of the Royal Commission.—The most important recommendation made by the Royal Commission on Indian Labour in connexion with Government administration of matters connected with labour is for the setting up of an Industrial Council which would enable representatives of employees of labour and of Governments to meet regularly in conference to discuss labour measures and labour policy. It is suggested that the Council should meet annually and its President should be elected at each annual session. The Secretary of the Council should be a permanent official responsible to it for current business. The functions of the Council would be (1) the examination of proposals for labour legislation referred to it and also to initiate such proposals; (2) to promote a spirit of co-operation and understanding among those concerned with labour policy, and to provide an opportunity for an interchange of information regarding experiments in labour matters; (3) to advise the Central and Provincial Governments on the framing of rules and regulations; and (4) to advise regarding the collection of labour statistics and the co-ordination and development of economic research. If Labour Legislation is made a Central subject in the new constitution of India, the Royal Commission recommend that the authority finally responsible for such legislation must be the Central Legislature. If Labour legislation is to be decentralised, some co-ordinating body will be necessary. The decisions of the Council could not be given mandatory power, but in certain circumstances it might be made obligatory for Provincial Governments within a specified time to submit proposals for legislation to their respective legislatures for a decision as to their adoption or rejection.

The Commission recommended that Labour Commissioners should be appointed both for the Central and in all the Local Governments except Assam. Labour Commissioners should be selected officers who should hold the appointment for a comparatively long period. They should be responsible for the publication of labour statistics, should have the right to enter all industrial establishments and should be generally accessible both to employers and labour and should act as conciliation officers. Where there is danger of establishments being transferred to Indian States in order to escape regulation, an effort should be made to obtain the co-operation of the adjoining states. The Commission also recommended that the possibility of making labour legislation both a federal and a provincial subject should receive adequate consideration; and that if federal legislation is not practicable, efforts should be directed to securing that, as early as possible, the whole of India participates in making progress in labour matters. For States in which there is appreciable industrial development, the Industrial Council should offer a suitable channel for co-operation.

With regard to the question of representation of labour on the legislatures the Royal Commission recommended that if special constituencies are to remain a feature of the Indian constitution labour should be given adequate representation in the Central and Provincial legislatures. The method which is most likely to be effective in securing the best representatives of labour is that of election by registered trade unions. A special tribunal should be set up in each province to determine before election the weight which should be given to each registered trade union. The question was examined by the Indian Franchise Committee and so far as the Provincial Councils are concerned the communal award of His Majesty's Government has given effect to the Labour Commission's recommendation. The Franchise Committee recommended a combination of trade union constituencies and special constituencies.

Domestic Servants.

The relationship of master to servant in India is a subject to which attention is frequently directed in the Press by complaints about the alleged deterioration of domestic servants and the hardships to which employers are subjected by the boycotting action of discharged servants. The remedy most commonly propounded for misbehaviour on the part of servants is registration with a view to checking the use of false testimonials, or "chits," and to enabling masters to obtain certain information as to the character of the persons they employ. This mode of procedure is of German origin, for the old Prussian Servants' Ordinances (Gesindeordnung) were supplemented in 1854 by a law, applying only to agricultural labourers and domestic servants, which punishes breach of contract, and since then various State laws dealing with domestic servants have been passed in Germany. The conditions are not, however, analogous for the servant keeping class in India is proportionately larger than in Europe, as also is the number of servants kept by each individual.

The first attempt in the East to deal with the problem by legislation was made in **Ceylon.** The act dealing with the registration of domestic servants in that Colony is comprised in Ordinance No. 28 of 1871. It extends to all classes of domestic servants, hired by the month or receiving monthly wages, and the word 'servant' means and includes head and under-servants, female servants, cooks, coachmen, horsekeepers and house and garden coolies. The Act came into operation in 1871 and empowered the Governor to appoint for the whole of the Island or for any town or district, to which the Ordinance is made applicable, a registrar of domestic servants, who is to be under the general supervision and control of the Inspector-General of Police. A registry is kept by the registrar of all domestic servants employed within his town or district, and he has to enter therein the names of all the servants, the capacities in which they are employed at the time of such registration, the dates of their several engagements and such memorandum of their previous services or antecedents as they may desire to have recorded in the register. But the registrar must, previous to his entering all these details, satisfy himself as to the credibility of the statements made to him. Any person, who may not have been a domestic servant before, but who is desirous of entering domestic service, has to submit an application to the registrar, and if the registrar is satisfied that there are reasonable grounds to believe that the applicant is a fit and proper person to enter domestic service he shall enter his name in the register, recording what he has been able to learn respecting the person's antecedents together with the names of any persons who are willing to certify as to his respectability. If the applicant is unable to produce satisfactory or sufficient evidence as to his fitness for domestic service the registrar may grant him "provisional" registration, to be thereafter converted into "confirmed" registration according to the result of his subsequent service. If the registrar is satisfied that the applicant is not a fit and proper person he should withhold registration altogether, but in such a case he must report his refusal to register to the Inspector-General of Police.

Every person whose name has been registered in the general registry is given a pocket register containing the full particulars of the record made in the general registry. No person can engage a servant who fails to produce his pocket register or whose pocket register does not record the termination of his last previous service, if any. On engaging a servant the master has to enter forthwith in the pocket register the date and capacity in which such servant is engaged and cause the servant to attend personally at the registrar's office to have such entry inserted in the general registry. Similarly, in case the master discharges a servant he must insert in the pocket register the date and cause of his discharge and the character of the servant. Provided that if for any reason he be unwilling to give the servant a character or to state the cause of his discharge he may decline to do so. But in such a case he must furnish to the registrar in writing his reasons for so refusing. If the servant on dismissal fails to produce his pocket register the master must notify that fact to the registrar. Whenever any fresh entry is made in the pocket register the servant is bound to attend the registrar's office to have such an entry recorded in the general registry. Every servant whose name is registered shall, if he subsequently enters service in any place not under the operation of the Ordinance, attend personally at the nearest police station on his entering or leaving such service and produce his pocket register to the principal officer of police at such station in order to enable the police officer to record the commencement or termination of the service. The police officer has then to communicate it to the registrar of the town or district in which such servant was originally registered.

Various **penalties of fine** as well as of imprisonment are imposed for violation of any of the acts required to be done or duties imposed by the Act on the various persons mentioned below. As respects masters if they fail to fulfil any of the duties imposed on them by the Act they expose themselves to a liability of their being fined to the extent of Rs. 20. Similarly a servant, who fails to fulfil any of the duties imposed on him by the Act is liable to pay a fine not exceeding Rs. 20. But in case he gives any false information to the registrar or to any other person on matters in which he is required by this Ordinance to give information, he is liable to a fine not exceeding Rs. 50 or to imprisonment, with or without hard labour, not exceeding 3 months. A fee of 25 cents is charged to the master on engaging a new servant, a like fee of 25 cents is charged to the servant on his provisional registration, or on registration being confirmed, or for registration of previous service or antecedents. But in case of loss or destruction of the pocket register the servant has to pay one rupee for the issue of a duplicate pocket register.

A similar Ordinance (No. 17 of 1914) has been introduced in the **Straits Settlements,** where its operation has been limited to such local areas as may be declared by the Governor in Council, and its application within such areas has been restricted to the class of householders who are expected to desire the benefit of the provisions.

Sea Routes between India and Europe.

The Indian port for the direct journey to and from Europe is Bombay. There are ordinarily five lines of steamers by which the journey to and from the West *via* Bombay can be performed, either by sea all the way, or—and in some cases only—by sea part of the way and by rail across Europe. They are the P. & O., the Anchor Line, the City and Hall Line and the Lloyd Triestino. The Natal line steamers are available for Western passages only, the steamers sailing round the Cape on their Eastward voyages. There are ordinarily other services between Calcutta and the West, by steamers sailing round Ceylon, and several lines connect Colombo with Europe. Of the latter the Orient, the Messageries Maritimes, the Bibby Lines, N.Y.K., Australian Commonwealth, and Royal Dutch Lines are the chief besides the P. & O. The Bibby and Henderson services extend to Rangoon. The new railway between India and Ceylon greatly increases the importance of the Colombo route for Southern India. The shortest time between London and Bombay is 15 days *via* Marseilles. The following are the fares which are convertible at approximately current rates of exchange:—

Peninsular and Oriental S. N. Co.

Fares from Bombay or Karachi.	1st Saloon.				2nd Saloon.	
	A.	B.	C.	D.	A.	B.
Free passages (single and return) are granted between Karachi and Bombay by British India Steamer.	£	£	£	£	£	£
To Plymouth or London by sea, Single	78	72	66	60	48	42
" " Return	136	126	116	106	84	74
To Marseilles, Single..	74	68	62	56	44	38
" Return	129	119	109	99	77	67
To Malta, Single	68	62	56	50	42	36
" Return	119	109	99	89	74	64
To Gibraltar, Single	76	70	64	58	46	40
" Return	133	123	113	103	81	71

By the **British India S. N. Co.** fares to London by sea from Madras are:—Single 1st saloon £60; 2nd saloon £44. Return £105 and £77.

By the **Anchor Line** fares to Liverpool from Bombay or Karachi are:—1st saloon Rs. 800 single and Rs. 1,400 return. To Marseilles:—Rs. 747 and (return from Liverpool) Rs. 1,354.

By Ellerman's **"City" and "Hall" Lines** fares from Bombay or Karachi to Liverpool, are:—

Cabin class (Minimum) Marseilles Single Rs. 453, Return Rs. 787, Liverpool Single Rs. 493, Return Rs. 867.

Calcutta to London:

1st class Single Rs. 760, Return 1,333, 2nd class Single Rs. 627, Return Rs. 1,093, Cabin class, Single Rs. 653, Return Rs. 1,147.

By **Bibby Line** fares from Rangoon to London:

1st saloon single £68 return £117.

Rangoon to Marseilles, 1st saloon single Rs. 840. Rangoon to Marseilles, 1st saloon return Rs. 1,470.

The Bibby Line fares from Colombo are as follows:—

Colombo Marseilles single Rs. 710, return Rs. 1,240. Colombo London single Rs. 760, return Rs. 1,335.

The Bibby Line steamers carry 1st class passengers only.

By **Henderson Line** fares from Rangoon to Liverpool, 1st saloon are:—single Rs. 775 return (available for 4 months) Rs. 1,150, (available for 2 years) Rs. 1,375.

By **Lloyd Triestino Line** fares from Bombay to Brindisi, Venice or Trieste are:—1st class £65, 2nd class £45. Return rates available for 2 years at one and three-fourth fares. 100 days return tickets. 1st class, £86 and 2nd class, £65.

Sailings from Bombay Twice Monthly.

INDIAN TRAIN SERVICE.

The distances and railway fares from Bombay to the principal centres of other parts of India are as follow:—

	Miles.	1st Class.	2nd Class.
		Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.
Delhi, B. B. & C. I. Railway, *via* new Nagda-Muttra direct route	865	83 4 0	44 2 0
Delhi, G. I. P. Railway, *via* Agra	957	88 4 0	44 2 0
Simla, *via* Delhi	1,220	125 14 0	63 6 0
Calcutta, G. I. P., from Bombay, *via* Jubbulpore & Allahabad	1,549	130 15 6	65 8 6
Calcutta, G. I. P., from Bombay, *via* Nagpur	1,223	123 1 6	61 9 6
Madras, G. I. P., from Bombay, *via* Raichur..	794	90 2 0	45 1 0
Lahore, *via* Delhi	1,162	120 13 0	60 6 0

CIVIL AVIATION.

The development of internal aviation services in India was first essayed by Lord (then Sir George) Lloyd, during his Governorship of Bombay (1918-23). Lord Lloyd succeeded in securing the inauguration of a postal mail service between Karachi and Bombay. This was carried in R.A.F. machines. The use of these aeroplanes complicated the matter from the outset. The service was not warmly supported by the public. The effort failed.

The general attitude of the Government of India for some time after this was that as no air services in the world had yet been run without a Government subsidy and as India had no money available for such a purpose, a general development of air services in India must await more prosperous times. The pressure of external conditions in favour of Indian aerial enterprise gradually increased. The inauguration of French and Dutch postal services across India, as well as the institution of a regular weekly between England and Karachi, and the general increase of civil aviation in all parts of the world and of visits of flyers of different nations to India, stimulated both Government and public opinion. India became a party to the International Air Convention and under this was obliged to provide ground facilities for aircraft from other countries.

The problem of internal air services was freshly taken up by the Government of India in the Department of Industries and Labour when Sir Bhupendranath Mitra was member of Government for that portfolio. Force of circumstances had already necessitated the appointment of a Director of Civil Aviation and the first holder of the post was Lt.-Col. F. C. Shelmerdine, O.B.E.

Non-official members of the Assembly, under the leadership of Dr. Moonje, then an elected member, for some time strongly pressed Government to institute a practical system for the training of young Indians in Civil Aviation. They foresaw that the development of civil aviation in India was only a matter of time and their great desire was to prevent it following in the wake of the mercantile marine and the commissioned ranks of the army, in which Indians came to the fore under modern conditions only in time to be faced with competition by Britishers who were first in the field. The upshot of this agitation was an arrangement by which young Indians might be sent to England for training with a view to their future employment in the Civil Aviation Department as aerodrome officers, inspectors of aircraft and engines, etc. Eight lads were dispatched for the opening of this system. Others followed and results have been successful. These men are not trained primarily as commercial pilots, but a development of their training, if they show special aptitude and desire to adopt a pilot's career, is always in view. This is a wise precaution and some of them take pilot's certificates. All of them receive a certain amount of training as pilots and they also go through a post-graduate course at the Imperial College of Science and Technology and a period of attachment to selected aircraft works and to the London Terminal Aerodrome at Croydon. The course lasts for two years and three months, during which time the men receive scholarships amounting to £240 per annum. A condition of eligibility for these scholarships is that applicants must possess a B.Sc. degree in engineering or physics.

Interior Postal Service.—Sir Bhupendranath Mitra was in due course obliged to reconsider the question of assisted internal aerial services in India. An arrangement was made by which the Imperial Airways' Service between Croydon and Karachi was, on 30th December 1929, extended to New Delhi, mails from and for Europe being carried to and fro each week. This conveyance of mails between New Delhi and Karachi was performed under a special arrangement, the chief point of which was that the service was conducted by the Postal Department of the Government of India

and that Imperial Airways chartered to them machines for the purpose. This meant, in effect, that the Western service of the Airways Company continued to Delhi, but that technically the service from Karachi eastwards, belonged not to them but to the Government of India. Passengers as well as mails were carried. On the expiration of the period for which the contract on these lines was arranged, the Government of India decided not to renew their charter with Imperial Airways and adopted the alternative course of contracting with the Delhi Flying Club to carry the weekly Karachi-Delhi air mails —here no passengers to and fro. This, like the earlier special arrangement with Imperial Airways, was obviously a transitional plan. It came into operation early in 1932. It filled the need of the moment, pending the development of a permanent scheme.

Before Sir Bhupendranath Mitra could critically develop the matter, he was succeeded in charge of the Departmental portfolio by Sir Joseph Bhore and the latter entered with enthusiasm into the problem. Its solution was largely assisted by a great deal of spade-work carried out by Col. Shelmerdine before he resigned his appointment as D.C.A. in order to take up the corresponding one in England. A scheme was worked out under the direction of Sir Joseph Bhore for the institution of a weekly air-service between Karachi and Calcutta in connection with the weekly arrivals and departures of air mails conveyed by Imperial Airways, Ltd., from and to England. If the Government of India had at this time taken no steps towards the organisation of a service of the kind, they would have been unable to prevent Imperial Airways or some other non-Indian concern from establishing one and the authorities in India were determined that civil aviation within India should be Indian in character, either through the development of private enterprise or through the institution of Government-owned services.

The arrival of acute financial stringency following on the world depression, necessitated the abandonment of the Government Karachi-Calcutta service in 1931. Four Avro-10 aeroplanes had already been purchased for the service and they were sold, one of them being purchased for the use of Their Excellencies the Earl and Countess of Willingdon, who had newly arrived in India on the appointment of the Earl to be Viceroy. Efforts were then directed to alternative methods of attaining the desired result and in 1933 an arrangement for the purpose was carried through. In the new scheme there was organised in India a company known as Indian National Airways, Ltd. Its successful institution was largely the result of the efforts of Mr. R. E. Grant Govan, O.B.E., of New Delhi. This Company received the assistance of Imperial Airways, Ltd. Into the programme thus devised there also entered the Government of India. The upshot of this was the institution of **Indian Transcontinental Airways,** Ltd., a corporation of which 51 per cent. of the capital is contributed by the Government of India and the remainder by Indian National Airways and Imperial Airways, Ltd. Its business is solely to conduct between Calcutta and Karachi a fortnightly service to connect, at Karachi, with the Imperial Airways Western Air Service and at Calcutta with the service organised by Imperial Airways to cover the distance between Calcutta and Singapore, at which point another service is being organised under the auspices of the Australian Government to carry on to Australia.

In the alternative weeks between the fortnightly flights of the Indian Transcontinental Airways machines, the Trans-India Service is carried by Imperial Airways. The new Karachi-Calcutta route was inaugurated during the summer of 1933 and the extension by Imperial Airways to Singapore was established in the following winter. The Australian extension is not yet in operation.

Indian National Airways, besides being concerned in this trunk service also undertake the development of branch or feeder internal services. They have hitherto established weekly services each way between Calcutta and Rangoon and Calcutta and Dacca, respectively. Meanwhile, private enterprise for the development of internal air services strongly developed in Bombay City and before the institution of Indian National Airways there was established by Tata, Sons & Co., a weekly service each way from Karachi *via* Bombay to Madras. Various important developments by both these organisation are contemplated.

Instruction in Aviation.—Instruction in Aviation is given in India only through Clubs founded for the purpose. There are nine of these. Above them is the Aero Club of India and Burma, Secretary Wing Commander A. R. C. Cooper, which exercises control and general co-ordination of activities under the Director of Civil Aviation with the Government of India. The nine instructional clubs are the Delhi, U.P., Bengal, Madras and Bombay Flying Clubs, Karachi Aero Club, Northern India Flying Club, Lahore, Jodhpur and Kathiawar Flying Club. (A Punjab Flying Club at Lahore, lost its three aeroplanes in crashes and had to wind up. Its place has been taken by the Northern India Flying Club). The institution of two other clubs in the C.P. and Hyderabad Deccan respectively is in prospect.

The Club movement dates from March 1927, when, as a result of the interest taken in the subject by Sir Victor Sassoon, Bt., M.L.A., it was discussed by the Indian Legislative Assembly. An encouraging atmosphere was thus created and in the same month the Aero Club of India was formed, composed of about 40 members of the Assembly. Its first meeting was held in Simla in September of the same year and during the next three months 100 more members of the Assembly and 197 other members joined. Strong committees were then formed in Delhi, Calcutta, Bombay and Allahabad, with the object of developing interest in the movement and in order to utilise the Government grants which were at this time proposed and the formation of local clubs followed. The Aero Club entered into an agreement with the Royal Aero Club of Great Britain and thereby became its official representative in India and Burma.

The Government of India, in December, 1927, received from Sir Victor Sassoon a letter saying that subject to a grant of Rs. 30,000 to the Aero Club for the year 1928-29 and a grant of Rs. 20,000 to each club, formed, he would bear any deficit between the Club's income and expenditure until the grants became available. This they agreed to and they further announced that they would provide for each club an initial equipment of two aeroplanes, a spare engine and a contribution towards the cost of a hanger where no hanger was already available. These grants commenced as from the 1st April 1928, and were to continue for two years. Agreements were entered into between the Secretary of State and the Aero Club and between him and the provincial clubs, laying down the conditions of financial assistance. Moth aeroplanes manufactured by the De Haviland Aircraft Co. were selected as the training machines. Eight of these arrived in December 1928, and training with them began in January 1929.

The first Indian air-race was flown over a Delhi-Agra-Jhansi-Lucknow-Agra-Delhi course in February 1932, and was very successful. There was a similar race over approximately the same course in February 1933, when the entries were good and included two competitors who specially came out from England for the contest and the event was again completely successful. The 1934 race was flown with Cawnpore as its centre.

Director, Civil Aviation.—Mr. F. Tymms, M.C.

Deputy Director, Civil Aviation.—Mr. A. T. E. Eadon.

THE SUEZ CANAL.

The report of the Suez Canal Company for 1932 reflects an aggravation of the economic crisis throughout the world. Traffic receipts at £137,000,000 were less by 15 per cent. against which a further reduction in working expenses was secured of £26,000,000, making a total reduction of £45,000,000 or 20 per cent on the working cost of 1930. In order to provide a gross dividend of 510*f.* per share it was necessary to draw on the extraordinary reserve for £11,000,000. The volume of traffic at 28,340,000 tons was less by 5.6 per cent. than the total for 1931 and of the last tonnage 15,721,294 or about 55½ per cent. was accounted for by British shipping. The weight of goods transported through the Canal was only 23,632,000 tons against 25,332,000 tons in 1931, and thus fell below the average of the three years immediately preceding the war. Many vessels which, when trade was on a larger scale, would have been sent laden through the Canal, had to be despatched from the United Kingdom to Australia in ballast, and were directed, in order to save expenses, to proceed by the long sea-route.

Improvement Schemes.—It was announced in 1914 that from and after January 1st, 1915, **the maximum draught of water** allowed to ships going through the **Suez Canal** would be increased by 1 ft., making it 30 ft. English.

The maximum permissible draught of ships using the Canal was 24·4 feet in 1870; in 1890 ships drawing 25·4 feet could make the passage; and during the following 24 years the increase has been at the average rate of about 1 foot every six years, thus bringing the maximum draught authorized to 29 feet.

The scheme of improvement adopted by the Company on the recommendation of the International Consultative Committee of Works, the British representatives on which are Sir William Matthews and Mr. Anthony Lister, is a comprehensive one, and the details suggest that it will meet the needs of the big ship.

A 40 Feet Channel.—The declared policy of the Canal Company in regard to the deepening of the Canal is to offer a slightly greater depth of water than that available in ports east of Suez. It is claimed that, with the exception of Sydney, there is no eastern port which at low tide has a greater depth of water than that now provided in the Canal throughout the full length of nearly 105 miles. In any case the work in hand should meet the needs of any ship likely to be built for the eastern trade during the next few years.

When the Canal was opened in 1869, the width was 72 feet and the depth about 26 feet 2 inches, in June, 1913, the width at a depth of 32 feet 8 inches had been increased to a minimum of 147 feet 6 inches over a length of about 85 miles. and to a width of 328 feet over a distance of about 20 miles. The latest scheme makes provision for a depth of 40 feet throughout and for a widening up to 196 feet 8 inches in the south section, and the cutting of an appropriate number of sidings in the north and central sections, where a minimum width of 147 feet 6 inches is believed to be sufficient for the requirements of the immediate future.

The work of enlarging the capacity of the Canal presents no special difficulty on the engineering side. A good deal of sand is occasionally driven into the channel at Port Said during storms, but a remedy for this will be found in extension of the west breakwater by about 2,700 yards at a cost of over £6,000,000. The construction of this extension, which has been in hand for the past two years, is making satisfactory progress. The Suez Roads are being adequately dredged in accordance with an agreement between the Egyptian Government and the Company.

Almost up to the end of 1915 the works for extending the jetty to the west of Port Said, works of capital importance for the **protection of the entry** to the Canal were pushed on uninterruptedly. In November, however, for want of hydraulic lime, the manufacture of artificial rocks for this jetty was interrupted. The submarine foundations in stone and rubble of the new jetty were, as a matter of fact, completed to a length of 2,500 metres; the protective blocks were laid for 1,040 metres, and cemented for over 800 metres. The protection of the Channel is thus secured, and there is no need of any apprehension as to its future.

Travel in India.

Thirty years ago, a tour in India was possible only to the wealthy, the leisured and those who had friends in the country. The cost of the journey was very high, the methods of transportation were very slow; and the facilities for travel were so indifferent that he was a bold man who consigned himself to the mercies of the country without a sheet of letters of introduction. Now the mail which is posted in London on Thursday night, reaches Bombay in 14 days, and the passenger can travel by the same route and with the same speed as the mail. It is also possible to reach Bombay in 11 days from Genoa or Venice by means of the Lloyd-Triestino line. A dozen lines have covered the sea route between Europe and India and Ceylon with a plexus of regular services while Imperial Airways have a weekly service from Croydon to Karachi and from there the Indian State Air Service takes you to Delhi and before long it is hoped to Calcutta. The Indian Railways provide facilities on the trunk lines equal to many of the best services in Europe and the Indian hotel has grown into a really comfortable caravanserai.

The traveller to India has a choice of many ports by which he may enter. To the majority of visitors from Europe and the West, Bombay provides their first glimpse of India, while others enter by Calcutta, Madras and Karachi and *via* Colombo.

Owing to its geographical position Bombay is known as the Gateway of India through which for more than a century, the import and export trade of India has largely passed. Ash-purple against the dawn, the spurs of the Western Ghats, thrones of mystery, stand sentinel about the inner sanctuary of Bombay Harbour. Among and above these mountain heights Wellington fought the battles which earned for him his early military greatness. Every schoolboy knows the story of the Mahratta campaigns; they are but one—the Mahrattas —of the races within races that populate this vast country where two hundred and twenty-two different vernaculars are spoken. There is never an end to the land of India. You will find life in its most up-to-date form and next to it the customs and habits of a nation which have not changed for hundreds of years. Life will surge past you in a picturesque procession. You will hear a medley of strange sounds—the tinkle of the temple bells, the throb of the drum, the chant of the 'muezzin' announcing that God is Almighty and Mohammed is his Prophet, the song of the Sharma, the cry of the wild beast in the jungle. The tropical sun blazing like a ball of molten gold in a turquoise sky, the silver moon sailing across the purple vault of heaven will awaken in you feelings which you have never known before. If the visitor seeks variety and picturesqueness, there is no region in all the world so full of vivid colour, of populous cities, of buildings designed by master architects of bygone days, of diverse races, of absorbing subjects for study and observation such as the customs, religions, philosophy and art of one of the oldest civilisations.

To the true lover of nature, the botanist and the naturalist, India can offer every charm in forest, mountain, valley, cultivated plain, and wild waste.

To the sportsman, it can furnish sport such as few countries can give; the tiger in the forest, the great mahseer in many rivers, the wily snipe on the jheels, the strong winged duck, the jinking pig and many another kind.

To the mountaineer, the Himalayas offer the highest mountains in the world and some of the few famous peaks which are still unclimbed.

To the statesman, businessman or politician who seeks rest and change without idleness, India presents a sense of busy administration, a nation in the making and an experiment such as has never before been tried.

Bombay itself is cosmopolitan like many of the world's great ports and in it you will find jostling each other in the streets representatives of half the races of mankind. The Towers of Silence and the Caves of Elephanta are among the sights to be seen. Elephanta is one of those delightful islands which are freely scattered upon the waters over which Bombay reigns as Queen.

But Bombay is a gateway and through it many interesting trips await the visitor and northwards to Delhi he has the choice of two routes either by the G. I. P. Railway *via* the Ellora and Ajanta Caves, Sanchi, Gwalior, Agra and Muttra or by the B. B. & C. I. Railway *via* Baroda and through Rajputana with its famous cities of Mount Abu, Udaipur, Ajmer and Jaipur to Agra and Muttra. If you decide to go by the G. I. P. Railway route, you will find at Ajanta frescoes which rival many of the old frescoes found in Europe while at Ellora are the most wonderful caves in the world, mountains cut into colossal sanctuaries. You will be able to compare the work of the Buddhists, the Jains and the Brahmins and learn more of Indian mythology than many hours of study will give you. At Sanchi are Buddhist buildings dating back to 150 B.C. The stone carvings are remarkable and are well worth a visit. As you proceed further north, Gwalior is reached. The great Fort of Gwalior has been described by Fergusson as "the most remarkable and interesting example of a Hindu palace of an early age in India." Seventy miles further on lies Agra and of all the romantic cities of India, Agra must surely come first for it contains that crowning glory in marble, the **Taj Mahal.** Generations have come and gone since that far day when that most splendid of emperors Shahjehan bowed his head before his wife's coffin in the vault of the finished Taj. The building is better known than any other in the world. Visit it by moonlight and later by

daylight if you must. By moonlight its seduction is irresistible. Sit on the steps by the entrance gate and watch the moon drift above the trees and the ring of silver light stealing round the base of the dome and creeping gently upwards to the pinnacle. See it also in the fading evening light when amber and rose and gold, the sun sinks in the west behind the crenelated ramparts of Agra Fort. If you must visit it in the broad light of noonday then forget the first view from the gateway and wander awhile about the gardens where you will find exquisite glimpses of snowy structures so light and graceful that they seem to rest on air; of buoyant cupola and climbing campanile. Here is grandeur as well as beauty.

The Taj Mahal, however, is only one of the many interesting sights of Agra, and its Fort, Itmad-ud-Daulah's Tomb, Akbar's Tomb, 5 miles from Agra, and Fatehpur Sikri, the deserted city of Akbar about 23 miles distant are all well worth a visit. No other fortress in the world presents so great an appearance of knightly splendour, of proud and noble dignity or, with a more sovereign grace, crowns its red bastions with so wonderous a collection of palaces, mosques, halls of state, baths, kiosques, balconies and terraces as Agra Fort, a mile and a half in circumference, with walls 70 feet high faced with red sandstone. The vigorous style of decorative architecture that Akbar introduced into his red sandstone palaces was embellished by his grandson Shah Jahan who was largely responsible for the delicate inlay work and the low reliefs in white marble. There are no buildings to equal these except those found in the Palace in Delhi Fort which Shah Jahan built when he transferred his headquarters to Delhi. Akbar's vigorous but supremely attractive style appears at its best in Fatehpur Sikri which he built in his joy at the realisation of his fondest hopes when his son Jahangir was born.

There in the year 1569 A.D. on a lonely eminence, Akbar founded his city and there began to rise as if by magic those great battlemented walls, the magnificent palaces and courtyards, the great mosque and the other superb specimens of the skill of the Moghul stone-masons which stand to this day a source of endless wonder and admiration to visitors.

The traveller moves northward past Muttra and Brindaban, famous places of Hindu pilgrimage due to their association with the birth and early life of Lord Krishna, until Delhi is reached. **Delhi,** the capital of India, in days gone by and now the Imperial Capital of India, has no rival in greatness, as all men know that he who holds Delhi holds India. Here the visitor will find much that will interest and enthrall him. Here he can trace the growth and fall of dynasty after dynasty, here he will find some of the best examples of the work of the Moghal Period at its zenith as he wanders with muffled feet in the great courtyard of the largest mosque in India, the Juma Masjid, or in Shahjahanabad, the Fort and Palace of Shahjahan whose halls rival those of the palace in Agra Fort with their delicate inlay work in marble and their gardens. Here are crumbling memorials of the Mutiny, Hindu Rao's house, the Kashmir Gate beneath which some still salute dead Home and Salkhed as they pass, the tree encumbered sites of redoubt and battery, Nicholson's grave, Asoka's pillar, the site of the great Durbar.

Kutab, the first of the so-called seven cities of Delhi with its Kutab Minar, 238 feet in height, erected in the 12th century A.D. of red and cream sandstone overlooks the plain where many of the pages of history were written. The Kutab Minar, tapering from the base to the summit, is divided by five corbelled balconies while on the fluting is carved an intricate design in which are introduced verses from the Koran. In the main courtyard stands the famous pillar of solid wrought iron devoid of rust and dating back to about 400 A.D. Visitors to Delhi should not miss seeing the Kutab for it is unique in India.

New Delhi, the eighth city of Delhi, is worthy to rank with its seven predecessors, Kutab, Siri, Tughlakabad, Jahanabad, Firozabad, Puarana Qila and Shahjahanabad, the present day Delhi. Here you find an example of town planning carried out by some of the leading architects and engineers in the world on a site where they could start with a free hand.

If you decide to take the route northwards from Bombay *via* Rajputana, then you will see another but equally interesting side of India. Rajputana, the land of chivalry, attracts the visitor as few places do. Alone at **Udaipur** is there, in its perfection, the fairy palace of one's childhood, just such a long cataract of marble terraces and halls falling into the waters of a mountain encircled lake, as the illustrator of an Andrew Lang fairy book delights to draw.

Mount Abu, the Rajput Olympus, combines the delights of a hill station with one of the historic homes of the gods. The Dilwara Temples, the masterpiece of Jain architecture, contain some of the finest carvings in India. Forests of marble columns, carved and polished till they resemble Chinese ivories, are linked by flying arches that twist and twine from pillar to pillar like exquisite creepers, softening outlines and producing the effect of a symphony of graceful movement.

Northwards from Delhi is the Punjab and the North-West Frontier Province whence most of the recruits for the Indian Army come. Here you will find Amritsar, the home of the Sikhs, Lahore, one of the most ancient and famous cities of India, the Khyber Pass, the historic gateway into India from the North, the flourishing cities of the Canal Colonies which have risen up since British Engineers have harnessed the waters of the Punjab "the Land of the Five Rivers" which formerly ran to waste and many another city. Through the Punjab also you will travel to reach Kashmir, famous since the days of the Moghul Emperors.

The glory of Amritsar is the Darbar Sahib (the Golden Temple). The pavements of the sacred tank are all of marble from Jaipur and the tank itself contains a sheet of water 510 feet square. In the midst approached by a marble causeway, rises the Golden Temple, nearly cubical in form and decorated with wonderful richness.

Lahore grew in importance with the dawn of Moghul supremacy when Babar, the founder

of that dynasty, made it a place of Royal Residence, reminiscences of which are to be found to-day in the pleasure gardens, tombs, mosques and pavillions of Moghul architectural beauty which have won undying fame for that dynasty here and elsewhere in India.

Khyber Pass, the great natural highway into India through the almost impregnable mountain barrier of the North-West Frontier, is rich in historical association and has from time immemorial been the route by which conquering hosts have passed into India to disturb the peace of her people and continually alter their destiny. It is still the great trading route between India and the Central Asian States. On Tuesdays and Fridays when the continual string of caravans of great shaggy camels laden with merchandise, accompanied by stern, strong and picturesquely dressed men with their women and children from Central Asia are moving to and from Afghanistan, the pass presents a most interesting and unique sight.

Kashmir, described by poets as "an emerald set in pearls" is a land of rich forests and upland pastures, of slow flowing rivers and glittering mountain torrents, ringed with an almost unbroken girdle of mountain snow capped all the year. If you can imagine Venice set in the heart of Switzerland, that is Srinagar, the capital of Kashmir. Life is good as you glide along the face of the lakes in a houseboat when the lotus flower is out and the banks are one mass of colour with the snow-capped mountains in the background. When days are warm on the lakes, a trip can be made up the valleys and you can live in Arcady and see the bear in his native haunts and the mountain deer on the hill tops.

For those who have arrived at Delhi *via* Bombay an interesting return trip can be made *via* Benares and Calcutta. Many visitors, however, enter India *via* Calcutta and from here also many interesting tours can be made.

Calcutta, one of the first trading ports of the British East India Company in India, was founded by Job Charnock; it is now the second largest city in the Empire. Its public buildings, the Indian museum, the Fort, the Jain Temple, the Hindu bathing ghats along the river front, the Hindu shrines, are all worthy of attention.

Before winding your way towards Delhi trips should be made to Darjeeling to see the roof of the world and Mount Everest, the highest mountain and to Puri, the home of the famous temple of Jagannath. The ambition of every visitor to Darjeeling is to see Mount Everest, the world's highest peak, and, in order to do so they must travel some 7 miles away, past Ghoom station to Tiger's Hill (8,514 ft.) as from Darjeeling the mountain is not visible. The best time to see sunrise on Mount Everest is in the early Spring or late Autumn. Then at the end you will find a view unequalled in any other part of the world. Twelve peaks over 20,000 feet with the awe-inspiring Kanchanjunga in the centre are spread out before you.

Puri also is an easy run from Calcutta. There in front of the gate of the temple is the famous black marble pillar, one of the most beautifully worked things in India with a tiny figure of the Dawn on its capitol. Incongruous as it may seem, in Puri all caste vanishes. The significance of this can be understood only by those who know India. Once a year the image of Vishnu is carried in procession upon the famous Jagannath cars to the Garden Temple. These cars, 45 feet high, standing on solid wooden wheels, seven feet in diameter, are dragged along by the devotees.

Twenty miles north of Puri, along the sea coast, or 54 miles by motor road stands the Black Pagoda at Konarak, the temple of the Sun God Surya.

On the road to Delhi, the visitor will travel through the Gangetic plain, one of the most fruitful areas of India. Here he will find cities sacred to the Hindus such as Budh Gaya and Benares, cities intimately connected with the mutiny like Lucknow and Cawnpore and other flourishing cities.

Budh Gaya is one of the most famous and most interesting of all the sacred sites of the Buddhists for it is the scene of the "Great Renunciation" and the Enlightenment of Gautama afterward named Buddha. It marks the site of his long penance and his final victory over worldly desire.

Benares is reputed to be the oldest city in India, but there is no authentic record how old it is except that it is mentioned in those two great Hindu epics, the Mahabharata and the Ramayana, which deal with events long before the Christian era. Benares is, however, one of the most holy cities in India for the Hindu, and its spiritual significance is shown in the quotation: "Happy is the Hindu who dies in Benares, for he is transported at once to Siva's Himalayan Paradise on Mount Kailasa, north of Lake Manasa, where the great three-eyed ascetic seeing the past, the present and the future, sits in profound meditation."

Benares rests on the banks of the Ganges and floating down the river in a boat the sight of Aurangzeb's Mosque and the many picturesque temples and ghats recalls to one's imagination through the dim vistas of time the endless processions of devout people wending their way down the narrow lanes to the temples with fragrant garlands to hang round the necks of the gods or to wreathe in solemn devotion the emblem of Siva's divinity.

About 4 to 5 miles away from Benares lies Sarnath where Buddha preached his first sermon after obtaining divine wisdom at Gaya and in the adjoining Deer Park is a Museum of Archæology of vivid interest.

Lucknow is a city hallowed by memories of a grim struggle, of heroic deeds and noble sacrifice; its appeal to the Westerner is influenced by its historical connections, its beautiful buildings and the mysterious glamour so closely associated with the East. Legend connects the founding of the city with Lakshmana, son of King Dasaratha of Ayodhya and brother of Rama, the mythical hero of the Ramayana, the epic poem of the Hindus; but Lakshmanpur or Lucknow as it is now called was at its greatest under the five Kings of Oudh (1732-1856).

All visitors wend their way to the Residency and pay homage to the gallant band who held it during the Mutiny against terrific odds

until relieved by Sir Colin Campbell. The deeds of Lawrence who was in command until he was killed and of Havelock who made his historic but unsuccessful attempt to rescue the garrison and was himself besieged are well-known.

Cawnpore is one of the most important industrial cities of India and here you will find up-to-date factories, a symbol of the West with the teeming bazaars where business is still carried on as it has been done for generations.

Northern and Central India is, however, not the only interesting part of India and the South can show you sights unlike those in any other part of the World. South India is a land of temples, full of the most wonderful carving while Mysore, one of the most progressive Indian States, can show you fine buildings, falls higher than Niagara and wonderful scenery.

Madras is the capital of the Madras Presidency and the third largest town in India, and the Presidency includes that part of India which was one of the first in which English and other foreign nations settled. The visitor will still find in the large houses belonging to the merchant Princes with their far spreading compounds, in the conveyances still used by the local inhabitants and in the scenery, which is the India of the old picture books, traces of what India used to be when first the English settled there.

Mysore commemorates in its name the destruction of Mahashasura, a minotaur or buffalo headed monster by Chamundi, the form under which the consort of Siva is worshipped as the tutelary goddess of the ruling family. Mysore State is a picturesque land of mountain and forest presenting the most diversified and beautiful scenery. The Capital which bears the same name as the state is a city with many fine buildings and a visitor to India who wishes to see the working of an up-to-date Indian States situated among wonderful scenery cannot do better than visit Mysore. Elephants range throughout the southern forests and from time to time keddah operations are undertaken when wild elephants are captured in stockades. Tigers, leopards and bears are numerous and bison are found in certain forests. The famous Gersoppa Falls present one of the most beautiful sights of wild untarnished nature to be found in India. Many of the temples contain examples of the finest carving, and Seringapatam famous as the capital of Tippu Sultan and about nine miles from Mysore is well worth a visit. For those who are travelling from Bombay to Colombo an interesting trip can be arranged *via* Mysore.

At **Madura** and Trichinopoly will be found examples of some of the best and most interesting work in South India.

Madura has been aptly described by European scholars as the "Athens of South India" and from time immemorial has been the abode of South Indian culture in all its aspects.

It contains one of the finest and largest temples in South India and unlike many other temples the tourist is allowed to wander without restrictions over most of it. Near Shiva's shrine and in the hall of Mantapam of a Thousand Pillars can be seen some of the finest carving in stone in all the world. The workmanship is so fine, the chiselling so delicate that one is lost in silent admiration as one looks at the representations of the Hindu Pantheon and at the graceful figures of men, women and animals.

Trichinopoly is noted for its rock temple and about three miles away is Srirangam with its famous temple which is claimed as the earthly abode of Vishnu the Lord of Creation.

No one visiting India should miss the opportunity of seeing **Burma** for it is a country of extraordinary charm, a country of contrasts. Whatever be your hobby, whatever be your interest, be it sport, history, ethnology or botany, or should you be merely fond of beautiful scenery you will find a greater variety in Burma than in probably any other country. You can see huge snowy ranges and alps spangled with rhododendrons and flowers unknown to science. You can find magnificent jungles almost impenetrable to man, bordering rushing torrents, or yet against you can see emerald green paddy fields and great winding rivers in the plains. Should you be adventurous and seek the wilder regions, you will find great gaps in the frontier unvisited by civilised men and peopled by head hunters, Chins, Nagas and the fierce Black Lisu. Yet you will also find civilisation in the big cities like Rangoon and Maymyo. Rangoon, the capital, is of special interest in that it possesses the famous Shwe Dagon Pagoda, the Sacred Golden Pagoda visited by more pilgrims than any other Buddhist Temple in Indo-China.

This short account of India is not intended to be comprehensive and does not even mention many of the interesting places to be visited, but it is hoped that it will give some indication of the wonderful pageantry, the magnificent buildings of an older age, the sport, and the many things of interest which India and India alone can offer.

December, January and February are the most pleasant months for a visit to India. The days are pleasantly cool and except on the seaboard the nights are cold. India speaking broadly has no winter except in the far north. It is a land of sunshine and colour. But the traveller arriving before November or staying in the country beyond the month of March must expect to find the tropical sun asserting its sway unless he wends his way to fair Kashmir or to one of the hill stations of India; Simla, the summer capital of India, Darjeeling the delightful or one of the many others situated among the hills of India.

Standard Tours.

The planning of an itinerary for an Indian or Burman tour will depend upon the port of arrival, the port of departure, personal desires of the party and the time available. Any of the leading tourist agencies such as Thos. Cook & Son, Ltd., the American Express Co., Cox's & King's (Agents) Ltd., Army & Navy Stores, Grindlay & Co., etc., and the Publicity Officers of all the more important Railways as well as the Manager, Indian Railways Publicity Bureau, 57, Haymarket, London, and the Resident

Manager, Indian Railways Publicity Bureau, "Delhi House", 38 East 57th Street, New York, will work out tours to suit the convenience of individual parties. Many of the leading tourist companies will also arrange for inclusive and conducted tours. There are certain places, which are very well-known such as Delhi, Agra, Benares, Darjeeling, Jaipur, the Khyber Pass, Kashmir and Mysore, but there are innumerable other places almost as well known containing sights which cannot be equalled in other parts of the world. Puri, Lucknow, Amritsar, Udaipur, Mount Abu, Gwalior, Ellora and Ajanta Caves and Madura are a few of them while in Burma, Mandalay and, the famous old cities of Ava and Amarpura nearby are well worth a visit.

A selection of itineraries for long and short tours in India and Burma is given below. These show what can be seen in certain periods of time, but they can be varied to suit individual parties or taken in the reverse direction.

Tour No. 1.—4 weeks.—Bombay, Udaipur, Jaipur, Peshawar, Lahore, Amritsar, Delhi, Agra, Cawnpore, Lucknow, Benares, Darjeeling and Calcutta.

Alternatives (*a*) Puri and Konarak in place of Darjeeling.
(*b*) Gwalior, Sanchi, Ellora and Ajanta Caves in place of Jaipur and Udaipur.

		1*st*	2*nd*	Servants 3*rd.*
Total fare (approximate) on the basis or return tickets at 1½ single fares Calcutta—Darjeeling and Delhi—Peshawar.	Rs.	361–8	186–4	65–12
	£	27	14	5
	$	120	62	20

Tour No. 2.—2 weeks.—Bombay, Udaipur, Jaipur, Delhi, Agra, Gwalior, Sanchi and Bombay. Alternative: Benares in place of Gwalior and Sanchi.

		1*st*	2*nd*	Servants 3*rd.*
Total fare (approximate)	Rs.	192	96	32
	£	15	7–10	2–10
	$	69	34	11

If the alternative is taken, the fares are increased by about one-quarter.

Tour No. 3.—1 week.—Delhi, Lahore, Amritsar, Peshawar and Delhi.

		1*st*	2*nd*	Servants 3*rd.*
Total fare (approximate) on basis of return tickets at 1½ single fares.	Rs.	90	45	16–2
	£	7	3–10	1–5
	$	25	13	4

Tour No. 4.—10 days.—Bombay, Poona, Mysore, Madras, Trichinopoly, Madura and Colombo.

		1*st*	2*nd*	Servants 3*rd.*
Total fare (approximate)	Rs.	212	107	39
	£	16	8	3
	$	66	34	12

NOTE.—If extra time can be allowed at Mysore, Somnathpur, Gersoppa Falls and Ootacamund can be visited.

Tour No. 5.—2 weeks.—Colombo Madura, Madras, Mysore, Ootacamund, and Colombo.

		1*st*	2*nd*	Servants 3*rd.*
Total fare by train (approximate).	Rs.	222	124	45
	£	20	10	3–10*
	$	63	32	11

NOTE.—An interesting trip can be made after leaving Ootacamund *via* Cochin where the white Jews live, along the backwaters to Alleppey and Quilon by motor launch and motor car, down to Trivandrum, the capital of Travancore, by train, and by motor car to Cape Comorin, the southernmost point of India and, back *via* Trivandrum and Madura to Colombo. This would take about seven days.

* Motor Mysore-Ooty from Rs. 75 additional per car.

Tour No. 6.—1 week.—Rangoon, Mandalay, Gokteik Viaduct, Mandalay—Rangoon.

	1st	2nd	Servants 3rd.	Revised fare by rail.
Total fare (approximate).	Rs. 70	35	12	1st ret. 102-3-0
	£ 5	3	1	2nd ,, 51-2-0
	$ 25	13	4	3rd ,, 17-2-0

NOTE.—Many interesting trips off the beaten track can be made in Burma, but special arrangements are necessary.

For any visitor landing in Calcutta, it is possible to visit Benares, Agra, Delhi, Jaipur, Bombay, Mysore, Madras, Trichinopoly and Madura and still reach Colombo on the 14th day, but this entails sightseeing by day and travelling most nights and is not recommended for the ordinary visitor. A very attractive tour can, however, be worked out for a similar trip over a period of four weeks either allowing more time at the more important places or including other of the places mentioned in Tours 1 and 4 such as Darjeeling, Puri, the Khyber Pass, Lahore and Amritsar, Udaipur, etc.

Travelling in India is not expensive when the long distances travelled are taken into consideration. The first, second and Indian servants fares are shown at the end of each tour. Hotel expenses average about Rs. 15 (22/6 or 5¼ dollars) per person a day except when special rates are charged during certain special periods, while a motor car for the day can be hired for Rs. 25 to Rs. 30 (38/6 to 45/or 9 or 11 dollars) a day in most places, except when long distances have to be covered. Where the distances are short, tongas and two-horsed landaus can be used and the daily charges vary from Rs. 3-8 to Rs. 9 (5/- to 13/6 or 1¼ to 3¼ dollars). Guides with a good knowledge of English can be obtained from Rs. 5 to Rs. 10 (7/6 to 15/- or 2 to 4 dollars) a day.

HOTELS IN INDIA, BURMA, CEYLON AND MALAYA.

AGRA.—Cecil, Laurie's Great Northern, Imperial.
AHMEDABAD.—Grand.
ALLAHABAD.—Grand.
BANGALORE.—New Cubbon, West End, Lavender's, Central.
BARODA.—The Guest House.
BENARES.—Clark's, de Paris.
BHOPAL.—Bhopal Hotel.
BOMBAY.—Grand, Majestic, Taj Mahal, Regent.
CALCUTTA.—Continental, Grand, Great Eastern, Spence's.
CAWNPORE.—Civil and Military, Berkeley House.
COONOOR.—Glenview.
DARJEELING.—Grand (Rockville), Mount Everest, Park.
DELHI.—Cecil, Clarke's, Maidens, Swiss.
GWALIOR.—Grand.
GULMARG (Kashmir)—Nedou's.
JAIPUR.—Jaipur, Kaiser-i-Hind, New.
JODHPUR.—Jodhpur State Hotel.
JUBBULPORE.—Jackson's.
KARACHI.—Carlton, Bristol, Killarney, North Western.
KHANDALLA.—Khandalla.
KODAIKANAL.—Carlton, Wissahickon.
KURSEONG.—Clarendon.
LAHORE.—Faletti's, Nedou's.
LUCKNOW.—Carlton, Burlington, Hiltons, Royal.
MADRAS.—Connemara, Bosotto, Spencer.
MAHABLESHWAR.—Race View.
MATHERAN.—Rugby.
MOUNT ABU.—Rajputana.
MUSSOORIE—Cecil, Charleville, Hakman Grand Savoy.
MYSORE.—Metropole, Carlton.
NAINI TAL.—Grand, Metropole, Royal.
OOTACAMUND.—Savoy.
PATNA.—Grand.
PESHAWAR.—Deans Hotel.
POONA.—Majestic, Napier, Poona, Connaught House.
PURI.—B. N. Railway Hotel.
QUETTA.—Stanyon's.
RAWALPINDI.—Flashman's.
SECUNDERABAD.—Montgomery's, Percy's.
SHILLONG—Pinewood.
SIMLA.—Cecil, Grand, Clark's, Corstorphan's.
SRINAGAR (Kashmir).—Nedou's.
SHIVAPURI.—Shivapuri.
UDAIPUR.—Udaipur.

Burma.

RANGOON.—Allandale, Minto Mansions, Royal Strand.
MAYMYO.—Lizette Lodge.
KALAW.—Kalaw.

Ceylon.

ANURADHAPURA.—Grand.
BANDARAWELA.—Bandarawela, Grand.
COLOMBO.—Bristol, Galle Face, Grand Oriental.
GALLE.—New Oriental.
HATTON.—Adam's Peak.
KANDY.—Queen's, Suisse.
NUWARA ELIYA.—Carlton, Grand, Maryhill St. Andrew's.
MOUNT LAVINIA.—Grand.

Malaya.

IPOH.—Station, Grand.
KUALA LUMPUR.—Empire, Station.
PENANG.—Eastern and Oriental, Runnymede.
SINGAPORE—Adelphi, Europe, Raffles, Sea-View, Riviera.

Hill Stations.

In India especially during the months of April and May, and at Christmas time, everybody tries as much as possible to take a holiday in the hills. Being anything from 2,000 to 8,000 feet above the level of the sea and difficult of access for motor traffic, the hill stations are delightfully cool and peaceful. Here one can usually ride, walk, play tennis and golf, or simply laze in beautiful surroundings and forget all about the trials of work and prickly heat. These are the principal hill stations in alphabetical order:—

Darjeeling. (8,000 ft.)—From Darjeeling the highest mountain peaks in the world can be seen. The temperature averages 2° above that of London all the year round; that is, it neither exceeds 80° in summer nor falls below 30° in winter. Darjeeling is the summer seat of the Government of Bengal. To reach it, the traveller must start from Calcutta by taking train to Siliguri, a journey of 10 hours. From Siliguri the journey is completed either by motor or hill railway in about 6 hours. The principal hotels in Darjeeling are the Mount Everest, the Grand (Rockville), and the Park.

Kangra Valley.—The Kangra Valley is situated about 100 miles east-north-east of Lahore at the foot of the Dhaula Dhar Range of the Himalayas. There are magnificent landscapes and many historic temples and buildings. The visitor must take train from Lahore to Pathankot where he changes over the newly-opened narrow-gauge railway running between Pathankot and Jogindarnagar in Mandi State. Places to stay at are Dalhousie, Dharmsala and Kangra. The best hotels at Dalhousie are Stiffle's Grand View and the Arraumoor; and at Dharmsala the Switzes's.

Kashmir.—Perhaps the most famous beauty spot in the world can be reached by taking train (either G. I. P. or B. B. & C. I.) from Bombay to Rawalpindi (about 48 hours) whence the remainder of the journey is accomplished by motor. The average height of the valley is about 6,000 feet, and it is entirely surrounded by the lofty, snowy outer ranges of the Karakoram and Himalaya. Visitors usually stay either at Srinagar or Gulmarg. At Srinagar one can live at Nedou's Hotel or in boarding houses, or one can hire a houseboat and live on the River Jhelum. At Gulmarg Nedou's is the only hotel. As at Srinagar visitors usually take up their quarters in wooden huts rented through the Srinagar agencies or in tents.

Kodaikanal. (7,000 ft).—Regarded by many as the most beautiful of South India's hill stations, is situated on the precipitous southern side of the Palni Hills overlooking the plains. Reached by metre-gauge from Madras to Kodaikanal Road and thence by a 4 hours' motor run. The Carlton is the principal hotel. There are also boarding houses.

Matheran. (2,500 ft).—The nearest hill station to Bombay, ideal for walkers and any body wanting rest and quiet. Reached by taking train from Victoria Terminus, Bombay, to Neral (about 1½ hours) whence Matheran may be reached by hill railway (2 hours) or by pony, rickshaw, or on foot by a good walker. Stay at the Rugby Hotel.

Mahableshwar. (4,500 ft.—Until recently, when expenditure had to be cut down, the summer seat of the Government of Bombay. Those who do not motor the whole way from Bombay, a distance of about 180 miles, usually take train to Poona and then hire a car from Poona to Mahableshwar. Mahableshwar is noted for its delightful vegetation: orchids and lilies bloom in April and May. Hotels:—Race View and Frederick.

Mount Abu. (4,500 ft.)—An ideal place for combining the pleasures of a mountaineering holiday with the interests of an archæological excursion. Reached by B. B. & C. I. trains to Ahmedabad, thence by metre-gauge to Abu Road, whence the journey is completed by car. The Rajputana Hotel is recommended. There is also a Dak Bungalow containing four furnished rooms, permission to use which must be obtained from the Assistant Engineer, P.W.D., Mount Abu.

Murree. (7,000 ft.)—The summer headquarters of the Northern Command. Magnificent views and walks. Visitors take train to Rawalpindi whence they complete the remaining 37 miles by car. The principal hotels are the Cecil and the Viewforth.

Mussoorie. (7,500 ft.)—Much frequented on account of its exceptionally fine climate. Reached from Bombay by G. I. P. or B. B. & C. I. trains to Dehra Dun, a journey of 35 hours, where it is necessary to change over to motor which reaches Mussoorie about two hours later. The leading hotels are the Cecil, Charleville, Hackman's Grand, and the Savoy.

Naini Tal. (6,500 ft.)—Is the summer residence of the Governor of the United Provinces. From Bombay there are two ways of getting there. The first is to take either G. I. P. or B. B. & C. I. train to Muttra, thence by metre-gauge to Kathgodam, and thence by motor (2 hours). The second route which takes about 5 hours longer is to take G. I. P. train to Lucknow and then change over to the metre-gauge railway. The Grand, Metropole and Royal are the best hotels.

Ootacamund.—Familiarly known as Ooty is situated on the famous Nilgiri Hills at an altitude of 7,500 feet. The mean average of temperature for the year from sunrise to sunset is 57.33 degrees. Ootacamund is the administrative centre of the District and the seat of the Madras Government for six months of the year

from April to September. Reached either by taking train to Mysore (40 hours from Bombay) and then changing to motor-car for five hours, or by taking train to Mettupalayam *Via* Madras and thence by hill railway to Ootacamund. The principal hotels are the Savoy and Cecil.

Pachmari. (3,500 ft.)—Situated on a plateau in the Mahadeo Hills, is the summer quarters of the Government of the Central Provinces. A delightful hot-weather health resort. Reached by G. I. P. railway to Pipariya *Via* Jubbulpore, and a two hours' motor journey. The best hotel on the Hill.

Simla. (7,000 ft.)—The summer headquarters of the Government of India, is situated on several small spurs of the lower Himalayas. Towards the end of September, and in October and November Simla enjoys the best climate in the world. Reached from Bombay by taking G. I. P. or B. B. & C. I. train to Kalka and thence either by hill railway or motor. There are many good hotels and boarding houses. The leading hotels are the Cecil, Clarks, Corstorphans, Grand, Gables (at Mashobra) and Wildflower Hall (Mahasu).

CLIMBING IN THE HIMALAYAS.

Owing to their immensity and the time and cost involved in undertaking expeditions into the Himalayas a great deal of mountaineering and exploration remains to be done in the world's highest mountain range. There are over fifty summits of 25,000 ft. and of these only one, Kamet (25,447 ft.) has been scaled, whilst there are immumerable lesser summits of such formidable difficulty, owing to the comparatively recent geological formation of the range, that judged by modern mountaineering standards the majority are inaccessible. The highest peak is Mount Everest, which by latest measurements is 29,141 ft. Next come Kanchenjunga and K2, both about 28,150 ft., though which is the higher of the two is not certain.

Pioneer Climbers.—Mountaineering in the Himalayas began some eighty years ago when surveyors crossed high passes and scaled peaks in the course of their work. Among these pioneers must be mentioned the Schlagintweit brothers, who in 1855 reached a height of 22,329 ft. on the Eastern Ibi Gamin, one of the subsidiary peaks of Kamet, whilst I. S. Pocock of the Survey of India set up a plane table at 22,040 ft. in the same district. Another notable early explorer was the famous botanist Sir Joseph Hooker who, in 1849, explored the Sikkim valleys of Kanchenjunga and made attempts to climb Kangchenjau, 22,700 ft. and Pauhunri, 23,180 ft. Some remarkable explorations were also carried out by the Pandits of the Survey of India. Among these men was Babu Sarat Chandra Das who traversed the Jonsong La, 20,200 ft.

Later in the nineteenth century came Sir Martin (now Lord) Conway who, in 1892, made explorations in the Karakoram Himalayas, particularly in the region of the Baltoro Glacier the greatest of Himalayan glaciers, and climbed a peak of 23,000 ft. Sir Francis Younghusband also made explorations in the Karakorams and accomplished the first crossing of the Karakoram Pass. The Duke of the Abruzzi also made a number of expeditions into this range and reached a height of 25,000 ft. on the Bride Peak. Mountaineering developed rapidly in the "nineties", and a bold attempt was made by A. F. Mummery, Professor N. Collie and Brigadier-General the Hon. C. G. Bruce to climb Nanga Parbat. In a final attempt on the mountain Mummery and his two Gurkhas were lost. In 1899 D. W. Freshfield made the first circuit of Kanchenjunga and explored the Nepal side of the mountain.

A New Phase.—Meanwhile, thanks to Brigadier-General Bruce, Gurkhas, and later Sherpas and Bhotias were trained for mountaineering and, with the advent of first class porterage, Himalayan mountaineering entered on a new phase. Dr. and Mrs. Bullock Workman made a number of expeditions into the Karakorams and W. W. Graham made a number of remarkable ascents, with Swiss guides, including an ascent of Kabru, 24,000 ft., which has been the subject of much controversy. Kabru was later attempted by two Norwegians, Messrs. Rubenstein and Monrad Aas who got within a few feet of the top.

The present century opened with a number of remarkable ascents by Dr. A. M. Kellas, who died during the 1921 Everest expedition. He climbed several great peaks including Kangchenjau, Pauhunri and Chomiomo and made expeditions to the Central Himalayas where, with Colonel H. T. Morshead he reached in 1920 an altitude of 23,500 ft. on Kamet.

In 1907 Brigadier-General Bruce, Dr. T. G. Longstaff and A. L. Mumm explored the Garhwal Himalayas and reconnoitred Kamet. After this Longstaff, with the Swiss guides Alexis and Henri Brocherel, ascended Trisul, 23,406 ft. which, until the Jonsong Peak, 24,344 ft., was climbed in 1930 remained the highest summit reached. In 1911 and 1912 attempts were

made to climb Kamet by C. F. Meade and his Swiss guides and a height of 23,500 ft. was gained. Captain Morris Slingsby also attempted Kamet at this time.

Attempts on Kanchenjunga.—The first attempt on Kanchenjunga was made in 1905 but ended in disaster, Lieut. Pache and three porters being killed by an avalanche. The second attempt in 1929 was made by a solitary American, E. F. Farmer, who lost his life. In the same year a determined attempt was made by a party of Bavarian Mountaineers led by Paul Bauer. A height of over 25,000 ft. was reached on the north-east spur before bad weather forced the party to retreat.

In 1930 a fourth attempt was made by an International expedition led by Professor G. Dyhrenfurth. The party attempted the mountain from the Nepal side, but were repulsed by an ice avalanche which killed one of the porters. Subsequently, they ascended a number of peaks including the Pamthang Peak, 23,200 ft. and the Jonsong Peak 24,344 ft.

The fifth attempt in 1931 was made by Bauer and his party, but failed at a slightly greater elevation than was attained in 1929. One of the party H. Schaller and a porter were killed by a fall during the expedition.

In the summer of 1931 a party of young British climbers led by Mr. F. S. Smythe succeeded in reaching the summit of **Mount Kamet** (25,447 ft.) the highest mountain peak, though not the highest altitude ever reached by man.

Mount Everest.—A description of the attempts to climb **Mount Everest,** the highest mountain in the world, may be divided under three headings: the reconnaissance expedition of 1921; the first attempt in 1922, and the second in 1924. A still further attempt is being made at the time of writing, in April, 1933.

The preliminary expedition for the reconnaissance of the approaches to Mt. Everest, carried out its work in the most complete manner under the leadership of Lt.-Col. C. K. Howard-Bury. The approaches to Mt. Everest on all its northern faces were thoroughly examined, and relations were established with all the local authorities. On the information and experience of the reconnaissance expedition the second expedition to Everest was organised and set off the following year under the leadership of Brig.-Gen. the Hon. C. G. Bruce. Capt. G. I. Finch and Capt. J. G. Bruce succeeded with the help of oxygen in reaching the height of 27,300 ft. During this expedition seven men were killed when an avalanche swept them over an ice cliff some 60 feet high.

The 1924 expedition was again commanded by Brig.-Gen. Bruce. But owing to his ill health Lt.-Colonel E. F. Norton took on the command. Lt.-Col. E. F. Norton and Dr. T. H. Somervell reached a height of 28,200 feet. Then a final attempt was made by G. L. Mallory and A. C. Irvine. They were assisted by a supporting party consisting of N. E. Odell and J. de V. Hazard. On June 6th they left the 25,000 feet camp with three porters who carried loads for them up to 26,800 ft. On June 8th they left camp for their attempt and were never seen again. On June 10th for the third time Odell climbed up to the 27,000 feet camp but could find no sign of Mallory and Irvine, and communicating with Norton evacuated the mountain.

The expedition of 1933 followed a successful effort by Lt.-Col. J. L. R. Weir, Political Officer in Sikkim, to obtain the permission of the Tibetan Government for a further attempt to climb the mountain. An **Everest Committee** was formed under the aegis of the Royal Geographical Society and the Alpine Club and Mr. Hugh Ruttledge, formerly of the I.C.S., accepted its invitation to take charge of an expedition. Included in it as members were Mr. F. S. Smythe, leader of the successful Kamet Expedition of 1931, and Capt. E. St. J. Birnie, E. E. Shipton and Dr. C. R. Greene climbed Kamet with Mr. Smythe in 1931. The Expedition reached Calcutta in February and forthwith proceeded to its main task.

The expedition established its base camp in the Rongbuk Valley on April 17th and on April 21st. Camp I was established. Thenceforward the expedition was dogged by exceptionally bad pre-monsoon weather which greatly hindered the establishment of camps and made the ascent to the North Col. 23,000 ft. prolonged and arduous work. Camp IV, 22,800 ft. was not established until the middle of May after a 40 feet ice wall on the North Col slopes had been climbed. The expedition was equipped with wireless which enabled weather reports to be received from the meteorological authorities at Alipore. One installation was at Darjeeling, one at the base camp and a third at Camp III, 21,000 ft. Camp III was linked to the North Col by field telephone so that messages could be received up to 23,000 ft. from the plains of India in a short space of time.

Owing to a series of blizzards and high winds Camp V was not established until May 22nd. But it was pitched at 25,500 ft. several hundred feet higher than previously. The party was then cut off for three days by a furious blizzard and eventually had to retreat to Camp IV. The Camp was re-established on May 28th and on May 29th. Wyn Harris, L. Wager and J. L. Longland continued the ascent and finally pitched Camp VI at 27,400 ft., 600 ft. higher than in 1924, after a magnificent effort on the part of the porters. Longland then brought the porters down but had a terrible time in a blizzard and only by exercising great mountaineering skill steered them down to Camp V. The following morning Wyn Harris and Wager made a reconnaissance of the route to the summit and failing to discover a route along the crest of the north-east ridge finally followed the same route as Norton in 1924. They were stopped by dangerous conditions at 28,100 ft. and returned to Camp VI where they met Shipton and Smythe who had come up from Camp V, after which they descended to Camp V. The following morning Shipton and Smythe were unable to leave Camp VI owing to a high wind but on June 1st they made their attempt on the summit.

An hour and a half after leaving the Camp Shipton had to return owing to some internal trouble. Smythe carried on alone and reached approximately the same point as Wyn Harris

and Wager before he was forced to retreat owing to the deep powdery snow resting on the steep slabs. Shipton descended to Camp V the same day in very bad weather and Smythe spent a third night at Camp VI descending to Camp IV next day in a blizzard. Owing to frostbites, strained hearts, and high altitude deterioration the party had to retire to the base camp. A week later they returned to Camp III to make another attempt. Owing, however, to the breaking of the monsoon this had to be abandoned and the expedition returned to Darjeeling.

Aerial Expedition.—An interesting aside to the exploration of Everest was an aerial expedition undertaken in 1933 for the purpose of photographing the mountain from the air. This venture was financed by Lady Houston. Major L. V. S. Blacker, formerly of the Guides, was its leader and in charge of its survey work, Lord Clydesdale chief pilot, Flt. Lt. A. McIntyre second pilot and Major P. T. Etherton its London manager. Two specially equipped aeroplanes, adaptations of the well-known Wapiti, were provided. A special point in their equipment was the provision of compressed oxygen for supply through gas masks to the aviators at high altitudes. The expedition was not permitted to fly across the Tibetan frontier, so as to circle Mt. Everest, but both machines successfully flew over the peak and several good photographs were taken of it. By permission of the Nepal Government a line of flight from Purnea, the base of the expedition, across Nepal territory to Mt. Everest, was taken and along this good survey photographs as the somewhat poor visibility at the time of the flight, in April, permitted.

An interesting mountainflight of which details were published in 1933 was one from Risalpur to Gilgit and back, undertaken by the R. A. F. at Risalpur in the course of its routine duties in October, 1932. The expedition was commanded by F. Lt. Isaac and was made by five of the machines ordinarily in use by the Force. The distance from Risalpur by way of the Indus Valley and past Nanga Parbat to Gilgit is 286 miles. It was covered in 2 hrs. 20 mins. on the outward flight and in 2 hrs. 5 mins. on the return journey. From Gilgit the machines further proceeded upon flights over the Hunza, Nagar and Rakiot areas. Brilliant photographs of Nanga Parbat and Rakaposhi, as well as of other places of importance or interest, were taken.

The year 1932 saw a well organised expedition to Mount Nanga Parbat. It was conducted by Dr. Merkl, of Munich, and included Lt. R. N. Frier, of the Gilgit Scouts, who acted as transport officer, an American Mr. Rand Herron and Miss E. Knowlton, of Boston, U.S.A. Several determined attempts to reach the summit of the mountain in August were brought to an end by the break-up of the weather before they attained success.

Mr. Hugh Ruttledge carried out during 1932 a valuable reconnaissance of the S. E. flanks of the great circular curtain of Nanda Devi.

Lt.-Col. C. F. Stoehr, R.E., and Lt. D. M. Burn, R.E., lost their lives on 12th August, 1932, while climbing on Panjtarni, near Pahlgam, in Kashmir.

Several expeditions have lately been made, into the Himalayas by members of the Himalayan Club, especially expeditions into Sikkim by members of its Eastern Section.

The Himalayan Club—Was founded on 17th February 1928, at New Delhi with the object of encouraging and assisting Himalayan travel and exploration, and extending knowledge of the Himalayas through science, art, literature and sport. The initiation of this Club was due to the Hon'ble Sir Geoffrey Corbett, Secretary, Commerce Department of the Government of India, and to Major Kenneth Mason, M.C., R.E., Assistant Surveyor-General. Its membership is over 350, including three lady members and its president is H. E. Sir Malcolm Hailey, who has, however, recently sent in his resignation on the ground that he now resides too far from the Club Headquarters. Maj.-Gen. W. L. O. Twiss is Hon. Secretary.

The New Capital.

The transfer of the capital of India from Calcutta to Delhi was announced at the Delhi Durbar on December 12, 1911. It had long been recognised as necessary, in the interests of the whole of India, to de-provincialise the Government of India, but this ideal was unattainable as long as the Government of India were located in one Province, and in the capital of that Province—the seat of the Bengal Government—for several months in every year. It was also desirable to free the Bengal Government from the close proximity of the Government of India which had been to the constant disadvantage of that Province. To achieve these two objects the removal of the capital from Calcutta was essential: its disadvantages had been recognised as long ago as 1868, when Sir Henry Maine advocated the change. Various places had been discussed as possible capitals, but Delhi was by common consent the best of them all. Its central position and situation as a railway junction, added to its historical associations, told in its favour; and, as Lord Crewe said in his despatch on the subject, "to the races of India, for whom the legends and records of the past are charged with so intense a meaning, this resumption by the Paramount Power of the seat of venerable Empire should at once enforce the continuity and promise the permanency of British sovereign rule over the length and breadth of the country."

The foundation stone of the new capital was laid by the King Emperor on December 15, 1911, the finally selected site being on the eastern slopes of the hills to the south of Delhi, on the fringe of the tract occupied by the Delhi of the past. The land chosen is free from liability to flood, has a natural drainage, and is not manworn. It is not cumbered with monuments and tombs needing reverent treatment, and the site is near the present centre of the town of Delhi. A Committee consisting of Surgn.-General Sir C. P. Lukis, Mr. H. T. Keeling, C.S.I., A.M.I.C.E., and Major J. C. Robertson, I.M.S., was appointed to consider the comparative healthiness of the site and of an alternative one to the North of the existing city. Their report, dated 4th March, 1913, states that "the Committee, after giving full consideration to the various points discussed in the above note, is bound to advise the Government of India that no doubt can exist as to the superior healthiness of the southern site, the medical and sanitary advantages of which are overwhelming when compared with those of the northern site."

The Town Plan and Architecture.—A report by a Town-Planning Committee, with a plan of the lay-out, was dated 20th March, 1913. Work was begun in accordance with it and its main lines have been followed throughout. The central point of interest in the lay-out, which gives the motif of the whole, is Government House, and two large blocks of Secretariats. This Government centre has been given a position at Raisina hill near the centre of the new city. Sir Edwin Lutyens is the architect for Government House and Sir Edward Baker for the Secretariats. The former building is estimated to cost approximately Rs. 140 lakhs and the latter groups were originally estimated to some Rs. 124 lakhs. The provision made in the design of the Secretariats for extensions in case if used has already partly been utilised. The Secretariat personnel has largely increased in the past few years and numerous additional rooms had to be provided to make room for Army Headquarters, which moved into the new capital at the end of the Simla season, 1929. To the east of the forum, and below it, is a spacious forecourt defined by an ornamental wall and linked on to the great main avenue or parkway which leads to Indrapat. Across this main axis runs an avenue to the shopping centre. Other roads run in different directions from the entrance to the forum. The axis running north-east towards the Juma Masjid forms the principal approach to the new Legislature Chambers. They are officially described as the Council House and the road is named Parliament-street. The railway station for the new city finds its place about half way between the old and new cities off the road through Paharganj, which lies to the west of Old Delhi in the direction of The Ridge. The main roads or avenues range from 76 feet to 150 feet in width with the exception of the main avenue east of the Secretariat buildings where a parkway width of 1,175 feet has been allowed. The principal avenues in addition to the main avenues are those running at right angles to the main east to west axis.

For a temporary capital, for the use of the Government of India during the period of the building of the new capital an area was selected along the Alipur Road, between the existing civil station of Delhi and the Ridge. The architecture and method of construction were similar to those adopted in the exhibition buildings at Allahabad in 1910; but the buildings have outlasted the transitional period for which they are intended. Army Headquarters were still housed in them in the winter until the season 1929-30. They are now occupied for various purposes including the temporary accommodation of Delhi University.

In October, 1912, by proclamation, there was constituted an administrative **enclave of Delhi** under a Chief Commissioner. This enclave was entirely taken from the Delhi district of the Punjab and its total area is 573 square miles. On the basis of the Census of 1911, the population of the area originally included in the Province was 398,269 and of the new area 14,552, or a total of 412,821. The population of the Municipal town of Delhi was 2,29,144. The plans of the New Capital allow for a population within it of 70,000. Its present population is approximately 40,000. Sites have been allotted for forty Ruling Princes and Chiefs to build houses for their own occupation during their visits to the new city, and several of these habitations have been erected.

There was, as regards architecture, a prolonged "battle of the styles" over Delhi. Finally, to use the language of the architect, it has been the aim "to express within the limit of the medium and of the powers of its users, the ideal and the fact of British rule in India, of which the New Delhi must ever be the monument." The inspiration of the designs is manifestly Western, as is that of British rule, but they combine with it distinctive Indian features without abandoning the architect's aim to avoid doing violence to the principles of structural fitness and artistic unity.

Cost of the Scheme.—It was at first tentatively estimated that the cost of the new capital would be four million sterling and that sum was given in the original despatch of the Government of India on the subject. Various factors have since then increased the amount, the chief of these being the immense rise in prices since the war, and the Legislative Assembly were informed by Government on 23rd March 1921, that the revised estimates then amounted to 1,307 lakhs of rupees. This amount includes allowances for building new Legislative Chambers and Hostels for Members of the Indian Legislature, which were not allowed for in the earlier estimates. The New Capital Enquiry Committee, in its report published in January 1923, estimated the total expenditure at Rs. 1,292 lakhs including Rs. 42 lakhs for loss by Exchange. Actual expenditure upto approximately the end of 1929 was Rs. 14 crores. This may be taken as the figure for the completion of the main project.

The Project Estimate contains certain items such as land, residences, water supply, electric light and power, and irrigation on which recoveries in the form of rate or taxes will, in addition to meeting current expenditure, partially at any rate cover the interest on the capital

outlay, whilst there are other items on which some return on account of the sale of leases, general taxes and indirect receipts is secured.

Progress of the work.—The construction of New Delhi was made at satisfactory speed, having regard to the curtailment of the Budget allotment in consequence of the war and the absence of officers and other establishments at the war. The Secretariats were so far advanced that there were transferred to them from Calcutta in October, 1924, the offices of the Accountant-General, Central Revenues, and the headquarters of the Royal Air Force in India were also housed in them in the winters of 1924-25 and 1925-26. The residential buildings for Government officers and staff of various grades were then nearly completed. The whole of the civil side of Government moved from old Delhi into their quarters in the new Secretariats on coming down from Simla in November, 1926. All Government Departments, including the Army Departments and Army Headquarters and R. A. F. Headquarters, have their offices in the new City buildings, of which the builders have already had to carry-out the first section of the extension provided for in the architects' plans. The Members of H. E. the Viceroy's Executive Council including H. E. the Commander-in-Chief, live in their new official residences in the new capital. H. E. the Viceroy took up his residence in the new Government House there on 23rd December 1929. His Excellency until then resided in the Delhi season at Viceregal Lodge in Old Delhi. The Government of India in 1927 devoted special consideration to the question whether their ordinary annual 5 months residence in Delhi should be extended each year to 7 months and early in 1928 decided in consultation with the India Office to endeavour to stay in Delhi for half of each year, the new order being introduced for trial in 1928 by keeping the Secretariat in New Delhi till mid-April and bringing it down Simla from again in mid-October. The experiment was not very successful and was not repeated till 1932-33, when Retrenchment Committees had strongly recommended a longer stay in Delhi in order to extract rent for a longer period from the seasonal official occupants of its residential buildings, the rents in Delhi being higher than those for residences in Simla. It remains to be seen whether the consequent profit will exceed the additional general expense of keeping staff down in the heat.

Art Decorations.—The Government of India in 1927 approved a scheme for the encouragement of Indian artists by providing facilities for the decoration of certain buildings in New Delhi. The outlines of the scheme are briefly as follows. A certain number of domes and ceilings in the New Secretariat Buildings at Delhi suitable for decoration were selected. The various schools of art in India, as well as individual artists, were invited through local Governments, to send in by the beginning of March 1928 small scale designs for approval by a Committee. After approval by the Committee both as regards the design and colour the pictures were to be drawn out and painted to full size on canvas, and, if finally approved by the Committee, fixed according to the marouflage process *in situ*. Other techniques, such as fresco or tempera, were optional. Artists or schools of art, who sent in small scale drawings, had to bear the initial expense of preparing them. When these were approved by the Committee, the out-of-pocket expenses paid in addition to a suitable honorarium Government undertook to pay for the finished pictures done from approved sketches but give no guarantee that the finished paintings will permanently be preserved. Government intimated that historical or allegorical subjects would be given preference over religious ones, and English artists living in India were barred from competition, the work being strictly reserved to Indian artists. Numerous artists submitted designs, especially those of Western India, and with such satisfactory results that the specially appointed Expert Committee approved of nearly all. A great deal of painting has now been completed and the work is continually progressing. Government, meanwhile, instituted a scheme for sending selected artists to Europe for finishing studies to enable them the better to join in the work, and this is in operation.

Opinion of the Legislature.—Considerable discussion regarding the new works took place in the Assembly in 1921. The following unofficial resolution was carried:—"This Assembly recommends to the Governor-General in Council that in the interests of economy and of general convenience alike the execution of the programme of New Delhi works may be expedited and the necessary funds provided or raised so that the Secretariat and Legislative buildings and connected works including residences may be completed as early as practicable."

A non-official Member in the Legislative Assembly on 28th September, 1921, at Simla, moved a recommendation to Government "to appoint a Committee to inquire into the possibility of establishing a permanent Capital of India in a place possessing salubrious and temperate climate throughout the year." This proposal was ridiculed by several of his non-official colleagues and was eventually rejected without a division.

H.R.H. the Duke of Connaught, on 12th February, 1921, laid the foundation stone of a large group of parliamentary buildings on a site close to the south-east of the Secretariats. The building is an imposing pile circular in shape, consisting in the main of three horse shoe-shaped Chambers for the Chamber of Princes, Council of State and Legislative Assembly respectively and surmounted by a large dome over a Central Library connecting all three Chambers.

H.E. the Viceroy (Baron Irwin) proceeded in state to the new Legislative buildings henceforward to be known as the Council Buildings and formally declared them open on 18th February 1927. The India legislature began its sessions in them next day.

During 1928, official and public attention became focussed on the need to effect drastic improvements in some of the crowded areas of the old city and to provide for its expansion and for suburban developments. This led to

the examination of the possibilities of the area lying between the old and new cities and of the desirability of driving connecting roads through the City walls in order to give access outwards in this direction. The old city is now rapidly expanding in a westerly direction, *i.e.*, towards and up the Ridge, which runs behind both cities and the spaces between the two cities are being developed and utilised. So far the plan for a direct thoroughfare from the midst of the new city through the old city wall to the middle of the old city has not been proceeded with and consequently the magnificent thoroughfare, name Parliament Street, which was constructed for the purpose in New Delhi remains in a truncated condition. The Delhi Municipal Committee late in 1933 declined to co-operate in a completion scheme, on the ground that it would result in changes in property values in the old city to the disadvantage of many owners. The Medical Officer of Health of the old city in his latest reports gravely stresses the ill effects of its overcrowded state and in this he is borne out by the Municipality in its reports.

H. E. the Viceroy on 10th January 1930 laid the foundation stone of a large European and Indian General Hospital to be built in the course of the next few years at a cost of Rs. 75 lakhs for the service of both old and new cities. This would provide 254 beds and the necessary laboratories and administrative and residential quarters. No progress has yet been made with the building work on which has for financial reasons been postponed.

All-India War Memorial.—H. R. H. the Duke of Connaught on 10th February, 1921, laid the foundation stone of an All-India War Memorial at the southern end of the Central Vista. The place chosen is a fine position in the centre of the circular Princes' Park and the construction of the building was for economy's sake proceeded with slowly. The memorial was formally inaugurated by Lord Irwin in February, 1931.

The Memorial takes the form of a triumphant arch spanning Kingsway, the avenue running down the centre of the Vista. It is generally similar to the Arc de Triomphe in Paris but is simpler. The monument reaches a height of 160 feet and the inner height of the arch is 87 feet 6 inches and its breadth 70 feet. Over the arch on both fronts appears in capital letters the single word INDIA and this is flanked on each side by the initials MCM (*i.e.* 1900) whilst immediately below them on the left hand are the initials XIV (*i.e.*, 14) and on the opposite side the figures XIX (*i.e.*, 19). Above the Arch is a circular stone bowl 11½ feet in diameter. A column of inoffensive chemical smoke ascends from this on ceremonial occasions and anniversaries and is illuminated by electric light reflections after dark. The memorial is solely Indian in purpose and bears the names of British and Indian officers and N.C.Os. men of the Indian regiments who fought on the Indian Frontier in the Great War (those fought on other fronts being commemorated by memorials erected in those countries).

Public Institutions.—It was proposed during 1914 that a higher college for Chiefs should be established at Delhi and in this connexion a conference of Chiefs and Political Officers was held at Delhi at which the Viceroy presided. The proposal is still under consideration. To implement it would require an estimated capital outlay of Rs. 12½ lakhs.

The Government of India further in the Spring session of their Legislature in 1922 introduced and carried a Bill for the establishment of a unitary, teaching and residential **University of Delhi**, the buildings for which would be erected in the new capital. The plan was to provide a local university on the model recommended for Dacca University by the Calcutta University Commission. The provision of funds for the complete realisation of the university must be a matter of time and it was, therefore, decided to commence work with the existing colleges in their present buildings and to permit them gradually to modify their organisation. The initial work of organisation was quickly effected by the Executive Council. Unfortunately the inability of the Government of India to allot considerable funds was a severe handicap. It was hoped that H. E. the Viceroy would be able to lay the foundation-stone of the university buildings in November, 1922, but this proved impracticable. The general question of the finances of the University was in 1927 the subject of inquiry by a special Committee appointed by Government. For the time being the University was housed in the temporary buildings in old Delhi occupied by the Civil Secretariat until 1929 and in 1931 Old Viceregal Lodge was allocated to it for its future home.

The new city was the scene of notable inauguration ceremonies in February, 1931. The first of these was the unveiling of four **"Dominion Columns"** suitably placed about the great place between the two Secretariat blocks. The columns are of red stone, surmounted each by a gilded merchantman of the old style in full sail. The columns are designed to resemble the historic ones erected in various parts of the land by Asoka and were presented by Canada, Australia, New Zealand and South Africa. The first two and fourth of these Dominions sent their own representatives to perform the ceremony of unveiling. New Zealand nominated a Member of the Government of India to act in her behalf for the same purpose. The second great ceremony was the inauguration of the **War Memorial.** This was performed in State by His Excellency the Viceroy in the presence of representatives of every unit of the army in India of the Royal Air Force and of a large concourse of official and other spectators. There was a large popular fête on the ground lying below the old Fort and between it and the river Jumna. Their Excellencies the Viceroy and Lady Irwin arranged a programme of festivities at The Viceroy's House. A New Delhi Municipal Committee with its own permanent official Chairman and Secretariat was established in 1932.

Freemasonry in India.

In 1728 a dispensation was granted by the Grand Lodge of England to Geo. Pomfrett, Esq., authorising him to "open a new Lodge in Bengal." Of this personage nothing further is known but under Capt. Farwinter, who in the following year succeeded him as Provincial Grand Master of India, a Lodge was established in 1730, which in the Engraved Lists is distinguished by the arms of the East India Company, and is described as "No. 72 at Bengal in the East Indies." The next Provincial Grand Masters were James Dawson and Zech. Gee, who held office in 1740; after whom came the Hon. Roger Drake, appointed 10th April 1755. The last named was Governor of Calcutta at the time of the attack made on the settlement by Surajah Dowlah in 1756. Drake missed the horrors of the Black Hole by escaping and was accused of deserting his post, but, though present at the retaking of Calcutta by Admiral Watson and Clive, it is improbable that he resumed the duties of his masonic office after the calamity that befell the settlement.

The minutes of the Grand Lodge inform us that William Mackett, Provincial Grand Master of Calcutta, was present at the meeting of that body, November 17th, 1760, and we learn on the same authority that at the request of the "Lodges in the East Indies" Mr. Cullin Smith was appointed P. G. M. in 1762. At this period it was the custom in Bengal "to elect the Provincial Grand Master annually by the majority of the votes of the members present, from amongst those who passed through the different offices of the (Prov.) Grand Lodge and who had served as Dep. Prov. Grand Master." This annual election as soon as notified to the Grand Lodge of England was confirmed by the Grand Master without its being thought an infringement of his prerogative. In accordance with this practice, Samuel Middleton was elected (P. G. M. circa) in 1767; but in passing it may be briefly observed that a few years previously a kind of roving commission was granted by Earl Ferrars in 1762-64 to John Bluvitt, Commander of the "Admiral Watson," Indiaman "for East India where no other Provincial Lodge is to be found." Middleton's election was confirmed October 31st, 1768, and, as the dispensation forwarded by the Grand Secretary was looked upon as abrogating the practice of annual elections, he accordingly held the office of D. G. M. Unfortunately the records of the P. G. L. date back only to 1774, and thus much valuable information is lost to us. This Grand Lodge continued working until 1792 when it ceased to meet. It seems that the officers were selected from only two Lodges much to the dissatisfaction of the other Lodges, and resulted in most of the dissatisfied bodies seceding and attaching themselves to the Athol of Ancient Grand Lodge. In 1813 at the Union both the Ancients and Moderns in Calcutta combined and gave their allegiance to the **United Grand Lodge of England** and have since been working peaceably under the Provincial Grand Lodge of Bengal which was revived in that year and in 1840 created a District Grand Lodge.

Madras.—The earliest Lodge in Southern India (No. 222) was established in Madras in 1752. Three others were also established about 1766. In the same year Capt. Edmund Pascal was appointed P. G. M. for Madras and its Dependencies and in the following year another Lodge was established at Fort St. George. In 1768 the Athol (or Ancients) invaded this District and in 1782 established a Provincial Grand Lodge and both these Provincial Grand Bodies continued working peaceably side by side until the Union. Indeed, though not generally known, these two Grand Bodies made an attempt at coalition long before any such movement was made by their parent bodies, the Grand Lodge of England, and the Ancient Grand Lodge, and Malden in his History of Freemasonry in Madras states that in a great measure they succeeded. At the Union in 1813 all the bodies in Madras gave their allegiance to the United Grand Lodge. One event worthy of note was the initiation in 1774 at Trichinopoly of the eldest son of the Nawab of Arcot, Umdat-ul-Umra, who in his reply to the congratulations of the Grand Lodge of England stated "he considered the title of English Mason as one of the most honourable that he possessed." This document is now stored in the archives of the United Grand Lodge.

Bombay.—Two Lodges were established in this Presidency during the 17th century, Nos. 234 at Bombay in 1758 and 569 in Surat in 1798, both of which were carried on the lists until the Union when they disappeared. A Provincial Grand Master, James Todd, was appointed but there is no record that he exercised his functions and his name drops out of the Freemasons' Calendar in 1799. In 1801 an Athol Warrant was granted (No. 322) to the 78th foot which was engaged in the Maratha War under Sir Arthur Wellesley. In 1818 Lord Moria was asked to constitute a Lodge to be known by the name of St. Andrew by eight Masons residing there and also to grant a dispensation for holding a Provincial Grand Lodge for the purpose of making the Hon. Mountstuart a Mason, he having expressed a wish to that effect. The Petitioners further requested "that his name might be inserted in the body of the warrant, authorising them to instal him after being duly passed and raised a Deputy Grand Master of the Deccan." Of the reply to this application no copy has been preserved. Lodge Benevolence was established in Bombay in 1822.

In 1823 a Military Lodge "Orion-in-the-West" was formed in the Bombay Artillery and installed at Poona as No. 15 of the Coast of Coromandel. It seems from Lane's records that in 1830 it was discovered that this Lodge was not on the records of the United Grand Lodge of England. A Warrant was subsequently issued bearing date 19th July 1833. According to the early proceedings of this Lodge, members were examined in the Third Degree and passed to the chair in the Fourth Degree for which a fee of three gold mohurs was charged. In the following year a second Lodge was established at Poona by the Provincial Grand Lodge of Bengal which however left no trace of its existence. In 1825 the civilian element of "Orion" seceded and formed the "Lodge of Hope" also at Poona No 802.

Here "Orion" unrecognized at home, aided in the secession of some of its members, who obtained a warrant, on the recommendation of the parent Lodge, from the Grand Lodge of England. Two years later it was discovered that no notification of the existence of "Orion-in-the-West" had reached England, nor had any fees been received, although these including quarterages had been paid into the Provincial Grand Lodge, Coast of Coromandel. It was further ascertained that in granting a warrant for a Bombay Lodge the Provincial Grand Master of Coromandel had exceeded his powers. Ultimately a new warrant No. 598 was granted as already stated in 1833. Lodge "Perseverance" was started in Bombay No. 818 in 1828. Up to this time the jurisdiction of the Grand Lodge of England in India had not been invaded: but in 1836 Dr. James Burnes was appointed by the Grand Lodge of Scotland, P. G. M. of Western India and its Dependencies. No Provincial Grand Lodge however was formed until 1st January 1838. A second Scottish Province of Eastern India was started which on the retirement of the Marquis of Tweedale was absorbed within the jurisdiction of Dr. Burnes, who in 1846 became Provincial Grand Master for all India (including Aden) but with the proviso, that this appointment was not to act in restraint of any future sub-division of the Presidencies. Burnes may be best described as being in 1836, in ecclesiastical phrase as a Provincial Grand Master "in partibus infidelium" for whatever Lodges then existed throughout the length and breadth of India were strangers to Scottish Masonry. But the times were propitious. There was no English Provincial Grand Lodge in Bombay and the Chevalier Burnes, whom nature had endowed with all the qualities requisite for Masonic Administration, soon got to work and presented such attractions to **Scottish Freemasonry** that the strange sight was witnessed of English Masons deserting their mother Lodges, to such an extent that these fell into abeyance, in order to give support to Lodges newly constituted under the Grand Lodge of Scotland. In one case, indeed, a Lodge "Perseverance" under England went over bodily to Scotland, with its name, jewels, furniture, and belongings, and the charge was accepted by Scotland. This Lodge still exists in Bombay and now bears No. 338 on the Register of Scotland. From this period, therefore, Scottish Masonry flourished, and English Masonry declined until the year 1848 when a Lodge St. George No. 807 on the Rolls of the Grand Lodge of England was again formed at Bombay, and for some years was the solitary representative of English Masonry in the Province. In 1844 Burns established a Lodge "Rising Star" at Bombay for the **admission of Indian gentlemen** the result of which is seen at the present day. Thus the seed planted at Trichinopoly in 1774 by the initiation of Umdat-ul-Umra has borne fruit, resulting in the initiation of thousands of Indian gentlemen of all castes and creeds, and which has gone far to establishing that mutual trust between West and East, a distinguishing characteristic of Speculative Freemasonry. A Provincial Grand Lodge was re-established in Bombay in 1860, and converted into a District Grand Lodge in 1861.

The Grand Lodge of England.—All three Constitutions of the United Kingdom, the United Grand Lodge of England, the Grand Lodge of Ireland and the Grand Lodge of Scotland hold jurisdiction in India. By far the largest is the first: the next largest is the third and the number of Lodges under Ireland is as yet small. The Grand Lodge of England divides its rule under Five District Grand Masters independent of each other and directly subordinate to the Grand Master of England by whom they are appointed.

Bengal.

79 Lodges. Rt. Wor. Bro. Eric Studd, P.G.D., M.L.A., Dis. G. Master; Dy. D. G. M., Edward A. H. Blunt, C.I.E., O.B.E., I.C.S. Assist. D. G. M., F. W. Hockenhull, P.G.D.

Madras.

35 Lodges. Dis. G. M., Rt. Wor. Bro. Sir Archibald Young G. Campbell, K.C.I.E., C.S.I., C.B.E., I.C.S., P.G.D.; Dy. D. G. M., Dewan Bahadur P. M. Sivagnanam Mudaliar, P.G.D.

Bombay.

50 D.G.M. Rt. Wor. Bro. W. A. C. Bromham, P.G.D.; Dy. D.G.M., R. H. Middleton.

Punjab.

34 Lodges. Rt. W. Bro. Rev. Canon G.D. Barne, M.A., C.I.E., O.B.E., V. D., Lord Bishop of Lahore, District Grand Master; Col. F. A. Finnis, C.B., O.B.E., Dy. D.G.M.

Burma.

20 Lodges. Rt. W. Bro. Dr. N. N. Parekh, P.G.D., District Grand Master. S. G. Grantham, Dy. D. G. M.

The Grand Lodge of Scotland exercises its rule through a Grand Master of all Scottish Freemasonry in India, who is elected by the Brethren subject to confirmation by the Grand Master Mason of Scotland. Dr. Sir Temulji B. Nariman, Kt., is the present incumbent of the office, and controls 78 Lodges. Under him the several districts are in charge of the following Grand Superintendents:—

Lt.-Col. R. W. Castle, C. M. G., G. Supdt., Northern India.

G. Lindsay, G. Supdt., Centra India.

The Hon'ble Lt.-Col. Sir Terence H. Keyes, C.S.I., C.M.G., K.C.I.E., G. Supdt., Southern India.

L. H. Emeny, G. Supdt., Eastern India.

F. B. Ady—Burma.

The Grand Secretary is R.W. Bro. Khan Bahadur J. C. Mistree, J. P., 17, Murzban Road, Fort, Bombay.

The Grand Lodge of Ireland granted a warrant to establish a Lodge at Kurnal in 1837, but it was short lived. An attempt was made in 1869 to establish a Lodge in Bombay, but on the representation of the Grand Secretary of England, to the Deputy Grand Secretary of Ireland that it would be objectionable to create a third masonic jurisdiction in the Province, there being two already, *viz.*, English and Scottish, the Grand Lodge of Ireland declined to grant the warrant. In 1911, however, a warrant was sanctioned for the establishment of Lodge "St. Patrick" and since that year three other Lodges have sprung into being, one of which is now defunct.

The Grand Lodge of Ireland has no District Grand Master in India at present, the Lodges corresponding direct with the Grand Lodge in Dublin. There are eleven Lodges, 6 in Calcutta, 3 in Ceylon and 2 in Bombay.

Royal Arch Masonry.—Under England, the District Grand Master in any District is nearly always created also Grand Superintendent, who generally appoints his Deputy as Second and another Companion as Third Principal.

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Madras.

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Bombay.

26 Chapters. M. Ex. Comp. W. A. C. Bromham, Grand Superintendent.

Punjab.

20 Chapters. Most. Ex. Comp. Rev. Canon G. D. Barnes, C.I.E., O.B.E., V.D., Lord Bishop of Lahore, Grand Superintendent.

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Royal Arch Masonry under Scotland has a separate constitution to Craft Freemasonry. The District Grand Chapter of India is at present ruled by M. E. Comp. A. M. Kajiji under whom there are about 30 Chapters in India. The Grand Secretary of all Scottish Freemasonry in India is also District Grand Scribe E. of Scottish R. A. Masonry.

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To remedy this defect, at the instigation of the authorities of the British Museum, the Bombay Natural History Society decided to institute what is now known as the Mammal Survey. Mr. W. S. Millard, then Hon. Secretary of that Society, issued in an appeal to its members to enable the Society to engage the services of trained European collectors so as to make a systematic collection of the mammals of India, Burma and Ceylon. The response to the appeal resulted in over a lakh of rupees being raised between 1911 and 1920, partly by subscriptions from the Society's members, contributions from Indian Princes, and grants from the Indian Government, the Government of Burma, Ceylon, Malay States, and the Provincial Governments. Subscriptions were also received from a few Learned Societies and Institutions in England and America. By the outbreak of the war the Survey had been carried on over large areas of the country, the districts covered being—In Western India a portion of Sind, the whole of Gujarat, Kutch and Kathiawar; the Southern Maharatta Country and Kanara in Southern India; in Coorg and Mysore; in the centre large tracts of the Central Provinces and some districts of Bengal and Behar; in Northern India the Society's collectors had worked over Kumaun, Darjeeling and Sikkim and the Bhutan Duars. In Burma, collections were made along the Chindwin river, in Central Burma and in the Shan States, Pegu and a portion of Tennaserim. The whole of Ceylon was also systematically surveyed.

The material, which up to the outbreak of War comprised some 17,000 specimens, was forwarded to the British Museum where the collections were scientifically worked out by the late Mr. R. C. Wroughton, formerly Inspector General of Forests, Mr. Oldfield Thomas, F.R.S., Curator of Mammals at the British Museum, Mr. Martin C. Hinton and others. The results of their researches were published in a series of scientific papers in the journal of the Bombay Natural History Society. The enormous mass of material then collected resulted in the discovery of large numbers of new forms and species and by increasing our knowledge of the distribution of Indian Mammalia has enabled the revision of Blanford's Mammalia to be undertaken and early in 1921 the Secretary of State for India commissioned Mr. R. C. Wroughton, since deceased, and Mr. M. C. Hinton to undertake the work.

When demobilization rendered it possible t work of the Survey which had been in abe ance during the war was resumed and a colle tor, Mr. C. Primrose, was sent to Assam a the Mergui Archipelago and Mr. Oldfield Thom has written very appreciatively of his wo among those islands. Mr. Primrose then beg working inland but owing to the impractica

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Mammal Survey.—The Survey was instituted in the year 1912 with the object of making as complete a study as possible of the occurrence and distribution of Mammals in India, Burma and Ceylon, and with the further object of supplementing the collection of Indian Mammals at the Bombay Natural History Society's Museum and at the British Museum as well as at the Natural History Museums in India, the primary object of the Survey being the furtherance of our knowledge of Indian Mammalian Fauna. Up to 1891 Naturalists in India had to rely for information on Dr. Jerdon's "Mammals of India" published in 1874. In 1884 R. A. Sterndale published his Natural History of Indian Mammals a purely popular work which did not add much to Jerdon's book. In 1881 a memorial prepared by Dr. Slater, Hon. Secretary to the Zoological Society, and signed by Darwin, Hooker, Huxley, and other well-known scientists, was presented to the Secretary of State for India. The memorial recommended that a series of Volumes dealing with the Fauna of India should be prepared and Dr. Blanford should be appointed its Editor. The memorial resulted in the publication in 1888-1890 of the Volume on Mammals in the "Fauna of British India" Series and since 1891 this volume has been the standard work on *Indian Mammals*. Blanford's book was however based on the information then available and the shortcomings of the book have been revealed in the light of more recent research. Further knowledge in regard to distribution and classification and the discoveries of new species have rendered Blanford practically obsolete.

To remedy this defect, at the instigation of the authorities of the British Museum, the Bombay Natural History Society decided to institute what is now known as the Mammal Survey. Mr. W. S. Millard, then Hon. Secretary of that Society, issued in an appeal to its members to enable the Society to engage the services of trained European collectors so as to make a systematic collection of the mammals of India, Burma and Ceylon. The response to the appeal resulted in over a lakh of rupees being raised between 1911 and 1920, partly by subscriptions from the Society's members, contributions from Indian Princes, and grants from the Indian Government, the Government of Burma, Ceylon, Malay States, and the Provincial Governments. Subscriptions were also received from a few Learned Societies and Institutions in England and America. By the outbreak of the war the Survey had been carried on over large areas of the country, the districts covered being—In Western India a portion of Sind, the whole of Gujarat, Kutch and Kathiawar; the Southern Maharatta Country and Kanara in Southern India; in Coorg and Mysore; in the centre large tracts of the Central Provinces and some districts of Bengal and Behar; in Northern India the Society's collectors had worked over Kumaun, Darjeeling and Sikkim and the Bhutan Duars. In Burma, collections were made along the Chindwin river, in Central Burma and in the Shan States, Pegu and a portion of Tennaserim. The whole of Ceylon was also systematically surveyed.

The material, which up to the outbreak of War comprised some 17,000 specimens, was forwarded to the British Museum where the collections were scientifically worked out by the late Mr. R. C. Wroughton, formerly Inspector General of Forests, Mr. Oldfield Thomas, F.R.S., Curator of Mammals at the British Museum, Mr. Martin C. Hinton and others. The results of their researches were published in a series of scientific papers in the journal of the Bombay Natural History Society. The enormous mass of material then collected resulted in the discovery of large numbers of new forms and species and by increasing our knowledge of the distribution of Indian Mammalia has enabled the revision of Blanford's Mammalia to be undertaken and early in 1921 the Secretary of State for India commissioned Mr. R. C. Wroughton, since deceased, and Mr. M. C. Hinton to undertake the work.

When demobilization rendered it possible the work of the Survey which had been in abeyance during the war was resumed and a collector, Mr. C. Primrose, was sent to Assam and the Mergui Archipelago and Mr. Oldfield Thomas has written very appreciatively of his work among those islands. Mr. Primrose then began working inland but owing to the impracticabi-

lity of continuing his work in Burma during the monsoon, he was transferred to Gwalior where H. H. the Maharaja kindly accorded permission to work in his territories.

After working a portion of the Eastern Ghats the next move was to the Kangra District in the North-West Himalayas and then on to the Punjab Salt Range. Two other collectors worked in Southern India. Permission was once more obtained from the Nepal Government for a collector to resume the Survey work in that country. The work in Nepal was brought to a successful close early in 1928 with a representative collection of interesting mammals and birds.

Botanical Survey.—The Botanical Survey Department of the Government of India is under the control of a Director who is also Superintendent of the Royal Botanic Garden, Calcutta. There is a staff at headquarters of two officers for systematic work and at the Indian Museum a curator who is engaged in the development and maintenance of the Industrial Section. The Director holds administrative charge of the Government of India's cinchona operations in Burma, of quinine manufacture in Bengal and of the distribution of cinchona products to the Government of India's area of distribution in Upper India.

The existence of the Botanical Survey, like that of the Geological Survey, has both a cultural and an economic justification. On general grounds it is obvious that a progressive Government should acquaint itself with the physical facts of the area it administers, and although apart from the cinchona operations, the activities of the Survey cannot be said to have much immediate economic applicability—consisting as they do of investigations and researches into the systematics, physiology, ecology, and histology of plant life—the work accomplished in pure botany at the Royal Botanic Garden during the last century and a half has exercised a profound and far-reaching influence upon the development of Agricultural Science and Forestry in India.

Survey of India.—The first authoritative map of India was published by D'Anville in 1752, when the exploration of the then unknown India was still largely in French hands. It had been compiled from routes of solitary travellers and rough charts of the coast.

The Survey of India may be said to have been founded in 1767—ten years after the battle of Plassey—when Lord Clive formally appointed Major James Rennel the first Surveyor General of Bengal, at that time the most important of the East India Company's possessions, though there were earlier settlements in Madras and Bombay.

Rennell's maps were originally military reconnaissances and latterly chained surveys based on astronomically fixed points, and do not pretend to the accuracy of modern maps of India based on the rigid system of triangulation commenced at Madras in 1802 and since extended over and beyond India. Even now, however, the *relative* accuracy of these old maps makes them valuable in legal disputes, as for instance in proving that the holding of a Bengal landowner was a river area at the time of the Permanent Settlement of 1793, so that he is debarred from its benefits.

From these beginnings, this department has gradually become primarily responsible for all topographical surveys, explorations and the maintenance of geographical maps of the greater part of Southern Asia, and also for geodetic work.

Geodesy means the investigation of the size, shape and structure of the earth, and the geodetic work of the department consists of primary (or geodetic) triangulation, latitude, longitude and gravity determinations. From these the exact "figure" of the earth is obtained, whereby points fixed by triangulation can be accurately located on its curved surface. This system of fixed points holds together all topographical and revenue surveys, and the existence of such a system from the early days of the department has obviated the embarrassments caused in other countries where isolated topographical surveys have been started without a rigid framework, with the inevitable result that they could not be fitted together.

A geodetic framework is, therefore, essential in any large survey, but there are a number of other activities, all of them ultimately utilitarian which can be suitably combined with its execution, and the following are some of these which are carried out in India:

Precise levelling for the determination of heights;

Tidal predictions and publication of Tide Tables for forty-one ports between Suez and Singapore.

The Magnetic survey;

Observation of the direction and force of gravity;

Astronomical observations to determine latitude, longitude and time;

Seismographic and meteorological observations at Dehra Dun.

Indian geodesy has disclosed by far the largest known anomalies of gravitational attraction in the earth's crust, which have recently led to a reconsideration of the whole theory of isostasy.

Topographical Surveys.—In the past this department used to carry out the large scale revenue surveys for most of India, and was still conducting this work for Central and Eastern India and Burma in 1905.

Though revenue survey is primarily a record of individual property boundaries and is concerned with the surface features, ground levels and exact geographical position essential to a topographical survey, it was on the whole found economical to carry out both surveys together.

By 1905 however, all the Provinces had taken over the revenue surveys, for which they had always paid, and the Survey of India was enabled to concentrate its energies on a complete new series of modern topographical maps in several colours on the 1-inch to 1-mile scale.

This new series had been rendered necessary by the natural demand for more detailed information to be shown on maps, especially as regards the portrayal of hill features by contours, proper classification of communications and—more recently—air traffic requirements.

It was intended that this 1905 survey should be completed in twenty-five years, and then revised periodically every thirty years. Owing however to the war and more recent retrenchments only

two-thirds of the programme had been completed by 1932, in spite of a reduction of scale for the less important areas.

Although new surveys covering from thirty to sixty thousand square miles—an area comparable to that of England—are carried out every year, the maps of a large part of the country are still over 50 years old, printed mostly in black only, and have hill features shewn by roughly sketched form lines or hachures; such changes in town sites, canals and communications as have been embodied in them have not been surveyed on the ground but entered from outside information.

Owing to the serious financial situtation in 1931, the establishment of the department was severely cut down and its annual expenditure halved, in consequence of which the modern survey of India cannot now be completed before 1950.

The obsolescence of the present series of modern maps of India is shewn in the second index map at the end of this report.

Large Scale Surveys.—Surveys and records of international, state and provincial boundaries have always formed an important item of topographical work, and in recent years numerous Guide Maps have been published of important cities and military stations where the 1-inch to 1-mile scale is inadequate.

Miscellaneous.—While expending on topographical and geodetic work all funds allotted by Imperial Revenues, the department is prepared to undertake or aid local surveys, on payment by those concerned, such as

Forest and cantonment surveys;

Riverain, irrigation, railway and city surveys;

Surveys of tea gardens and mining areas, with such control levelling as is necessary for these operations.

Administrative assistance is also given, and executive officers, lent in aid of the revenue surveys of various Provinces and States.

The Printing Offices at Calcutta and Dehra Dun also carry out work for other Government departments, such as special maps, illustrations for Reports and all diagrams for patents.

The Mathematical Instrument Office of this department assists all Government departments, as well as non-officials, by maintaining a high standard of instrumental and optical equipment and by manufacturing and repairing instruments which would otherwise have to be imported from abroad.

Military Requirements and Air Survey.—The department is also responsible for all survey operations required by the army, and is in a position to meet the rapidly increasing complexity of modern military requirements, especially in air survey.

In view of its high military importance, air survey work for civil purposes is receiving all possible encouragement and assistance, and the latest methods of mapping from photographs taken from the ground are being studied experimentally.

The flying and photography for air mapping done by this department are at present carried out by the Royal Air Force or the Indian Air Survey Company, a commercial firm with headquarters at Dum Dum.

Administration is by the Surveyor General under the Education, Health and Lands Department of the Government of India.

The Headquarters Office is at Calcutta under the Assistant Surveyor General, and there are four Directors, one for the Map Publication and other technical offices at Calcutta, and three for three of the five Survey of India Circles into which the country is divided; the other two Circle areas (covering Burma and South India) are administered personally by the Surveyor General.

Of the three Circle Directors, one also administers the Geodetic Branch at Dehra Dun in addition to his topographical survey Circle.

Any enquiries regarding surveys, maps or publications may be addressed either to the Headquarters Office or to the Survey Director or Independent Party concerned, whose addresses are Director, Map Publication, Calcutta; Director, Geodetic Branch, Dehra Dun; Director, Frontier Circle, Simla; Director, Eastern Circle, Shillong; Officer in charge, No. 6 (South India) Party, Bangalore; and Officer-in-Charge, No. 10 (Burma) Party, Maymyo.

Indian Science Congress.—The Indian Science Congress was founded largely owing to the efforts of Prof. P. S. Macmahon and Dr. J. L. Simonsen. These two gentlemen worked jointly as Honorary General Secretaries of the Congress till 1921. The Asiatic Society of Bengal undertakes the management of the Congress finances and publishes annually the proceedings of the Congress. The objects are (1) to encourage research and to make the results generally known among science workers in India, (2) to give opportunities for personal intercourse and scientific companionship and thus to overcome to some extent one of the chief drawbacks in the life of workers in science in India, (3) to promote public interest in science; for this end the Congress is held at different centres annually, and evening lectures open to the public form an important part of the proceedings of each Congress.

The Congress, which is progressive and vigorous, meets in January each year, the proceedings last for six days. The Head of the Local Government is Patron of the Congress; the Congress session is opened by a Presidential Address delivered by the President for the year. The President is chosen annually, the different sections being represented in turn. The sections are (1) Agriculture, (2) Physics and Mathematics, (3) Chemistry and Applied Botany, (4) Zoology and Ethnography, (5) Botany, (6) Geology, (7) Medical Research; when the sections meet separately each section is presided over by its own President also chosen annually. The mornings are devoted to the reading and discussion of the papers, the afternoons to social functions and visits to places of interests, in the evenings public lectures are delivered.

The Indian Research Fund Association.—This Association, which is a much older body than the National Research Council in England, was constituted in 1911 with a sum of rupees five lakhs (£33,000) set aside as an endowment for the prosecution and assistance of research, the propagation of knowledge and experimental

measures generally in connection with the causation, mode of spread and prevention of communicable diseases. It can claim to be amongst the pioneers in organised medical research on a large scale and has been referred to by other countries in very complimentary language. Still better, it has been copied by several other nations.

During 1929 the constitution of the Governing Body was altered by the Government of India. It was considered that, in view of the largely increased activities of this Association, the Governing Body, which had hitherto most expeditiously and economically conducted the business of the Association should be now made more representative in character. It was accordingly enlarged by including two non-official members from the Legislative Assembly, one from the Council of State, two from the Medical Faculties of the Universities and one non-medical scientist. The creation of a Recruitment Board in India for selecting the personnel employed by the Association and of a Consultative Recruitment Board in England also came under the consideration of Government. It was further decided that the Governing Body of the Indian Research Fund Association should be the co-ordinating agency for the research activities of the All-India Institute of Public Health which is being built at Calcutta and of the proposed Central Medical Research Institute.

The Conference of **Medical Research Workers** is drawn from all parts of India and consists of experts in their particular lines of research, discussed yearly the general policy of research work in India as well as the detailed schemes which are proposed to be undertaken by the Indian Research Fund Association in the following year. The results of these discussions are available to guide the members of the Scientific Advisory Board of the Indian Research Fund Association in making their recommendations for the programme of the following year. The Advisory Board also met in December and examined all the proposals for research work and recommended a scheme of research for the guidance of the Governing Body of the Indian Research Fund Association.

The official organ of the Association is the "Indian Journal of Medical Research," which has a wide international circulation. The Association also publishes "Indian Medical Research Memoirs," which are supplementary to the "Journal".

Since its inception a great number of inquiries have been carried out under the auspices of the Association and great expansion of its activities has taken place from small beginnings.

The principal inquiries are the **Malaria Survey** of India, which is a Central organisation, located at Kasauli and Karnal, plague research at the Haffkine Institute, Bombay, kala-azar by a commission in Assam, bacteriophage by Dr. Asheshov at Patna, nutritional research by Colonel McCarrison at the Pasteur Institute, Coonoor, and indigenous drugs and drug addiction by Lt.-Col. Chopra at Calcutta.

The Malaria Survey of India, which now enjoys international recognition, is constantly called upon to advise as to the best methods for malaria prevention in India. As part of the activities of this organisation and in commemoration of Sir Ronald Ross' intimate association with India, an experimental malaria station was opened in Karnal in January 1927 and is known as The Ross Field Experimental Station for Malaria. Besides carrying out experiments in connection with the prevention of malaria, annual classes are held at which candidates from all over India are shown the latest methods for dealing with the malaria scourge and are instructed how these methods should be applied. In connection with the Malaria Survey of India and in order to assemble all facts relating to malaria, a new publication has been started known as the "Records of the Malaria Survey of India," of which up-to-date four number have been issued.

The programme for each year involves an expenditure of Rs.10 lakhs or more and the institution of 40 or 50 investigations.

Geological Survey.—The ultimate aim of the Geological Survey of India is the preparation of a geological map of India upon the accuracy of which the solution of most geological problems ultimately depends. Maps accompany the reports on the various areas in the publications of the Department and a large amount of information is made available to the public. Such maps represent pioneer work which enables prospectors and mining engineers to cut short their preliminary investigations and to start where the Geological Survey has left off. During the preparation of the geological map and the general survey of the country, mineral deposits of importance are sometimes discovered. Such discoveries are published without delay and every endeavouris made to induce private firms to take up the exploitation of the mineral discovered. Collections of minerals, rocks and fossils are accumulated and exhibited in the public galleries of the Indian Museum, situated in Calcutta. Some of the most interesting and scientifically valuable additions to the collections in recent years have been the remains of anthropoid apes of great age discovered at different places in the Siwalik Hills, a range which for hundreds of miles runs parallel to the Himalayas, at a short distance below the foot hills of the latter, and is largely composed of Himalayan detritus. The Geological Survey helps in the spread of geological education in India by the presentation of mineral, rock and fossil specimens to educational institutions. The knowledge gained concerning the geological structure of India and the composition of the rocks that compose the strata enables the department to help in the solution of engineering problems connected with the selection of sites for dams for reservoirs, the safety of hill slopes and the suitability of particular building stones for particular purposes. The Department is also often able to advise on problems concerned with the supply of water. As a result of the knowledge gained concerning the structure and disposition of the mineral deposits of India, the Department is also in a position to give advice concerning the conservation of the mineral resources of the country. The Geological Survey also undertakes the examination and identification, without fee, of any minerals, rocks and fossils sent in by private observers. The publications of the Survey include the Memoirs, Records and Palæontologia Indica. The Survey headquarters are in Calcutta.

Posts and Telegraphs.

POST OFFICE.

The control of the Posts and Telegraphs of India is vested in an officer designated Director-General of Posts and Telegraphs whose office is attached to the Department of Industries and Labour of the Government of India. For the efficient working of the Department a representative of the Finance Deptt.—the Financial Adviser, Posts and Telegraphs—has been attached to the office of the D. G. P. & T. The Financial Adviser not only controls the finances of the Dept. but also assists the D. G. generally in examining matters containing financial implications in which the former is assisted by the Deputy Director-General, Finance. The superior staff of the Direction, in addition to the Director-General himself, consists on the postal side of one Senior Deputy Director-General, one Deputy Director-General (postal services), five (including one temporary) Asstt. Deputy Director-General and one Personal Assistant to the Director-General.

For postal purposes, the Indian Empire is divided into nine circles namely, Bengal and Assam, Bihar and Orissa, Bombay, Burma, Central, Madras, Punjab and North-West Frontier, United Provinces and Sind and Baluchistan. Each of the first eight is in charge of a Postmaster-General and the Sind and Baluchistan Circle is controlled by a Director of Posts & Telegraphs. The Central Circle comprises roughly the Central Provinces and the Central India and Rajputana Agencies.

The Postmasters-General are responsible to the Director-General for the whole of the postal arrangements in their respective circles, including those connected with the conveyance of mails by railways and inland steamers. All the Postmasters-General are provided with Deputy and Assistant Postmasters-General. The nine Postal Circles are divided into Divisions, each in charge of a Superintendent of Post Offices or Railway Mail Service as the case may be and each Superintendent is assisted by a certain number of officials styled Inspectors.

Generally there is a head post office at the head-quarters of each revenue district and other post offices in the same district are usually subordinate to the head office for purposes of accounts. The Postmasters of the Calcutta, Bombay, and Madras General Post Offices and of the larger of the other head post offices are directly under the Postmasters-General. The Presidency Postmasters, indeed, have one or more Superintendents subordinate to them. When the duties of the Postmaster or a head office become so onerous that he is unable to perform them fully himself a Deputy Postmaster is appointed to relieve him of some of them, and if still further relief is required, one or more Assistant Postmasters are employed. The more important of the offices subordinate to the head office are designated sub-offices and are usually established only in towns of some importance. Sub-offices transact all classes of postal business with the public, submit accounts to the head offices to which they are subordinate incorporating therein the accounts of their branch offices, and frequently have direct dealings with Government local sub-treasuries. The officer in charge of such an office works it either single-handed or with the assistance of one or more clerks according to the amount of business.

Branch offices are small offices with limited functions ordinarily intended for villages, and are placed in charge either of departmental officers on small pay or of extraneous agents, such as school-masters, shopkeepers, land-holders or cultivators who perform their postal duties in return for a small remuneration.

The audit work of the Post Office is entrusted to the Accountant-General, Posts and Telegraphs, who is an officer of the Finance Department of the Government of India and is not subordinate to the Director-General. The Accountant-General is assisted by Deputy Accountants-General, all of whom, with the necessary staff of clerks, perform at separate head-quarters the actual audit work of a certain number of postal circles.

In accordance with an arrangement which has been in force since 1883, a large number of sub-post offices and a few head offices perform telegraph work in addition to their postal work and are known by the name of combined offices. The policy is to increase telegraph facilities everywhere and especially in towns by opening a number of cheap telegraph offices working under the control of the Post Office.

The **Inland Tariff** (which is applicable to Ceylon and Portuguese India except as indicated below) is as follows :—

	When the postage is prepaid.	When the postage is wholly unpaid.	When the postage is insufficiently prepaid.
Letters.	Anna. Pies.		
Not exceeding two and a half tolas ..	1 3	Double the prepaid rate (chargeable on delivery).	Double the deficiency (chargeable on delivery).
Every additional two and a half tolas or part of that weight	1 3		
Book and pattern packets.			
Every 5 tolas or part of that weight ..	0 6		

Postcards.

Single .. .. .. 9 pies.

Reply .. .. .. 1 anna 6 pies.

(The postage on cards of private manufacture must be prepaid in full.)

Parcels (prepayment compulsory).

Parcels not exceeding 800 tolas in weight:—

	Rs. a.
Not exceeding 20 tolas	0 2
Exceeding 20 tolas but not exceeding 40 tolas	0 4
For every additional 40 tolas or part of that weight	0 4

Registration is compulsory in the case of parcels weighing over 440 tolas.

These rates are not applicable to parcels for Portuguese India.

In the case of parcels for Ceylon a registration fee of 3 annas is chargeable on each parcel in addition to the rates shown above.

Registration fee.	Rs. a.
For each letter, postcard, book or pattern packet, or parcel to be registered	0 3

Ordinary Money Order fees.

On any sum not exceeding Rs. 10 ..	0 2
On any sum exceeding Rs. 10 but not exceeding Rs. 25	0 4
On any sum exceeding Rs. 25 upto Rs. 600	0 4

for each complete sum of Rs. 25, and 4 annas for the remainder; provided that, if the remainder does not exceed Rs. 10, the charge for it shall be only 2 annas.

Telegraphic money order fees.—The same as the fees for ordinary money orders *plus* a telegraph charge calculated at the rates for inland telegrams for the actual number of words used in the telegram advising the remittance, according as the telegram is to be sent as an "Express" or as an "Ordinary" message. In addition to the above a supplementary fee of two annas is levied on each inland telegraphic money order.

In the case of Ceylon the telegraph charge is calculated at the rates shown below:—

Express—Rs. 2 for the first 12 words and 3 annas for each additional word.

Ordinary.—Re. 1 for the first 12 words and 2 annas for each additional word. Telegraphic money orders cannot be sent to Portuguese India.

Value-payable fees.—These are calculated on the amount specified for remittance to the sender and are the same as the fees for ordinary money orders.

Insurance fees.

	A. p.
Where the value insured does not exceed Rs. 100	0 3
Where the value insured exceeds Rs. 100 but does not exceed Rs. 150	0 4
Where the value insured exceeds Rs. 150 but does not exceed Rs. 200	0 5
For every additional Rs. 100 or fraction thereof over Rs. 200 and upto Rs. 1,000	0 2
For every additional Rs. 100 or fraction thereof over Rs. 1,000	0 1

As regards Portuguese India see Foreign Tariff.

Acknowledgment fee.—For each registered article 1 anna.

The Foreign Tariff (which is not applicable to Ceylon or to Portuguese India except in respect of insurance fees for parcels and parcel postage) is as follows:—

Letters.

To Great Britain and Northern Ireland, Egypt), including the Sudan) and all British Colonies, Dominions and possessions except Palestine and Transjordan.	2½ annas for the first ounce and 2 annas for each additional ounce or part of that weight.
To other countries, colonies or places.	3½ annas for the first ounce and 2 annas for every additional ounce or part of that weight.
Postcards, Single	2 annas.
„ Reply	4 annas.

Printed Papers.—½ anna for every 2 ounces or part of that weight.

Business Papers.—For a packet not exceeding 10 ounces in weight .. .. 3½ annas.

For every additional 2 ounces or part of that weight .. .. ½ anna.

Samples.—1½ annas for first 4 ounces and ½ anna per 2 ounces thereafter.

Parcels.

(i) Parcels not exceeding 20 lbs. in weight and addressed to Great Britain and Northern Ireland are forwarded as mails to the British Post Office, the rates of postage applicable to such parcels being as follows:—

For a parcel—	*Via* Gibraltar. Rs. a. p.	Overland. Rs. a. p.
Not over 3 lbs.	1 8 0	1 13 6
Over 3 lbs., but not over 7 lbs.	2 12 0	3 1 6
„ 7 „ „ 11 „	3 15 0	4 2 6
„ 11 „ „ 20 „	6 3 0	7 3 0

These parcels are delivered by the post office and the postage paid carries them to destination.

(*ii*) Parcels which exceed 11 lbs. but which do not exceed 50 lbs. (the maximum allowed) in weight are forwarded from India through the medium of the P. & O.S.N Co., and are delivered at destination under arrangements made by that Company. The postage charge applicable to such parcels is twelve annas for each pound, or fraction of a pound. The parcels are delivered free of charge *within a radius of one mile from the Company's Head Office in London*; if addressed to any place beyond that radius, carrier's charges are levied from the addressees on delivery. Parcels thus forwarded through the P. & O. S. N. Co. cannot be insured during transit *beyond* India, but must, if they contain coin, etc., be insured *during transit in India*. No acknowledgment of delivery can be obtained in respect of these parcels, nor can such parcels be transmitted to Great Britain and Northern Ireland under the value-payable system.

Limits of Weight.

Letters.—4 lbs. 6 oz.

Printed Papers and Business Papers—To Great Britain and Northern Ireland, and the Irish Free State, British Australasian Colonies, Hong-kong, the Straits Settlements, Togo (British), the Union of South Africa, Rhodesia, and the Bechuanaland Protectorate—5 lbs.

To Ceylon—No limit.

To all other destinations—4 lbs. 6 oz.

Samples—To Great Britain and Northern Ireland, and the Irish Free State, Hong-kong, the Straits Settlements, Togo (British), the Union of South Africa, Rhodesia, and the Bechuanaland Protectorate—5 lbs.

To Ceylon—200 tolas.
To all other destinations—1 lb. 2 oz.
Parcels.—11 lbs. or 20 lbs.

Limits of Size.

Letters—1½ feet length by 1½ feet in width or depth. If in form of roll, 2½ feet in length and 4 inches in diameter.

Printed Papers and Business Papers—To Ceylon—2 feet in length by 1 foot in width or depth.

To all other destinations—1½ feet in length by 1½ feet in width or depth.

If in form of roll, dimensions in all cases are 30 inches in length and 4 inches in diameter.

Samples.—To Great Britain and Northern Ireland, and the Irish Free State, Ceylon, Hong-kong, the Straits Settlements, the Union of South Africa, Rhodesia and the Bechuanaland Protectorate—2 feet in length by 1 foot in width or depth.

To all other destination—1½ feet in length by 8 inches in width and 4 inches in depth.

If in form of roll, dimensions in all cases are 1½ feet in length and 6 inches in diameter.

Money Orders.—To countries on which money orders have to be drawn in rupee currency, the rates of commission are as follows:—

	Rs.	a.
On any sum not exceeding Rs. 10 ..	0	3
On any sum exceeding Rs. 10 but not exceeding Rs. 25	0	6
On any sum exceeding Rs. 25	0	6

for each complete sum of Rs. 25 and 6 annas for the remainder, provided that, if the remainder does not exceed Rs. 10, the charge for it shall be only 3 annas.

To countries on which money orders have to be drawn in sterling, the rates are as follows:—

						Rs.	a.
On any sum not exceeding £1						0	4
,, ,, exceeding £1 but not exceeding £2						0	7
,, ,, ,,	£2	,,	,,	£3		0	10
,, ,, ,,	£3	,,	,,	£4		0	13
,, ,, ,,	£4	,,	,,	£5		1	0
,, ...	£5	..	..	..		1	0

for each complete sum of £5 and 1 rupee for the remainder, provided that if the remainder does not exceed £1, the charge for it shall be 4 annas; if it does not exceed £2, the charge shall be 7 annas; if it does not exceed £3, the charge shall be 10 annas; and if it does not exceed £4, the charge shall be 13 annas.

Insurance fees (for registered letters and parcels only).

For insurance of letters and parcels to Mauritius, British Somaliland, the Seychelles, and of parcels to Iraq, Zanzibar and Portuguese India.

	Annas.
Where the value insured does not exceed Rs. 180	4½
For every additional Rs. 180 or fraction thereof	4½

For insurance of letters and parcels to Great Britain and Northern Ireland and to British Possessions and Foreign countries (other than those mentioned above) to which insurance is available.

	Annas
Where the value insured does not exceed £12	4½
For every additional £12 or fraction thereof	4½

Acknowledgement fee.—3 annas for each registered article.

Magnitude of business in Post Office.—At the close of 1932-33 there were 106,480 postal officials, 23,800 post offices, and 167,170 miles of mail lines. During the year, 1,121 million articles, including 42½ million registered articles were posted; stamps worth Rs. 62.4 millions were sold for postal purposes: over 36.7 million money orders of the total value of Rs. 762 millions were issued, a sum of Rs. 192 millions was collected for tradesmen and others on V. P. articles; over 3·8 million insured articles valued at 1,095·7 millions of rupees were handled. Customs duty, aggregating over 8·3 million rupees was realised on parcels and letters from abroad, pensions amounting to Rs. 16·4 millions were paid to Indian Military pensioners and 15,000 lbs. of quinine were sold to the public. On the 31st March 1933, there were 2,737,000 Savings Bank accounts with a total balance of Rs. 434·5 millions and 84,700 Postal Life Insurance policies with an aggregate assurance of Rs. 158·5 millions.

TELEGRAPH DEPARTMENT.

Telegraphs.—Up to 1912 the telegraph system in India was administered as a separate department by an officer designated Director-General of Telegraphs who worked in subordination to the Government of India in the Department of Commerce and Industry. In that year it was decided to vest the control of Posts and Telegraphs in a single officer as an experimental measure with a view to the eventual amalgamation of the two Departments.

In pursuance of this policy an experimental amalgamation of the two services was introduced in the Bombay and Central Circles from the 1st July 1912. The fundamental principles of this scheme which followed closely the system in force in the United Kingdom and several other European countries were that the traffic and engineering work of the Telegraph Department should be separated, the former branch of work in each Circle being transferred to the Postmaster-General assisted by a Deputy Postmaster-General and a suitable number of attached officers and the engineering branch being controlled by a Director of Telegraphs. Subordinate to this officer there were several Divisional Superintendents who were assisted by a number of attached officers.

In 1914 the complete amalgamation of the two Departments was sanctioned by the Secretary of State and introduced from 1st April. The superior staff of the Direction, in addition to the Director-General himself, consists on the engineering side of a Chief Engineer, Telegraphs, with one Personal Assistant. For traffic work there is a Deputy Director-General, with two Assistant officers. In the Circles the scheme which has been introduced follows closely on the lines of the experimental one referred to above. For telegraph engineering purposes India was divided up into five Circles, each in charge of a Director. For Burma special arrangements were considered necessary and the engineering work is in charge of the Postmaster-General who is a Telegraph officer specially selected for the purpose. These six Circles were divided into twenty-one Divisions each of which is in charge of a Divisional Engineer. On the 1st July 1922 Sind and Baluchistan circle was formed with its headquarters at Karachi. This circle is in charge of a Director of Posts and Telegraphs. On the 31st March 1924 there were 7 Circles and 20 Divisions. With a view to complete fusion of the three branches of work on the lines of the Burma Circle, the engineering work of the Bombay and Central Circles was brought under the control of the respective Postmaster General in 1925 and this unification proved an unqualified success and was gradually extended to other circles. The fusion was completed in March 1930. The telegraph traffic and the engineering branches in the circles are now controlled by the Postmasters-General.

There is also a Wireless Branch attached to the Director General's office, which is in administrative control of all wireless work in the Department. The Director of Wireless is in charge of this branch and is assisted by two officers.

The audit work of the Telegraph Department is, like that of the Post Office, entrusted to the Accountant-General, Posts and Telegraphs, assisted by a staff of Deputy and Assistant Accountants-General.

Inland Telegrams and Tariff.—Telegrams sent to or received from places in India or Ceylon are classed as Inland telegrams. The tariff for inland telegrams is as follows:—

	For delivery in India.		For delivery in Ceylon.	
	Private and State.		*Private and State.*	
	Express.	Ordinary.	Express.	Ordinary.
	Rs. a.	Rs. a.	Rs. a.	Rs. a.
Minimum charge.	1 8	0 12	2 0	1 0
Each additional word over 12..	0 2	0 1	0 3	0 2

The address is charged for.

Additional charges.

Minimum for reply-paid telegram	Minimum charge for an ordinary telegram.
Notification of delivery	Minimum charge for an ordinary telegram.
Multiple telegrams, each 100 words or less	4 annas.
Collation	One half of the charge for an ordinary telegram of same length.

		Rs.
For acceptance of an Express telegram during the hours when an office is closed.	If both the offices of origin and destination are closed ..	2
	If only one of the offices is closed .	1
	If the telegram has to pass through any closed intermediate office an additional fee in respect of each such office	1
Signalling by flag or semaphore to or from ships—per telegram	The usual inland charge *plus* a fixed fee of 8 ans.	
Boat hire	Amount actually necessary.	
Copies of telegrams each 100 words or less	4 annas.	

Press telegrams.	For delivery in India. Express. Rs. a.	For delivery in India. Ordinary. Rs. a.	For delivery in Ceylon. Express. Rs. a.
Minimum charge ..	1 0	0 8	1 0
Each additional 6 words over 48 in respect of India, each additional four words over 32 in respect of Ceylon ..	0 2	0 1	0 2

The address is free.

Surcharge on telegrams.—A surcharge of two annas or one anna according to the class of telegram "*Express*" or "*Ordinary*" is levied on every Inland "Sent" telegram. This surcharge does not apply to press telegrams nor to telegram to Ceylon.

Foreign Tariff.—The charges for foreign telegrams vary with the countries to which they are addressed. The rates per word for telegrams to countries in Europe, America etc. are as follows:—.

	Ordy. Rs.a.	Defd. Rs.a.	D.L.T Rs. a.
Europe via I. R. C.			
Great Britain and Northern Ireland	0 15	0 7½	0 5
Irish Free State	1 0	0 8	0 5½
Belgium	1 2	0 9	0 6
Holland	1 2	0 9	0 6
Germany	1 4	0 10	0 7
Switzerland ..	1 4	0 10	0 7
Spain	1 4	0 10	..
France	1 3	0 9½	0 6½
Italy City of the Vatican.	1 5	0 10½	..
Other Offices	1 4	0 10	0 7
Norway.—			
Svalbard	1 7	0 11½	..
Other Places	1 4	0 10	0 7
Bulgaria	1 5	0 10½	0 10
Russia	1 5	0 10½	0 7
Turkey	1 5	..	..
Czecho-Slovakia ..	1 5	0 10½	0 7
South Africa via I. R. C.— Zanzibar			
Union of South Africa and S. W. Africa ..	1 15	0 15½	0 8½
America via I. R. C.—			
N. A. Cables.			
Ontario, Quebec, Nova Scotia, etc.	1 11	0 13½	0 9
Manitoba	2 1	1 ½	0 11
Vancouver B.C.	2 3	1 1½	0 12
New York, Boston, etc.	1 11	0 13½	0 9
Philadelphia, Washington, etc.	1 13	0 14½	0 10
Chicago	2 0	1 0	0 11
San Francisco, Seattle, etc.	2 3	1 1½	0 12
Buenos Aires	3 7	1 11½	..
Rio de Janeiro	3 10	1 13	..
Valparaiso	3 7	1 11½	..
Havana	2 5	1 2½	..
Jamaica	3 4	1 10	..

Urgent Telegrams—

Rate double of ordinary rate.

Daily Letter Telegrams—

Minimum charge for 25 words.

Ordinary rate telegrams may be written in Code.

Telegrams are accepted at all Government Telegraph Offices.

Usual rules apply regarding Registration Reply Paid, etc.

Full lists published in Posts and Telegraphs Guide.

Radio-Telegrams.—For radio-telegrams addressed to ships at sea from offices in India or Burma and transmitted *via* the coast stations at Bombay, Calcutta, Karachi, Madras, Port Blair or Rangoon the charge is thirteen annas per word in nearly all cases.

The following are the charges (excluding supplementary charges) for radio-telegrams from Offices in India or Burma transmitted *to ships at sea* through the coast stations mentioned in the preceding paragraph:—

	Total charge per word. Rs. a.
(1) All Government or Private Radio-telegrams, excepting those mentioned in (2) to (4) below ..	0 13
(2) Radio-telegrams to His Britannic Majesty's Ships of War or Ships of the Royal Indian Marine ..	0 8
(3) Radio-telegrams to Spanish or Swedish ships ..	0 12

The sender of a radio-telegram may prepay a reply. He must insert before the address, the instruction "R. P." followed by mention in Rupees and annas of the amount prepaid, *e.g.*, R.P. 7-8. This expression counts as one word.

DAILY LETTER-TELEGRAMS.

Daily Letter-Telegrams in plain language, which are dealt with telegraphically throughout are accepted on any day of the week, and are ordinarily delivered to the addressee on the morning of the second day following the day of booking. They are subject to the conditions prescribed for Deferred Foreign telegrams with certain exceptions as stated below.

The charge for a Daily Letter-Telegram is ordinarily one-third of the charge for a full rate telegram of the same length and by the same route subject to a minimum charge equal to the charge for 25 words at such reduced rate including the indication DLT.

The late fee system does not apply to Daily Letter-Telegrams and such telegrams are not accepted during the closed hours of an office.

On Indian lines Daily Letter-Telegrams are transmitted after Deferred Foreign telegrams.

The only special services admitted in daily letter telegrams are Reply paid, Poste Restante, Telegraph restante and telegraph redirection under orders of the addressee.

Growth of Telegraphs.—At the end of 1897-98 there were 50,305 miles of line and 155,088 miles of wire and cable, as compared with 107,160 miles of line including cable and 587,574 miles of wire including conductors respectively, on the 31st March 1933. The numbers of departmental telegraph offices were 257 and 115 (including 19 Radio offices), respectively, while the number of telegraph offices worked by the Post Office rose from 1,634 to 4,274.

The increase in the number of paid telegrams dealt with is shown by the following figures:—

		1897-98.	1932-33.
Inland ..	Private ..	4,107,270	11,711,350
	State ..	860,382	8,52,069
	Press ..	35,910	679,701
Foreign ..	Private ..	735,679	2,249,685
	State ..	9,896	28,556
	Press ..	5,278	71,894
		5 754.415	15,593,255

The outturn of the workshops during 1930-31 represented a total value of Rs. 10,53,500.

Wireless.—The total number of departmental wireless stations open at the end of 1932-33 was thirty, *viz.*, Akyab, Allahabad, Bassein, Bombay, Calcutta, Cheduba, Chittagong, Delhi, Diamond Island, Jodhpur, Jutogh, Karachi, (two stations), Lahore, Madras (3 stations), Nagpur, Peshawar, Poona, Port Blair, Quetta, Rangoon (4 stations), Sandheads (two pilot-vessels), Sandoway and Victoria Point, of which only Cheduba Port Blair and Victoria Point booked telegrams direct from the public.

Seven of these stations were designated coast stations for communication with ships at sea and ten worked as aeronautical stations in connection with regular air services.

The Duplex high-speed service between Rangoon and Madras continued to work satisfactorily, the wheatstone system being employed generally for this circuit.

Telephones.—On the 31st March 1933 the number of telephone exchanges established by the Department was 317 with 19,025 straight line connections and 3,084 extension telephones. Of these exchanges, 169 were worked departmentally. The number of telephone exchanges established by Telephone Companies was 25 with 35,200 connections.

The total staff employed on telegraphs, telephones and wireless on the 31st March 1933 was 13,500.

Posts and Telegraphs.—The capital outlay of the Indian Posts and Telegraphs Department during and to the end of the year 1932-33 was Rs. 19,37,750 and Rs. 15,82,84,000 respectively. The receipts for the year ended 31st March 1933 amounted to Rs. 10,55,40,000 and charges (including interest on capital outlay) to Rs. 10,97,30,000, the result being a net loss of Rs. 41,90,000.

Sanitation.

The history of the sanitary departments in India goes back for about sixty years. During that period great improvements have been effected in the sanitary condition of the towns, though much remains to be done; but the progress of rural sanitation which involves the health of the great bulk of the population has been slow, and incommensurate with the thought and labour bestowed on the subject. "The reason lies in the apathy of the people and the tenacity with which they cling to domestic customs, injurious to health. While the inhabitants of the plains of India are on the whole distinguished for personal cleanliness, the sense of public cleanliness has ever been wanting. Great improvements have been effected in many places; but the village house is still often ill-ventilated and over-populated: the village site dirty, crowded with cattle, choked with rank vegetation, and poisoned by stagnant pools; and the village tanks polluted, and used indiscriminately for bathing, cooking and drinking. That the way to improvement lies through the education of the people has always been recognised."

Of recent years the pace has been speeded up as education progressed, education developed, and funds were available. In a resolution issued in May 23rd, 1914, the Government of India summarised the position at that time, and laid down the general lines of advance. This resolution (*Gazette of India*, May 25th, 1914) should be studied by all who wish to understand the attitude of the Government of India towards sanitation prior to the passing of the Reform Act of 1919. It will be found summarised in the Indian Year Book of 1922 (page 475 *et seq.*) and earlier editions. One of the greatest changes effected by the Reform Act of 1919 was the transfer of sanitation to the provinces making it a subject directly responsible to local control through Ministers. It is yet too early to attempt to indicate the effects of this change.

The Public Health Commissioner with the Government of India in a general review of health organisation in British India which he laid in January, 1928, before the Interchange Study Tour organised for Medical Officers of Health from the Far Eastern Countries by the Health Organisation of the League of Nations, concluded "that the State effort in regard to Health Organisation in British India is one of no mean importance, that it has evolved over a couple of centuries during which many mistakes in policy must be admitted, that it has provided the Officers and the stimulus necessary for laying the foundations of medical education, that it has tried to uphold the ethical standards of western medicine and that in whichever way it is regarded it is an effort of which no Government need be ashamed." He quoted, the remark of the Government of India in their Resolution of 1914 that "in the land of the ox cart one must not expect the pace of the motor car."

The Public Health Commissioner in his annual report for the year 1925 noted the introduction of the political element into health matters as a result of the Reforms and said that the improvements being introduced before the Reforms were in some provinces now in a fairway to maturing but that in other provinces "with less appreciation of the actual needs so far from adding to the organisation as they have found it have shown a desire to scrap even some of what they originally possessed." But, he says, "though the picture is neither bright nor the future rosy, it is becoming increasingly evident that a considerable section of the Indian community is thinking seriously on these public health problems: amid much futile and destructive criticisms of State and municipal efforts here and there valuable and suggestive criticism can be met with which goes to prove my contention."

India's birth rate in 1925 was nearly twice that of England and Wales, her death rate was twice that of England and Wales and nearly three times that of New Zealand and her infantile mortality rate was nearly 2½ times that of England and Wales and nearly 4½ times that of New Zealand. "The information furnished for the great group of infectious diseases of world import, *i.e.*, plague, cholera, small-pox, yellow fever, typhus, malaria, and dysentery shows (says the Public Health Report already cited) that if we except typhus and yellow fever, India is one of the world's reservoirs of infection for the others and the main reservoir of infection for plague and cholera." The significance of these facts must, adds the Commissioner, be obvious to all who think: "Briefly their implication is that India's house, from the public health point of view, is sadly out of order and that this disorder requires to be attended to. It is not for India to say that so far as she is concerned prevention is impossible. If we think of the effect of sunlight on tubercle ridden children; of the effect of feeding on rickets, scurvy and beri-beri; of the way in which malaria, cholera, yellow fever, dengue, ankylostomiasis and filariasis can be and have been overcome we need have no fear in regard to India provided the necessary measures are put into operation."

The Public Health Commissioner in an address before the annual congress of the Far Eastern Association of Tropical Medicine, held in Calcutta in December, 1927, urged the importance of instituting a Central Ministry of Health which should be charged with the functions of co-ordinating the policies and activities of the departments concerned in the several provinces and with keeping them abreast of scientific progress. There is at present no public Health Act for the whole of India, nor under existing administrative arrangements is one immediately possible, but the desirability of the Central Ministry of Health and of such an Act is likely to be urged in the course of the revision of the Constitutional Reforms now in progress.

The Commissioner in his annual report to Government for 1927 gave at the outset the following text for thought "Whether the institution of a Ministry of Health, which many of us think is long overdue for the Indian Empire, would accelerate progress is a matter of opinion; but there can be little doubt that such progress must depend not on a haphazard programme or on the fulfilment of an annual routine of measures sanctified by tradition but rather on the acceptance of such cardinal principles as have been laid down by the Chief Medical Officer of the British Ministry of Health in his 1927 report and by a genuine attempt to work to these. Sir George Newman points out that 'Nothing is more certain than the fact that the physical advancement and health of mankind is dependant not upon a doctor's stunt here or a sanitary institution there but upon the whole social evolution of the people. Now, these desired ends are not reached merely by announcing them, still less by leaving things to chance, drift or fate. They can in any case only be partly reached at all without foresight, organisation and expenditure.' He proceeds to inculcate four basic principles which it is necessary for any modern State to work to and which are as follows:—

(a) ascertainment and accurate registration of the data obtainable;

(b) the establishing of a definite standard to work to, which should be based on health and physiology and not on disease or pestilence;

(c) the study of the character and incidence of disease, its causes and predisposing conditions, its mode of spread, its social factors which increase or reduce it and the means of its treatment and prevention;

(d) the establishment of a national organisation by the assent of public opinion, such organisation being an index of the aspirations and enlightenment of the people.

It is for consideration how far we in India are now working to these basic principles or are likely to in the future and whether our existing public health organisation is best suited to enable us to do this."

The following table of vital statistics is taken from the Public Health Commissioner's latest annual report:—

Province.	Birth Rates (per mille).		Death Rates (per mille).	
	1931.	Previous 5 years.	1931.	Previous 5 years.
Delhi	42.2	46.5	23.7	35.3
Bengal	27.8	26.2	22.3	22.7
Bihar and Orissa	33.9	37.0	26.6	26.5
Assam	28.1	31.3	18.7	22.2
United Provinces	35.6	36.2	27.0	24.7
Punjab	42.7	38.1	26.0	25.7
N. W. Frontier Province	30.7	26.9	20.2	19.7
Central Provinces and Berar	44.3	46.0	35.5	34.2
Madras	35.5	37.5	23.7	25.3
Coorg	24.5	21.1	23.8	29.1
Bombay	36.1	37.5	23.8	28.3
Burma	26.5	26.8	17.4	29.9
Ajmer-Merwara	34.0	28.8	30.1	25.0
British India	34.3	35.7	24.9	26.0

Chief Causes of Mortality.—There are three main classes of fatal diseases: specific fevers diseases affecting the abdominal organs, and lung diseases, Intestinal and skin parasites, ulcers and other indications of scurvy widely prevail. The table below shows the number of deaths from each of the principal diseases and from all other causes in British India and death rates per 1,000 during 1931:—

Mortality during 1931.

D—*Deaths.* R—*Ratio per mille.*

Province.		Cholera.	Small-pox.	Plague.	Fevers.	Dysentery and Diarrhœa.	Respiratory Diseases.	All other causes.
Delhi	D.	61	26	1	7,026	513	4,348	3,111
	R.	0.1	0.0	0.0	11.0	0.8	6.8	4.9
Bengal	D.	79,073	9,207	1	731,784	42,764	62,351	188,132
	R.	1.6	0.2	0.0	14.7	0.9	1.2	3.7
Bihar and Orissa.	D.	40,943	8,028	5,429	729,447	24,085	7,013	187,754
	R.	1.1	0.2	0.1	19.4	0.6	0.2	5.0
Assam	D.	5,523	594	..	93,189	9,399	5,895	33,517
	R.	0.7	0.1	..	11.8	1.2	0.7	4.2
U. Provinces	D.	31,118	3,355	31,225	1,025,285	15,641	36,612	162,272
	R.	0.6	0.1	0.6	21.2	0.3	0.8	3.3
Punjab	D.	391	3,646	1,150	416,974	14,284	55,317	117,454
	R.	0.0	0.2	0.0	17.8	0.6	2.4	5.0
N.W.F.P.	D.	105	62	..	38,959	245	2,230	6,163
	R.	0.0	0.0	..	16.5	0.1	1.0	2.6
C. P. & Berar	D.	14,135	4,586	1,642	294,839	44,665	42,537	148,183
	R.	0.9	0.3	0.1	19.0	2.9	2.7	9.6
Madras	D.	30,232	4,660	1,073	331,834	83,838	93,222	527,713
	R.	0.7	0.1	0.0	7.3	1.9	2.1	11.6
Coorg	D.	116	24	25	2,920	112	251	439
	R.	0.7	0.1	0.1	17.9	0.7	1.5	2.7
Bombay	D.	18,646	1,873	3,506	195,139	26,517	97,969	175,727
	R.	0.8	0.1	0.2	8.9	1.2	4.5	8.1
Burma	D.	534	490	1,574	75,297	6,052	12,016	114,146
	R.	0.0	0.0	0.1	6.2	0.5	1.0	9.4
Ajmer Merwara.	D.	32	721	..	13,407	216	533	1,956
	R.	0.0	1.3	..	24.0	0.4	0.9	3.5
TOTAL 1931	D.	220,909	37,272	45,626	3,956,100	268,331	420,294	1,666,567
	R.	0.8	0.1	0.2	14.9	1.0	1.6	6.3
TOTAL 1930	D.	337,322	72,813	24,841	3,787,694	237,892	400,527	1,622,360
	R.	1.4	0.3	0.1	15.7	1.0	1.7	6.7

Statistical health reports for all India are always, inevitably submitted are belated owing to the number of provinces from which returns have to be collated.

The Public Health Commissioner in his most recently published annual report, which concerns the year 1931, brings to notice certain leading facts. He shows that the birth-rate for the year was 44.3 per mille of the 1931 census population as compared with 33.4 p.m. of the estimated population for 1930 and 35.7 p.m. for the preceding quinquennium. He shows that the death rate was 24.8 p.m. of the 1931 census population as against 24.5 p.m. on the estimated population for 1930 and 26.0 p.m. for the preceding quinquennium. The infantile mortality rate, *i.e.*, the death rate of infants below one year old per thousand live births, was 178.8 as against 180.8 in 1930 and 177.6 in the preceding quinquennium. The highest birth rate was recorded in the Central Provinces where the figure was 44.1 per mille (43.5 p.m. in 1930 and quinquennial average 46.0), and the lowest in Coorg, where it was 24.5 p.m. (25.7 p.m. in 1930 and quinquennial mean 21.1).

The Public Health Commissioner, dealing specially with the high rate of infantile mortality, mentions that statistics of the causes of these early deaths are not recorded but says that it is generally known that premature birth, convulsions, fever, malnutrition, respiratory diseases and bowel complaints are the main causative features. In a special chapter dealing with municipal vital statistics, he shows that to a considerable extent unskilled maternity service is responsible for high infant mortality rates in municipalities and that steps have been and are being taken in these areas to eliminate the risks.

Dr. Ruth Young, Director of the Maternity and Child Welfare Bureau of the Indian Red Cross Society, in some notes contributed to the Public Health Commissioner's report on this subject, says that "One is forced to a monotonous repetition of the statement that progress (in maternity and child welfare work in India) is very slow, that local bodies and even provincial governments evince little interest in the work and have no convictions about it sufficient to prompt them to spend money on such a subject." On the basis of figures specially collected in the Madras Presidency, she says in regard to that field of international health province that "trained health workers are almost absent and the number of midwives available work out at about one for every 1,300 cases of child-birth per annum..... One medical woman in about 7,000 cases is all that is available as a consultant in labour cases. Work is almost entirely unsupervised and without expert guidance." Dr. Young adds, "The difficulties attending the provision of trained attendants for women during child-birth do not decrease as the years go by. The problem is such a gigantic one that it tends to induce a feeling of despair." One of the difficulties of training midwives is the comparative uselessness of employing medical men for the purpose, because "such practitioners have not the opportunities to give practical instruction on actual deliveries to the midwives and training which consists mainly of lectures is quite unsuited to such pupils," while "the number of medical women can spare time to carry on such work is very small and very few also have the inclination to do it". A satisfactory feature of the position is that women are increasingly taking advantage of hospitals and maternity homes for their confinements.

The Health Commissioner shows in regard to the general statistics that the registration of cases of death in India is still very defective "and is likely to remain so." The Commissioner once more reiterates the demand that he has so often made for strengthening the central health organisation of India. He emphasises afresh the catastrophic nature of disease visitations in India, more especially those of cholera, smallpox and plague, and the paramount necessity for preserving not only the public health organisation which has hitherto existed, but also the principle of its skilled direction by competent and well experienced hygienists. He shows that as a result of the retrenchment campaign "the whole of the central health work of the Government of India has now to be dealt with by the Public Health Commissioner unaided". He adds "One must bow to the penalties of financial stringency more especially if this be on a world-wide scale; but the voice of intelligent Indian opinion must sooner or later be heard on this both inside and outside the legislative chambers. Such opinion will surely demand an organisation which is capable of framing a public health policy for the country and of seeing that it is carried through. It will surely wish to see to it that the personnel for this is adequate and to this end its political representatives must be prepared to vote such grants as is necessary for the expenditure.

No big health policy for this country which is to be worthy of the name can be elaborated and worked to without the necessary expert administrative machinery which has its price like any other commodity."

Referring to the impression which persists in certain quarters that the transfer of executive control of public health to the provinces has removed the need for adequate central health organisation, he points out how absurdly inconsistent this is with the facts of the position, one which he uses for illustration being the obligations of the Government of India in the field of International health.

The Public Health Commissioner concludes: "The great hope of the future must lie in the development of health education and, as a corollary, the gradual appreciation by the educated population of the value of health and so the creation of public health conscience. Until this has happened there will be little hope for the exercise of that intelligent pressure on provincial Governments for judicious expenditure on certain health measures which is not only justifiable but necessary.

THE HEALTH OF THE ARMY.

General Health statistics of the British Army in India during the year 1932.

1929	Average Strength.	Admissions.		Deaths.		Invalids sent Home.		Invalids Discharged in India.		Invalids finally discharged in United Kingdom.		Average Constantly sick.	
		No.	Ratio per 1,000.	No.	Ratio per 1,000.	No.	Ratio per 1,000.	No.	Ratio per 1,000.	No.	Ratio per 1,000.	No.	Ratio per 1,000.
Officers ..	2,295	1,063	463.2	15	6.54	63	27.43	..	..	..	..	38.75	16.88
British Other Ranks.	55,336	32,177	581.2	164	2.96	400	7.39	..	..	..	..	1,458.31	26.35
British Other Ranks' wives	4,317	1,262	292.3	18	4.17	57	13.20	..	..	..	..	41.62	9.64
British Other Ranks' wives —parturition	..	863	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	33 21	..
British Other Ranks' children.	6,684	1,999	299.1	85	12.72	14	2.09	..	..	..	..	65.61	9.82
Others ..	..	2,345	..	440	..	38	..	..	..	..	..	86·14	..

Among officers of the British Army in India 463.2 per thousand of strength were admitted to hospital during the year compared with 420.4 in 1931. There were 15 deaths, giving a ratio of 6.54 per thousand, compared with 18 and 7.76 in 1931. The average constantly sick in hospital was 38.75 or 16.88 per thousand of strength as compared with 15.11 in the preceding year. The total constantly sick, in hospital or out of hospital, on account of disease and injury was 27.94 per thousand.

Of British soldiers 32,177, or 581.5 per thousand were admitted to hospital compared with 647 per thousand in 1931 and 580.5 per thousand in 1913. There were 1,646 soldier deaths or 2.96 per thousand of the strength compared with 2.76 per thousand in 1931. The most important causes of mortality among soldiers were :—

Local injuries	27
Pneumonia	27
Enteric group of fevers	14
Heat stroke	12
Appendicitis	11
Heat exhaustion	6

The number, sent home as invalids was 409 or 7.39 per thousand of the strength, compared with 544 or 9.74 per thousand in 1931.

Among women and children (British Other Ranks) 1,262 women or 292.3 per thousand of the strength were admitted to hospital compared with 1,395 or 334.4 per thousand in 1931. Of the children, 1,999 or 299.1 per thousand of the strength were admitted to hospital, compared with 1,896 or 286.4 in 1931.

The principal cause of sickness among British troops was malaria of which there were, 4,654 cases, a decrease of 1,628 compared with 1931. The year's report by the medical authorities remarks, "I n 1932, in India, the British troops lost about 32,568 days spent in hospital on account of malaria alone—a matter of serious economic importance to the State. The hard fact is that we know well how to deal with the malaria problem ; but we have not the funds with which to put our knowledge to adequate practical use."

HEALTH OF THE INDIAN ARMY FOR THE YEAR 1932.

	Average strength.	Admissions.		Deaths.		Invalids sent to U. K.		Invalids discharged in India.		Average constantly sick.	
		No.	Ratio per 1,000.	No.	Ratio per 1,000.	No.	Ratio per 1,000.	No.	Ratio per 1,000.	No.	Ratio per 1,000.
Officers	2,175	700	321·8	15	6·90	26	11·95	..	..	24·36	11·20
Indian Ranks ..	121,013	52,017	429·8	305	2·52	..	..	783	6·47	1,902·33	15·72
Followers	28,248	7,525	266·4	109	3·86	..	..	..	..	266·35	9·43
Others *	..	2,094	..	25	..	..	..	73	..	..	..

* Includes Reservists, Indian Territorial Force, Royal Indian Marine, Indian State Forces R. A. F., Civilians and Pensioners.

The admission rate of officers sick in hospital for 1932 was 321.8 per thousand of strength as compared with 367.4 in 1931. Among soldiers 52,017 or 429.8 per thousand of strength were, admitted to hospital, compared with 451.3 per thousand in 1931. There was thus a decrease of 21.5 per thousand on the 1931 figures. The death rate among Indian soldiers during 1932 was 2.52 per thousand as against 2.96 per thousand in 1931.

LEPROSY IN INDIA

It is exceedingly difficult to give anything approaching an accurate estimate of the total number of lepers in the Indian Empire to-day. In 1921, when a Census was made, leprosy was regarded as an *infirmity* like blindness, insanity and deaf-mutism and the supposed number of lepers was tabulated along with these. The number counted was 102,513 as against 109,004 in 1911. But it was recognised doubtful if this figure represented anything more than the more advanced cases and that possibly a majority of this number were the begging and pauper lepers who are seen all over the country. Dr. E. Muir, M.D., F.R.C.S., the Leprosy Research Worker at the Calcutta School of Tropical Medicine, said that "recent figures obtained from a carefully conducted but limited survey, tend to confirm the computation that there are roughly from a half to one million people in India suffering from leprosy."

Early in the year 1924, the British Empire Leprosy Relief Association was constituted in England with H. R. H. The Prince of Wales as Patron, the Viscount Chelmsford as Chairman of the General Committee and H. E. the Viceroy of India as one of the Vice-Presidents. Following its formation and in view of the good results being obtained from the newest treatment of leprosy, H. E. the Viceroy felt that the time was auspicious for the inauguration and carrying on of an earnest campaign with the object of ultimately stamping out leprosy from India.

His Excellency invited certain gentlemen representing various interests to form an Indian Council of the Association, which he formally inaugurated at a public meeting in Delhi on the 27th January 1925.

A general appeal for funds in aid of the Association was issued by His Excellency the Viceroy on the date of the inauguration of the Indian Council which was closed after a year with realizations amounting to over Rs. 20,00,000 which was invested in the end of 1928. The investments amounted to Rs. 20,63,065 yielding an annual revenue of over Rs. 1,22,000.

In the scheme of anti-leprosy campaign which the Association put into operation, the respective parts to be played by the Central and Provincial Committees in carrying forward the aims and objects of the Association are definitely apportioned. The Central Committee is vested with the task of promoting research, of preparing and publishing propaganda material, arranging for the training of doctors in the diagnosis and treatment of leprosy according to the latest methods and of conducting an expert survey of selected areas for the ascertainment of the facts regarding the incidence and endemicity of leprosy. Measures for the accommodation and treatment of leprous patients and other schemes of purely local interest are to be the concern of provincial committees as agents of the Indian Council in the Provinces.

The policy and principles of the British Empire Leprosy Relief Association, Indian Council, with regard to provincial committees are expressed in its "Memorandum on the method of conducting the anti-leprosy campaign in India" which was published in 1926. This document sought to bring out the following main points which according to the latest scientific researches should be the basis upon which all efforts ultimately to eradicate leprosy must rest :—

(1) Pauper lepers form only a small fraction of the leper population, and the disease is common among all classes of the community.

(2) Segregation is not the most appropriate method of dealing with lepers, for

(*a*) financially it would be impossible;

(*b*) any attempt to impose forcible segregation would drive patients, particularly those who are suffering from the earlier stages of the disease, to conceal their misfortune, and, as has been the case where such means have been adopted, only the more advanced and obvious lepers would be segregated.

(3) The majority of the advanced cases are not highly infectious and are less amenable to treatment, while the early cases in which the disease has made but little outward manifestation, can be controlled by treatment.

(4) The strongest hope of stamping out the disease lies in providing facilities for the treatment of early cases.

The Indian Council, therefore, while it did not desire to minimise the usefulness of homes and asylums for the care of lepers, strongly recommended that the efforts of the Provincial Committees should, for the present at least, be concentrated upon the establishment of dispensaries to serve the following objects :—

(*a*) to induce patients to come forward at an early stage in the hope of recovery instead of hiding their malady till it becomes more advanced, more infectious and less remediable; and so

(*b*) to shut off the sources of infection as the number of infectious cases will continually tend to diminish and the opportunities for infecting the next generation will become fewer.

The Governing Body of the Indian Council in their report for the year 1933, show that the Association's main work during the completed nine years of its life has been organisation and planning and the outlining of a programme of work varied by the selection of the most fruitful soils for experimentation in methods of work. One valuable product during theat period is the fact that "the leper is becoming less prone to hide his disease and there is an increase of general interest in the subject."

There are now seventeen provincial branches, including one in Mysore State and each of them has established treatment centres for leprous patients. In Assam, for instance, the number of clinics rose from 81 in 1932 to 145 at the end of 1933. Many clinics in different parts of India report absolute cures of the disease.

His Excellency the Viceroy is the President of the Indian Council, Maj. Gen. C. A. Sprawson, C.I.E., K.H.P., I.M.S., Director General of the I.M.S. the Chairman of the Govering Body, Sardar Bahadur Balwant Singh Puri, the Honorary Secretary and Sir Ernest Burdon, Kt., C.S.I., C.I.E., the Honorary Treasurer.

BLINDNESS IN INDIA.

All over the East, and in fact in most tropical and sub-tropical countries, blindness is very prevalent, and only of recent years have people begun to realise that much of this blindness can be relieved, and still more of it, if not most of it, could, with proper measures taken, be prevented. In Egypt, renowned for its sufferings from blindness, it was a gift of some £43,000 made by Sir Ernest Cassel at the beginning of this century that was the initiation of that fine ophthalmic service, which began under the guidance of Mr. MacCallen, has now spread all over the country and gives medical treatment to three or four hundred thousand patients a year. Northern Africa, Turkey, Persia, India and China are all countries where there is a very high incidence of blindness and suffering from eye disease, and where western medicine has not yet penetrated sufficiently deeply to make much impression on the mainly rural and illiterate populations. There is a great "trachoma belt" extending from China into Eastern Europe, stopped only from spreading all over the West by the higher standard of living, sanitation and cleanliness which the European nations have attained.

India is in this great **Blindness Belt.** According to the last census returns there are 480,000 totally blind persons in this population of more than 300 millions. That is an incidence of 1½ totally blind to every thousand of the population. But the census figures are notoriously defective, and in several districts a special count has been made of the totally blind, and wherever this has been done, the census figures have been found to be much too low. Thus in the Nasik district an incidence of at least 4.38 per thousand was found as against the census figure of 1.74. In Ratnagiri an incidence of 1.5 was found as against the census figure of 0.7; in Bijapur 2.6 as against 0.7; in the United Provinces a Deputy Commissioner had a count made and found no less than 9 per thousand. In Palanpur 7 per thousand was found. If, as is not unlikely, this sort of error of underestimation in the census report is general, then it is not unreasonable to suppose that the real number of totally blind persons in India is more like 1½ millions than the half million shown in the census returns.

These are the figures for total blindness and they by no means give the full picture, for they include only totally blind of both eyes and say nothing of the much greater number who, from neglected eye diseases, are partially or even nearly blind, and whose happiness and efficiency are thus greatly impaired. The term "blindness" has a different interpreta-

tion in every country. In a report on the Prevention of Blindness, published by the League of Red Cross Societies these different interpretations are shown. In the United States blindness is defined as "inability to see well enough to read even with the aid of glasses; or for illiterates, inability to distinguish forms and objects with sufficient distinctness"; and in Egypt a person is accounted blind who cannot see fingers at a distance of one metre. If such persons were counted in our statistics of total blindness in India, there is little doubt that the figure would be very much larger than those indicated above. Recently the **All-India Blind Relief Association** has made an analysis of a very large number of patients attending its camps and dispensaries, and has found that among these patients for every totally blind person there are three with more or less damaged vision, the result of eye disease. It appears not unlikely that the true ophthalmic condition of India would be represented by figures showing one and a half million totally blind persons, and in addition to these four and a half million with more or less impaired eyesight.

"No one," says Col. R. H. Elliot, late of the Madras Ophthalmic Hospital, writing in the British Journal of Ophthalmology of May 1919, "who has not worked in India can form any conception of the enormous amount of preventable and curable blindness which is laying its shadow over the health, happiness and usefulness of this great portion of our Empire", and the same writer in another place has said:—"It is difficult for anyone who has not had first hand experience of medical practice in the East to realise the state of things out there granular ophthalmia claims its victims by the ten thousand, whereas it is really a disease which, when properly treated at an early stage, should not cause the loss of a single eye. The neglect of patients suffering from small-pox and other febrile conditions leads to a vast amount of blindness, while the treatment of mild ocular affections by irritant drugs is probably one of the most evil factors that spread blindness broadcast throughout the land. Large numbers of men and women suffering from glaucoma, from cataract and from other curable diseases, are allowed to hide in their villages like wounded animals, waiting only their release by death. This is not an overdrawn picture. It is a statement of cold, hard, cruel facts, well known to everyone who has practised or is practising medicine in the East."

In an editorial on the Ophthalmic work in Egypt and the possibilities of similar work in India, the *Indian Medical Gazette* (March 1923) remarks:—"It would seem worth while for the Government of India to examine the working of this splendid organisation, for, in spite of the fact that workers in India have always been in the front in advances in ophthalmology, there has been little organised work in ophthalmic research except in Madras; even there the work has been done by men who have already a large amount of routine work to perform. India as a whole owes its position in the ophthalmic world entirely to the energies of individual enthusiasts, whose names are so well known that it is not necessary to mention them. What has been possible in Egypt should also be possible in India and it would appear that the first step should be the establishment of **Schools of Ophthalmology,** in places like Madras and Calcutta where ample facilities exist. At these schools advanced teaching and research in ophthalmology would be carried out, and the next step would be to organise a system of ophthalmic relief at selected centres all over India." (There are now schools of ophthalmology at Madras, Bombay, Calcutta, and Lahore).

Again in an editorial from the same journal (Sept. 1929) the following statements are made—"What is wanted is some large organisation covering the whole of this sub-continent and aiming chiefly at **Prevention rather than treatment**.....In brief what the position now calls for is an all-India movement..... Obviously the main question is one of general public health. Public health is a transferred department, but if the Health Department of the Government of India interests itself in the matter in co-operation with missionary and voluntary movements, we do not despair of seeing an all-India organisation created and built up."

Associations known as **"Blind Relief" Associations** have been working for several years in Western India, in conjunction with Government hospitals, to alleviate this affliction of blindness. The number of eye doctors in India is notoriously small and those there are stay mostly in the large towns. The Associations work by means of travelling hospitals, which bring relief to the villages in the rural areas. They also work by means of trained village workers, whose duty it is to find out the "hidden blind" and get them to the medical centre for relief; to find out cases of small-pox (a constant source of blindness in children); to inspect new born children for the detection of ophthalmia neonatorum; to keep registers of all blind and partly blind persons and persons suffering from eye disease; and to treat in the villages simple cases of conjunctivitis or sore eyes. Since their inception the Associations have been the means of restoring sight to thousands of blind people and of preventing blindness in many thousands more. The work is capable of indefinite extension and the need for some such organisation has been shown. In 1917 Colonel Elliot wrote as follows, "To me it seems that the duty and privilege of undertaking this work lie with the State, and that no sum spent on such a task could be too large. Unfortunately this is not the view that has been taken by those in authority and consequently we see the spectacle of private enterprise endeavouring to undertake this colossal task.....It is at least permissible to voice an admiration for the stand taken by Mr. Henderson. [Founder of the Blind Relief Association movement, who began the work in 1913]. The best that one can hope for his endeavour is that he will succeed in arousing the conscience of educated Indians to the needs of their less fortunate countrymen, and that this little cloud, no bigger than a man's hand, will end in a monsoon of active effort". As the above was written in 1917, it is not altogether applicable to the criticism of Government of to-day, as it has already been shown that there are now several schools of ophthal-

mology in India, and the Government eye hospitals are doing tremendous work; but these hospitals are situated in the large towns and cannot possibly by any stretch of imagination, give relief to the millions living in the rural areas.

The All-India Blind Relief Association.—(The Green Star Society) exists to co-ordinate and centralise the various Associations in the mofussil and to extend their work. It is under the patronage of the Governor of Bombay, and has for its life President, Mr. C. G. Henderson (late I. C. S.) who founded and managed for many years all the branch Associations working in Western India. It is affiliated to the International Association for the Prevention of Blindness, which has its headquarters in Paris and was formed on September 14th, 1929, under the auspices of the League of Red Cross Societies and the American Society for the Prevention of Blindness. The Organising Secretary is R. Crawford Hutchinson, The Town Hall, Bombay.

A beginning has been made, but it is only a beginning, and it is but the fringe of this vast problem that has been touched. The schools of ophthalmology in India, are turning out ophthalmic surgeons who are crowding their profession in the cities and large towns. A scheme for taking these men and placing them in selected centres has been worked out, all that is required is monetary help. The cost is *minimal* and here is an opportunity for the generous and public spirited to emulate Sir Ernest Cassel, and give to India an eye service of which India and the whole world could be proud, and to the peoples of India that which to them is probably their most precious possession—their sight.

THE MATERNITY AND CHILD WELFARE MOVEMENT.

Amongst the most pressing problems of India's health is that presented by the appalling maternal and infant mortality. The figures for maternal mortality are not accurately known, but they are certainly not less than 10 per thousand live births, often more. It has been calculated that every year no fewer than 2 million Indian babies die, while many others survive only to grow weak and feeble from unhygienic surroundings during infancy. A noteworthy feature has been the further progress of the infant welfare movement, which owes much to the All-India Maternity and Child Welfare League initiated by Lady Chelmsford and also to the Indian Red Cross Society, which aims at gradually establishing a network of child welfare centres in most of the larger towns in India. The amalgamation of these two Bodies which has taken place, forming the Maternity and Child Welfare Bureau, will undoubtedly increase and develop the work. In all the great centres of population, word is now being done for the training of midwives, for the instruction of mothers and for the care of babies. Training centres for Indian and Anglo-Indian women have been opened in order to spread the elements of infant hygiene to other parts of India. Most hopeful sign of all, Indian ladies are beginning to interest themselves in this work in large numbers. But such is the magnitude of the field, that a consistent widespread effort on a scale hitherto impossible must be undertaken, if any appreciable reduction is to be made in the appalling mortality of young children.

Centres of Activity are organised on a provincial basis, though the various provinces differ considerably in the nature of the work undertaken and the amount of organisation displayed. It is noteworthy that the work is most co-ordinated and most energetically carried on where there are persons appointed under the Directors of Public Health whose special duty it is to foster Child Welfare activities.

The care needed by the wives and children of sepoys in the Indian Army is being increasingly realised, and nowhere more than in the units themselves. The result has been, in the last few years, the opening of much work in this direction. Much of it is purely medical work, which, in the absence of families hospitals for the Indian soldiers, is a necessity. But genuine child welfare activities are also present in some centres many of them assisted by the M. & C. W. Bureau Indian Red Cross Society which has undertaken the organising work in place of the Lady Birdwood Army Child Welfare Committee. A remarkable feature of this movement is the keenness of the men themselves to aid it, realising as they do the benefit to their own women and children. There are now very few cantonments where some work of this kind is not going on.

So far all the schemes have devoted their attention to educating women in the elements of mothercraft and attempting to preserve infant lives and improve child health. In a land of so many languages and superstitions progress will necessarily be slow and India has yet to decide whether she will work intensively and try to rear a few well developed children as far as adolescence or extensively attempt to bring a large number of infants through the first critical months, only to have them perish at a later stage from the many ills that childhood is heir to in a land of great poverty, undernourishment, epidemics and famine. In Western lands the Child Welfare Movement has no more marked characteristic than its inability to stop expanding. Its ramifications know no bounds. Its inevitable corollaries are endless, and like the banyan tree it will no doubt in India also develop innumerable fresh roots, medical supervision, dental clinics, better housing, open air playgrounds, etc., etc. But these are not yet. Its preliminary task is to educate the mothers of India to the enormity of allowing two million babies to perish every year and to convince them of the equally important fact that a high death rate always spells also a high damage rate of sickly, under-developed, incompetent citizens.

INDIAN RED CROSS SOCIETY.

When the war first broke out, what is generally termed Red Cross work was undertaken in India and Mesopotamia by the St. John Ambulance Association and by a number of provincial organisations working on independent lines. From August 1916, the central work was taken over by the Indian Branch of the Joint War Committee of the Order of St. John of Jerusalem and the British Red Cross Society. The final report of that Committee shows that up to June 1920 its total receipts amounted to Rs. 1,77,85,716 of which some 17 lakhs had been contributed by the British Red Cross Society. It had spent about 67 lakhs in Mesopotamia, nine lakhs on the Afghan War and Waziristan Expedition; in Mesopotamia and India combined it had spent on Red Cross objects in all about 117 lakhs.

It closed its career in June 1920 under the following circumstances. In the summer of 1919, an invitation had been received to join the International League of Red Cross Societies, having for its object the extension of Red Cross work in the sphere of purely civil activity. Though there was then no formally constituted Red Cross Society in India, the invitation was accepted, thus giving India a distinct position in a world-wide League of humanitarian societies. A Bill to constitute an Indian Red Cross Society was introduced by Sir Claude Hill in the Imperial Legislative Council in March 1920, and duly passed into law as Act XV of 1920. This Act handed over the balance of the Joint War Committee to the new Society, and authorised it not only to direct the utilization for war purposes of the capital funds at its disposal but also to devote the interest, as far as possible, for civil purposes. As contemplated in the Act of Constitution of the Society, its activities are completely decentralized, and are being carried on through twenty-two Provincial and State Branches under which there are numerous sub-branches.

The objects on which the funds of the Society may be spent are—

1. The care of the sick and wounded men of His Majesty's Forces, whether still on the active list or demobilised.

2. The care of those suffering from Tuberculosis, having regard in the first place to soldiers and sailors, whether they have contracted the disease on active service or not.

3. Child welfare.

4. Work parties to provide the necessary garments, etc., for hospitals and health institutions in need of them.

5. Assistance required in all branches of nursing, health and welfare work, ancillary to any organisations which have or may come into being in India and which are recognised by the Society.

6. Home Service Ambulance Work.

7. Provision of comforts and assistance to members of His Majesty's Forces, whether on the active list or demobilised.

The Society has five grades of subscribing Members, namely, Honorary Vice-Presidents, Patrons, Vice-Patrons, Members and Associate Members. Their respective subscriptions are Rs. 10,000, Rs. 5,000, Rs. 1,000, Rs. 12 annually or a consolidated payment of Rs. 150, and anything between Re. 1 and Rs. 5 annually or consolidated payment of Rs. 50. At the end of 1933 there were 12,500 adult members of these various grades.

To stimulatel nterest in the aims and objects of the Society amongst the future generations a Junior Red Cross movement has been instituted which embraces the student population. The Punjab Provincial branch has taken the lead in furthering this movement. Other provinces are now following suit and at the end of 1931 the number of members was 252,941.

Constitution.—His Excellency the Viceroy is President of the Society. The Managing Body ordinarily consists of a Chairman to be nominated by the President and 25 members of the Society of whom 12 are the Vice-Presidents nominated by Provincial or State Branches 8 elected by the Society at the Annual General Meeting from among the members of the Society and 5 nominated by the President.

The present Chairman of the Managing Body is Sir David Petrie, Kt., C.I.E., C.V.O. C.B.E., and the Organising Secretary, Miss Norah Hill, A.R.R.C.

Finances.—The operations of the Joint War Committee were brought to a close in June 1920 with a capital investment of the face value of Rs. 56,33,000 and Rs. 8,01,500-8-6 in floating and fixed deposit accounts. The Society has since invested further funds in various securities and its finances at the end of December 1933, stood at a capital investment of the face value of approximately Rs. 67½ lakhs. The income derived from the capital of the Society, (which is 3¾ lakhs at present) after providing for certain liabilities of the Central Society, is distributable under the Act to the Provincial Branches in proportion to their contributions to the Central "Our Day" Fund.

St. JOHN AMBULANCE ASSOCIATION.

(Indian Council.)

The St. John Ambulance Association was founded in 1877, by the Order of the Hospital of St. John of Jerusalem in England, and has for its objects:—

(*a*) The instruction of persons in rendering First Aid in cases of accident or sudden illness and in the transport of the sick and injured;

(*b*) The instruction of persons in the elementary principles and practice of nursing, and also of hygiene and sanitation, especially of a sick room;

(*c*) The manufacture, and distribution by sale or presentation, of ambulance material, and the formation of ambulance depots in mines, factories, and other centres of industry and traffic;

(*d*) The Organisation of Ambulance Corps, Invalid Transport Corps, and Nursing Corps;

(*e*) And generally the promotion of instruction and carrying out of works for the relief of suffering of the sick and injured in peace and war independently of class, nationality, or denomination.

An Indian Council of the Association was constituted on a regular basis in 1910. It has since issued over 200,000 certificates of proficiency in First Aid, Home Nursing, Home Hygiene and Sanitation and over 10,000 tokens such as Vouchers Medallions, Labels and Pendants for special proficiency in those subjects. The object of the Association is not to rival, but to aid, the medical man, and the subject-matter of instruction given at the classes qualifies the pupil to adopt such measures as may be advantageous pending the doctor's arrival, or during the intervals between his visits.

During the year 1933 22,853 persons attended 1,583 courses of instruction in First Aid, Nursing Home, Home Hygiene and Sanitation and of these 13,957 qualified for the Association's certificates: *i.e.*, 12,869 in First Aid, 584 in Home Nursing, 451 in Hygiene and 53 in Sanitation. A new course, Domestic Hygiene and Mothercraft, introduced in 1932 has not made much headway. To popularise Home Nursing, and Domestic Hygiene and Mothercraft courses among young girls and women special propaganda was stated. Steps were taken during 1933 to arrange first aid courses for the personnel of flying clubs, but the response was poor.

The Association has five grades of members, namely, Patrons, Honorary Councillors, Life Members. Annual Members and Annual Associates. Their respective subscriptions are Rs. 1,000, Rs. 500, Rs. 100, Rs. 5, and Rs. 2.

The income of the Indian Council at headquarters consists primarily of interest on securities, a fixed annual grant from Government, fees for certificates and membership subscriptions. The total income for 1933 was Rs. 17,897, a more or less normal figure. Management expenses amounted to Rs. 22,413. After adjusting assets and liabilities outstanding the revenue account for 1933 showed a loss of Rs. 6,305. The Council was able to carry on by taking a loan of Rs. 7,000 from the Indian Red Cross Society and by buying much less stores than it sold, the balance of stores stock thus being reduced by Rs. 11,000. The Council realise that the financial position and its maintenance by temporary expedients is unsatisfactory.

Their Excellencies the Viceroy and the Countess of Willingdon and His Excellency the Commander-in-Chief as President, Lady President and Chairman, respectively, with 17 members form the Indian Council. The general business of the Indian Council is conducted by an Executive Committee of which the Hon'ble Sir David Petrie, Kt., C.I.E., C.V.O., C.B.E., is the Chairman, Miss Norah Hill, A.R.R.C., the General Secretary, and Sir Ernest Burdon, Kt., C.S.I., C.I.E., I.C.S., the Honorary Treasurer.

INSANITY AND MENTAL HOSPITALS IN INDIA.

The accommodation for the treatment in British India of persons who suffer from mental disorders is still very inadequate. In the Indian States, the condition of affairs is even worse, for, with the sole exception of Mysore State which has a small and highly archaic "mental hospital" at Bangalore, there are no mental hospitals in existence so that persons suffering from all forms of mental disease are confined in the Jails where, of course, no provision exists for any kind of treatment. According to the last Census (1921) out of a total population of 318,942,480 (India and Burma) there are 88,305 persons insane, making a proportion of insane to sane of 3 per every 10,000. In the United Kingdom the proportion of insane to sane is roughly 40 per 10,000, while in New Zealand it is as much as 45 per 10,000. In reviewing these figures it must be borne in mind that those of the United Kingdom and New Zealand include the "feeble-minded" an item that is not included in the figures for British India.

INDIA.

Provinces, States and Agencies.	General population.			Insane population.		
	Male.	Female.	Total.	Male.	Female.	Total.
Provinces under British Administration.	139,243,123	131,707,310	270,950,433	44,673	28,234	72,907
States and Agencies ..	24,752,431	23,239,616	47,992,047	9,478	5,920	15,398
Total for all India ..	163,995,554	154,946,926	318,942,480	54,151	34,154	88,305

For the care of the 88,305 insanes of India and Burma there exists accommodation in mental hospitals for 6,750 hence only one person in ten out of the total insane population can obtain accommodation in institutions which exist especially for their care and treatment.

The following table gives the number of mental hospitals in each province during 1927, the total population of each institution and the number discharged cured and died :—

Province.	No. of Mental Hospitals.	Admitted and readmitted during the year	Total Population of Mental Hospitals.			Discharged cured.	Died.	Daily average.		Criminal Lunatics.
			Males.	Females.	Total.			Strength.	Sick.	
Assam	1	66	410	95	505	21	47	438·47	59·35	246
Bihar and Orissa ..	2	364	1,535	398	1,933	206	53	1,604·49	74·68	614
United Provinces ..	3	779	1,561	412	1,973	174	106	1,274·83	155·03	425
Punjab	1	397	982	262	1,244	132	102	889·88	73·63	207
Central Provinces ..	1	87	389	95	484	33	19	410·96	20·37	135
Bombay	5	608	..	..	2,109	237	171	1,534·20	93·7	226
Madras	3	469	1,155	357	1,512	143	80	1,105·29	135·89	194
Burma	2	276	1,111	169	1,280	88	58	1,052·55	44·06	564
Total ..	18	3,046	..	..	11,040	..	636	8,305·67	656·71	2,601

It will be observed that there is now no mental hospital in Bengal. Insanes from this province are treated in one or other of the two mental hospitals at Ranchi. All Mental hospitals are under the direct control of the Provincial administrative medical officers except the European Mental Hospital at Ranchi which is controlled by a Board of Trustees presided over by the Commissioner of Chota-Nagpur. The socalled "Central" Mental Hospitals, that is to say, the Mental Hospital at Madras, North Yeravda (Bombay), Lahore (Punjab), Agra (United Provinces of Agra and Oudh) and Rangoon (Burma), as well as the two Mental Hospitals at Ranchi (one for Europeans and Americans and one for Asiatics and Africans) are administered by whole-time medical officers who are usually trained alienists. The Administration of the remaining Mental Hospitals in British India and Burma lies with the Civil Surgeon of the locality in which they happen to be situated. It is probably true to state that only one Mental Hospital in the whole of India can claim any pretension to be up-to-date as regards organisation, staffing and equipment and that is the Mental Hospital for Europeans at Ranchi. All the others are for the most part over-crowded and under-staffed, thus rendering anything approaching treatment on modern lines out of the question. The only province in India which has so far displayed some appreciation of the importance of bringing the prevention and treatment of mental disorders into line with conditions in civilised countries is Madras. The local Government of this province has achieved a notable advance in its attitude towards mental disorders by providing, in the construction of the new General Hospital at Madras, accommodation for the treatment of early cases of mental diseases.

As regards the incidence of insanity among the various races of India as well as the incidence of insanity in relation to occupation, no reliable information is available in view of the comparative paucity of cases in proportion to the general population that come under observation. On the other hand the incidence by age is shown fairly well in the Census Report of 1921 which is as follows :—

INDIA

AGE.	Insane.		Distribution of the insane by age per 10,000 of each sex.	
	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.
YEARS				
0– 5	651	484	121	142
5–10	2,905	1,882	539	558
10–15	4,098	2,733	761	803
15–20	4,366	3,076	810	904
20–25	5,518	3,379	1,024	993
25–30	6,861	3,582	1,273	1,053
30–35	7,231	3,849	1,342	1,131
35–40	5,651	2,949	1,049	867
40–45	5,316	3,486	987	1,025
45–50	3,332	2,157	618	634
50–55	3,132	2,492	581	733
55–60	1,465	1,036	272	305
60–65	1,683	1,471	....	....
65–70	602	439	....	....
70 and over	1,070	1,006	....	....
Unspecified	270	133	....	....
Total for all India	54,151	34,154	623	857

A further result of the widespread ignorance and apathy both official and non-official, towards psychiatry and its cognate interests, is the lack of any provision for the care and treatment of mentally defective children. In 1925, the Hon'ble Haroon Jaffer moved the Council of State to recommend to the Governor-General in Council that the Provincial Governments be asked to investigate the best means of dealing quickly and adequately with cases of mental defectives. A discussion followed which was remarkable only for the ignorance of the subject displayed by all who took part in it. The motion was eventually withdrawn.

Finally there is still a lamentable failure everywhere to appreciate the intimate association of crime with mental disorder and the extreme paucity of medical men throughout the whole of India with any real knowledge of mental diseases leave the decision of questions involving what the law terms "responsibility" in crime in the hands of medical men who are in no sort of sense "experts". In other words the current ideas both as regards the theory and practice of dealing with insanity and crime in India can only be described as archaic.

(See also "Insanity in India" by Colonel G. F. W. Ewens, I.M.S., and "Lunacy in India" by Colonel A. W. Overbeck-Wright, M.D., D.P.E., I.M.S. and Colonel H. P. Jago Shaw's book.)

National Association for Supplying Medical Aid by Women to the Women of India.

The National Association for Supplying Medical Aid by Women to the women of India was founded by the Countess of Dufferin in 1885, the object being to open women's hospitals and women's wards in existing hospitals; to train women doctors, nurses and midwives in India; and to bring these out when necessary from Europe. An endowment fund of about 6 lakhs was obtained by public subscription. In addition Branches were formed in each Province, each Branch having its own funds and each having a number of Local Committees and Zenana Hospitals affiliated to it.

The Central Fund gives grants-in-aid to several Provincial Branches; it gives scholarships to a number of women students at the Medical schools of Bombay, Calcutta, Madras and Delhi. It has in the past brought from England a certain number of European medical women. It has assisted by grants-in-aid the building of a number of zenana hospitals in different parts of India. It has affiliated to it 13 Provincial Branches and a number of Local Committees.

The Government of India subsidize the Countess of Dufferin's Fund to the extent of Rs. 3,44,306 per annum to maintain a Women's Medical Service for India—this service consists of 44 officers, with a training reserve of 8 doctors and a Junior service of 6 assistant surgeons. Medical women either British or Indian holding registrable British qualifications are eligible for the senior service.

The President is H. E. The Countess of Willingdon, C.I., G.B.E. The Hon. Secretary is the Surgeon to H. E. The Viceroy, and the Secretary Dr. M. V. Webb, C.M.O., W.M.S., Red Cross Building, New Delhi and Viceregal Estates, Simla.

THE WOMEN'S MEDICAL SERVICE FOR INDIA.

This Service is included in the National Association for supplying medical aid by women to the women of India, generally known as the Countess of Dufferin's Fund and is administered by the Executive Committee and Council of that Fund. The Government of India has so far allotted the sum of £25,000 per annum towards its maintenance. The present sanctioned cadre is forty-four first class medical women, with a training reserve of 8 women graduates in medicine of Indian Universities. Recruitment of the service is made (*a*) in India by a medical sub-committee of the Council which includes the Director-General, Indian Medical Service, the Honorary Secretary to the Council and the Chief Medical Officer, Women's Medical Service; (*b*) in England, by a sub-committee, including a medical man and two medical women conversant with conditions in India. These sub-committees perform the duties of a medical board examining candidates for physical fitness, and for return to duty after invaliding.

The Council determines what proportions of the members of the Service is to be recruited in England and in India respectively. In the original constitution of the Service, duly qualified medical women who are in the service of, or who have rendered approved service to, the Countess of Dufferin's Fund, are to have the first claim to appointment, and thereafter special consideration is to be paid to the claims of candidates who have qualified in local institutions and of those who are natives of India.

Qualifications.—The qualifications are that the candidate must be (*a*) a British subject resident in the United Kingdom or in a British Colony or in British India, or a person resident in any territory of any Native Prince or Chief under the suzerainty of His Majesty exercised through the Governor-General of India or through any Governor or other officer subordinate to the Governor-General of India. (*b*) Must be between the ages of twenty-four and thirty at entry. (*c*) She must be a first-class medical woman, *i.e.*, she must possess a medical qualification registrable in the United Kingdom under the Medical Act, or an Indian or Colonial qualification registrable in the United Kingdom under that Act: but this condition does not apply at the original constitution of the Service to medical women in charge of hospitals who, in the opinion of the Council, are of proved experience and ability. (*d*) The candidate must produce a certificate of health and character. But the Council reserves the power to promote to the service ladies not possessing the above qualifications, but who have shown marked capacity. Members of the Service are required to engage for duty anywhere in India. After one year of probation has been satisfactorily passed their appointments are confirmed. The services of officers may be lent to Local or Municipal bodies, or to special institutions, which may be responsible for whole or part of the pay.

Pay.—The rates of pay are as follows:—

1st to 3rd	year	Rs. 450	per month.
4th to 6th	,,	,, 500	,,
7th to 9th	,,	,, 550	,,
10th to 12th	,,	,, 600	,,
13th to 15th	,,	,, 650	,,
16th to 18th	,,	,, 700	,,
19th to 21st	,,	,, 750	,,
22nd to 24th	,,	,, 800	,,
24th and after	,,	,, 850	,,

also an overseas allowance of Rs. 100 per month to those below 12 years' service and Rs. 150 per month to those of 12 years' service and over. Every officer of the Service shall pass an examination in such vernacular as the Executive Committee shall appoint within the first three years of her service, and shall receive no increment after that period until such examination has been passed. In addition

furnished quarters are provided free of rent or a house rent allowance to be determined by the Provincial Committee may be granted in lieu of it.

Officers of the Service are permitted to engage in private practice provided it does not interfere with their official duties, and the Provincial Committee has the power to determine whether such duties are thus interfered with. Except in very special cases retirement is compulsory at the age of fifty-five An officer recruited in England, whose appointment is not confirmed, or who is dismissed, is granted an allowance sufficient to pay her passage to England.

Leave Rules.—(*a*) Casual Leave, which is occasional leave on full pay for a few days, and is not supposed to interrupt duty. (*b*) Leave on average pay is granted up to 2-11 of an officer's period on duty, according to Fundamental Rules. More than eight months' leave on average pay is not granted at one time. (*c*) Study leave may also be granted up to twelve months during the whole service. An allowance of 12 sh. per day is granted in addition to ½ average pay during study leave. (*d*) Extraordinary leave at any time at the discretion of the Executive Committee. (*e*) Leave not due may be granted subject to the following conditions:—(*i*) on medical certificate, without limit of amount; and (*ii*) otherwise than on medical certificate, for not more than three months at any one time and six months in all, reckoned in terms of leave on average pay. (*f*) The maximum period of continuous absence from duty on leave granted otherwise than on medical certificate is 18 months. (*g*) When an officer returns from leave which was not due and which was debited against her leave account, no leave will become due to her until the expiration of a fresh period spent on duty, sufficient to earn a credit of leave equal to the period of leave which she took before it was due. There are no allowances during extraordinary leave. A doctor appointed in England receives a sum of £100 to cover her passage and incidental expenses. There are also allowances to cover the cost of journeys by rail and road.

There is also a Provident Fund, each member contributing monthly thereto ten per cent. of her salary, the Association contributing an equal amount, and each subscriber's account being granted interest on the amount standing to credit at the rate of 4 per cent. per annum, "or at such rate as the Council can invest without risk to the funds of the Association."

An officer loses the contributions made to her account by the Association with the interest thereon if she resigns (except on account of ill-health) before completing five years' service or in the event of dismissal. On retirement after approved service the sum which has accumulated to the credit of the subscriber is handed over to her.

Free Passages.—Officers of the Women's Medical Service are granted free return passages corresponding to those granted under the Lee Concessions to officers of all-India services. The maximum number of return passages granted during an officer's entire term of service must not exceed four, the first falling due after 4 years service.

The Training Reserve of the Women's Medical Service.—This Service has a sanctioned cadre of eight, and is open to women graduates in medicine of the Indian Universities. Salaries range from Rs. 200 to Rs. 300 per month, with furnished quarters or the equivalent in money, to those employed in India.

2. Two of the eight members of the reserve, but not more at any one time, may be deputed to Europe by the Executive Committee for post-graduate training, and shall receive a stipend at the rate of £ 200 a year each paid quarterly and return passage. Any member not so deputed shall be employed in India.

3. Ordinarily four years shall be spent in the reserve before a member is considered for appointment to the Women's Medical Service, but the Executive Committee shall have power to shorten this period in special cases. Service in the reserve shall be considered by the Executive Committee when appointments are being made to the Women's Medical Service, but shall not of itself constitute a claim to appointment.

VICTORIA MEMORIAL SCHOLARSHIPS.

The Victoria Memorial Scholarships Fund was organised by Lady Curzon in 1903, in order to secure a certain amount of improvement in the practising dais of India. A sum of about 6½ lakhs was obtained by public subscription, and centres were organised in each Province to carry out the objects of the Fund. Over 2,000 midwives have been trained in addition to large numbers who have been partially trained. Of late years the Fund has done much to pave the way for the registration and supervision of indigenous dais. It has also done much propaganda work. The fund is now administered by the Maternity and Child Welfare Bureau of the Indian Red Cross Society.

LADY HARDINGE MEDICAL COLLEGE AND HOSPITAL.

The Lady Hardinge Medical College was opened by Lord Hardinge on the 17th February 1916. It is a residential Medical College staffed entirely by women, and was founded to commemorate the visit to Delhi, in 1911, of the Queen Empress. Lady Hardinge took the initiative in raising funds by public subscription to meet the cost of buildings and equipment. Thirty lakhs of rupees, in all, have been given for these purposes, mostly by the Ruling Princes and Chiefs of India. After Lady Hardinge's death in 1914, it was suggested by Her Imperial Majesty Queen Mary that the institution should serve as a memorial to its founder, and be called by her name.

The Governing Body includes the Director-General, Indian Medical Service, the Chief Commissioner of Delhi, the Chief Engineer, Delhi Province, the Educational Commissioner with the Government of India, the Chief Medical Officer, Women's Medical Service, a representative elected by the All-India Association of Medical Women, the Surgeon to H.E. the Viceroy, an Indian member of the Council of State, 2 Indian members of the Legislative Assembly, a private Indian citizen of Delhi, a private lady resident of Delhi, the Civil Surgeon of New Delhi and the Agent, Imperial Bank of India, Delhi. The Honorary Secretary, who is also a member of the Governing Body, is the Deputy Director-General, Indian Medical Service. The Deputy Accountant-General, Central Revenues, acts as Honorary Treasurer.

The College and Hospital, together with separate hostels for 100 Medical students and 70 nurses and residences for the medical and teaching staff, occupy a site of 55 acres in New Delhi within easy reach of old Delhi city. The grounds are enclosed and adequate provision is made for the seclusion of both students and patients from outside observation. Strict observance of purdah cannot, however, be guaranteed in the case of students. As the hospital patients are all women or children, it is for example, necessary that students should, in their final year, attend a brief course of instruction on men patients at the Civil Hospital, Delhi. The College buildings contain a Library, Museum, Lecture Rooms, Laboratories and offices. Hostels are provided for Hindu, Moslem, Sikh and Christian students. The hospital is a fine modern building with accommodation for 200 in-patients and a commodious out-patients' department. The College and Hospital are supported by a grant of Rs. 3,11,000 from the Government of India, supplemented by grants from Provincial Governments and Indian States. Students are prepared for the Intermediate Science Examination, and the M.B., B.S. degree of the Punjab University, with which the College is affiliated.

SENIOR STAFF.

Principal and Professor of Midwifery and Gynæcology—Dr. Miss C. L. Houiton, M.D., &c., Women's Medical Service.
Vice-Principal and Professor of Surgery—Miss Hamilton Browne, M.B. Ch. M. (Syd.), D. T. M. (Calcutta), W.M.S
Professor of Medicine—Miss N. E. Trouton, M.B. B.S. (Lond.), M.R.C.S., L.R.C.P., D.T.M. (Calcutta.)
Professor of Ophthalmology—Miss R. Roulston, M.B., Ch. B. (Glas.), D.O. (Oxon.), B. R. C. S. (Edin.), W.M.S.
Professor of Pathology—Mrs. L. S. Ghosh, M.B., ch. B. (Aberdeen), D.P.H. (Cambridge), W.M.S.
Professor of Anatomy—Miss K. J. McDermott, M.B., B.S. (Punjab), W.M.S.
Professor of Physiology—Miss E. Surie, M. Sc.
Professor of Radiology—Dr. Rekhi, M.B.B.S. (Ph.), D.M.R. & E. (Cantab).
Lecturer in Physics and Mathematics, and Superintendent of the Science Department—Miss J. H. Ross, M.A., B.Sc. (Glas.)
Lecturer in Chemistry—Miss Sosheila Ram, M.A. (Cantab.)
Lecturer in Biology—Miss C. C. Burt, B.Sc. (Edin.)
Lecturer in English—Miss Ebbutt, M.A. (Dublin), Modern Language Tripos (Cantab.).
Bursar and Warden—Miss M. W. Jesson, M.A. (Cantab.)

Attached to the Hospital there are: (1) a Training School for Nurses, and (2) a Training School for Dispensers. All particulars as to admission and training may be obtained in the case of (1) from the Nursing Superintendents, Lady Hardinge Medical College Hospital, Delhi, and in the case of (2) from the Lecturer on Pharmacy, at the same address.

NURSING.

Whilst India cannot show the complete chain of efficiently-nursed hospitals which exists in England, there has been a great development of skilled nursing of recent years. This activity is principally centred in the Bengal, Madras, and Bombay Presidencies, where the chief hospitals in the Presidency towns are well nursed, and where large private staffs are maintained, available to the general public on payment of a prescribed scale of fees. These hospitals also act as training institutions, and turn out a yearly supply of fully trained nurses, both to meet their own demands and those of outside institutions and private agencies. In this way the supply of trained nurses, English, Anglo-Indian and Indian, is being steadily increased. In Bombay the organisation has gone a step farther, through the establishment of the Bombay Presidency Nursing Association, c/o St. George's Hospital, Bombay. This is composed of representatives of the various Nursing Associations in charge of individual hospitals, and works under the Government. The principle on which the relations of this Association with the Local Associations is governed is that there shall be central examination and control combined with complete individual autonomy in administration.

State Registration of Nurses for all India is much required. A meeting was held in Bombay in 1923 when Nurses from the Presidency met to discuss the question. It is desired that India should have its own State Register as in the United Kingdom, South Africa, New Zealand, Australia, Canada and Burma, and that the curricula and examinations should be brought into line with these countries. Government has proposed to establish a Provincial Register preparatory to an All-India Register.

Nursing Bodies.—The Secretary of the Calcutta Hospital Nurses' Institution is Mr. A. R. Nicholson, Allahabad Bank Buildings, Calcutta. The names and addresses of the other Nursing bodies in Calcutta are Lady Minto's Indian Nursing Association (Bengal Branch), 4, Hungerford Street, Lady Rogers' Hostel for Indian Nurses, 144, Russa Road, South; Nurses' Academy, 6, Suburban Hospital Road; and Nurses' Bureau, 37, McLeod Street. In Madras there is the General Hospital, with a staff of 62 nurses, the Government Maternity Hospital, the Caste and Gosha Hospital at Kilpauk, the Royapetta Hospital and the

Ophthalmic Hospital, also the Lady Ampthill Nurses' Institute and the South Indian Nursing Association (now amalgamated) President, Her Excellency Lady Goschen. The Association has under its management—*The Lady Ampthill Nurses' Institute*, Western Castle, Mount Road, Madras. Fully trained and experienced nurses for all cases of illness both among Europeans and Indians, always available. *The Lady Willingdon Nursing Home*, Western Castle, Mount Road, Madras, and *Nilgiri Nursing and Convalescent Home*, Ootacamund, for Medical, Surgical and Maternity cases. The Nilgiri Nursing Home affords admirable facilities for convalescents.

Bombay Presidency.—The Bombay Presidency was amongst the first in India to realise the value of nursing in connection with hospital work. The first steps were taken on the initiative of Mr. L. R. W. Forrest at St. George's Hospital, Bombay, where a regular nursing cadre for the hospital was established together with a small staff of nurses for private cases. This was followed by a similar movement at the J. J. and Allied Hospitals and afterwards spread to other hospitals in the Presidency. Ultimately, the Government laid down a definite principle with regard to the financial aid which they would give to such institutions, agreeing to contribute a sum equal to that raised from private sources. Afterwards, as the work grew, it was decided by Government that each nursing association attached to a hospital should have a definite constitution and consequently these bodies have all been registered as Associations under Act 21 of 1860. By degrees substantial endowments have been built up, although the Associations are still largely dependent upon annual subscriptions towards the maintenance of their works. This Association was incorporated under the Societies' Registration Act of 1860, in the year 1911, with the primary object of establishing a nursing service from which the Nursing staff at Government aided hospitals under management of Nursing Association might be recruited. This function, however, was never carried out by the Bombay Presidency Nursing Association, and under the present circumstances it appeared to the Committee improbable that it could be carried out, but up to now the auxiliary function of the examining and granting certificates to nurses and midwives, and maintaining a register of qualified nurses and midwives and also maintaining a Provident fund for the employees of the affiliated associations have been successfully carried out from 1911 to 1933. Memorandum, Rules and By-laws of the Association were however revised brought into line with the actual working of the Association. Towards the end of 1927; the Committee decided that some steps must be taken to do so and accordingly appointed a sub-committee to consider the revision and amendment of the Memorandum, Rules and By-laws. The Sub-Committee reported that it appeared to be impossible to amend and revise the present rules piecemeal and that the only way to put things in order would be to draft an entirely fresh constitution and rules.

After fully considering the Sub-Committee's report the Committee agreed that the Association be incorporated by an Act on the line of the Registration Act in the United Kingdom. Pending the passing of the Act the new Memorandum of Association having received the approval of Government was brought into operation from 1st April 1929.

The following are affiliated associations as well as Training Institutions:—

St. George's Hospital Nursing Association, Bombay, (for nurses only), Hon. Secretary: R. W. Douglass, Esq.

Jamshetji Jijibhoy Hospital Nursing Association, Bombay, (for nurses and Midwives), Hon. Secretary: Dr. M. V. Mehta, O.B.E., F.R.C.P.

Cama & Albless Hospitals Nursing Association, Bombay (for Nurses and Midwives) Nil. This is now purely Govt. institution.

Sassoon Hospital Nursing Association, Poona, (for Nurses and Midwives) Nil. This is now purely Govt. institution.

Karachi Civil Hospital Nursing Association (for Nurses only), Hon. Secretary: F. T. M. Day.

Civil Hospital Nursing Association, Nasik (for Nurses and Midwives), Hon. Secretary: Civil Surgeon, Nasik.

Civil Hospital Nursing Association, Ahmedabad (for Nurses and Midwives), Hon. Secretary: Civil Surgeon, Ahmedabad.

Victory Nursing Association, Sholapur, (for Nurses and Midwives), Hon. Secretary: Civil Surgeon, Sholapur.

Infant Welfare Society's (Bombay); Wadi Bunder Maternity Home, Warli Maternity Home and DeLisle Road Maternity Home. (For Midwives only.)

Hindu Nirashrit Fund Maternity Home, Surat. (For Midwives only).

Brahman Sabha Mhaskar Maternity Hospital, Bombay. (For Midwives only).

Sheth Vadilal Sarabhai General Hospital and Chinai Maternity Home, Ahmedabad. (For Nurses and Midwives.)

Dhanrajgirji Hospital, Sholapur. (For Nurses and Midwives.)

Nawanagar State Hospitals: Irwin Hospital, Victoria Hospital and Ba Shri Sajuba Female Hospital. (For Midwives and Nurses.)

Bai Jerbai Wadia Hospital, Parel, Bombay. (For Junior Examination only.)

The following are only affiliated Associations but not Training Institutions:—

East Khandesh District Nursing Association, Hony. Secy: Civil Surgeon, Jalgaon.

Goculdas Tejpal Hospital Nursing Association, Hony. Secy. R. W. Bullock.

Bijapur Civil Hospital Nursing Association, Hon. Secretary: Civil Surgeon, Bijapur.

Byramji Jijibhoy Nursing Association, Matheran.

Dharwar Civil Hospital Nursing Association, Hony. Secretary: Civil Surgeon, Dharwar.

Kanara Nursing Association, Karwar, Hon. Secretary: Civil Surgeon, Karwar.

Panch-Mahals Nursing Association, Godhra, Hony. Secretary: Civil Surgeon, Godhra.

Prince of Wales Nursing Association, Aden, Hony. Secretary: I. Taylor, Esq.

The following are recognised Training Institutions:—

V. J. Hospital, Ahmedabad (for Midwives).

State General Hospital, Baroda (for Nurses and Midwives.)

Civil Hospital, Belgaum (for Nurses and Midwives).
King Edward VII Memorial Hospital, Parel, Bombay (for Nurses only).
Bai Yamunabai L. Nair Charitable Hospital, Lamington Road, Bombay (for Nurses only).
Bomanji Dinshaw Petiti Parsi General Hospital, Cumballa Hill, Bombay (for Nurses only).

Lady Dufferin and Louise Lawrence Institute, Karachi (for Nurses and Midwives).
Morarbhai Vrajabhukandas Hospital, Surat (for Midwives).
American Presbyterian Mission Hospital, Miraj (for Nurses only).
St. Luke's Hospital, Vengurla (for Nurses only).
Parsi Lying-in Hospital, Bombay (for Midwives only).
St. Margaret's Hospital, Poona (for Nurses and Midwives only).
King Edward Memorial Hospital, Poona (for Midwives only).
Nowrosji Wadia Maternity Hospital, Parel, Bombay (for Midwives only).
Acharatlal Girdharlal Maternity Home, Ahmedabad (for Midwives only.)
Zenana Mission Hospital, Broach (for Midwives only).
Lady Dufferin Hospital, Sholapur (for Midwives only).
Canada Hospital, Nasik (for Nurses and Midwives).

Mission Hospital, Ahmednagar (for Nurses only
Municipal Maternity Homes, Bombay
Bellasis Road (Byculla).
Imamwada (Mazgaon).
Cadell Road (Worli).
Victoria Cross Road (Byculla).
Khetwadi (Girgaon).

Provision for retiring allowances is made for all members on the basis of a Provident Fund, and a Nursing Reserve has been established for employment in emergencies such as war, pestilence or public danger or calamity.

Address:—The Registrar, Bombay Nursing Council, Old Custom House, Fort, Bombay.

Lady Minto's Indian Nursing Association.—In 1906 this Association was inaugurated, replacing the Punjab and Up-country Nursing Association for Europeans in India, which society, established in 1892, had accomplished much useful work in this country. Owing, however, to lack of funds it was found impossible to continue its administration and to carry out the expansion of the work so urgently called for. The name of the helpers identified with the premier Association to whom the public must ever be indebted are the Hon. Lady Lyttleton, Lady Helen Munro Ferguson and Mrs. Cottrell, while Mrs. Shepherd, by her indefatigable efforts, is truly entitled to be regarded as the pioneer of a trained nursing system throughout the greater part of India. The late Lady Curzon worked energetically to provide an enlarged Nursing organisation, but mainly owing to financial reasons, she was unable before she left India to bring the scheme to fruition. The Home Committee of the existing Association, recognising the need for expansion, consented to take over the present Association and approached Lady Minto before she left England in 1905 for co-operation towards this project, and after much consideration and discussion with the Government of India, Lieut.-Governors and Commissioners of Provinces, the present Association was established. An appeal by Lady Minto addressed to the public both in England and India, was responded to most generously, and sufficient funds were collected to form an endowment fund, which has in spite of fluctuations increased a little with time. The assistance of a Government grant is much valued, as it enables Homes for the Sisters to be kept up in six Provinces in India and in Burma. At the request of the Home Committee the enlarged Association was renamed the "Lady Minto's Indian Nursing Association."

The duties of the Home Committee are, as before, largely concerned in dispatching—as required—suitably trained and carefully selected Nurses for service on the staff of the Association in India. Thus, Europeans who are members of this Association are enabled to obtain skilled nursing at moderate charges on a sliding scale of fees determined by the income of each patient. The boon of obtaining good nursing at moderate terms is much appreciated, the rates of subscriptions being really an insurance against illness.

Her Majesty the Queen is a Patron of the Association. Her Excellency The Countess of Willingdon is President of the Central Committee in India.

Hon. Secretary: Malox F. M. Collins, R.A.M.C.
Hon. Treasurer: W. R. Tinnant, Esq., I.C.S.
Chief Lady Superintendent: Miss G. Beckett. Address—Central Committee, L.M.I. N.A., Viceregal Lodge, Simla; and Red Cross Building, New Delhi.

Hon. Secretary, Home Committee—Vacant.
Secretary, Home Committee: Miss M. E. Ray, R.R.C., 10, Witherly Mansions, Earls Court Sq.

Nurses' Organizations.—The Association of Nursing Superintendents of India is now amalgamated with the Trained Nurses' Association of India, and has the one set of officers. The Trained Nurses' Association of India and the Association of Nursing Superintendents of India are not Associations to employ or to supply nurses, but are organizations with a membership wholly of nurses with the avowed objects of improving and unifying nursing education, promoting *esprit de corps* among nurses, and upholding the dignity and honour of the nursing profession. The Associations have a membership of 472, including nurses trained in ten or more different countries, Europeans, Americans, New Zealanders, Australians and Indians. The Association of Superintendents was started in 1905 as the Association of Nursing Superintendents of the United Provinces and the Punjab, but by the next year its membership had spread over the country to such an extent that the name was changed to include the whole of India. The Trained Nurses' Association was started in 1908, and a monthly Journal of Nursing began to be published by the two Associations in February, 1910. The Associations are affiliated with the International Council of Nurses.

President: Mrs. G. D. Franklin, 33, Rajpur Road, Delhi.

THE WOMAN SUFFRAGE MOVEMENT.

Hon. Secretary and Treasurer : Miss Gadsden, General Hospital, Madras.

Within the abnormally short period of eleven years the Woman Suffrage movement has risen in India, swept through the country sympathetically and achieved the political enfranchisement of women in all the nine British Provinces and in four Indian States.

Three fundamental causes have led to this remarkable success: first, the deep veneration that is given by the Hindu and Muhammadan religions to the feminine aspect of life equally with the masculine as shown by the importance of goddesses, by the necessity for the presence of the wife at all ceremonies performed by a Brahman, by the idea of the sacred mystery of womanhood implied by the purdah, and by the general veneration of motherhood. Secondly, the time was psychological, for a new era was beginning for the Indian people by the introduction of a Scheme of Reforms in Indian government which was planned to give a basis of representative government on a much extended scale. The door was being opened to complete Self-government but only men were being invited to enter through it, although women compose half the people of the country and it had been by the joint efforts of men and women that the agitation for reform in the government had been made. The men and women of India were too awakened and too just to allow this injustice to remain unredressed. Thirdly, the long and strenuous agitation for the vote by women in Britain and America and their recent victories had brought vividly to the consciousness of all educated Indian men and women the whole question of the inclusion of women in public life, and it was also a national and international necessity that Indian women should be given as high a status as women in other parts of the Empire.

Though the **Municipal franchise** had been granted to the women of the Bombay and Madras Presidencies over fifteen years ago it was so limited in numbers that it did not make a large impact on women's consciousness and indeed no protest was made when it was suddenly withdrawn from Madras women some years later. Over 1,700 women are qualified to vote for the Bombay Corporation and a fair percentage of these have polled at each election, and similarly in other Municipalities in that Presidency women have exercised their vote responsibly and intelligently. Since 1922 over 100 women have become Municipal Councillors and members of Local Government Boards. Their appointment has chiefly been by nomination but there have been notable seats won by election in open contest with men, such as the election of all the four women who first entered the contest for seat in Bombay Corporation, also the instance in which the single woman contestant in the Municipal elections in Lucknow secured the largest poll of any of the candidates. Many important local reforms have been secured by this large band of women Councillors, and every year sees a greater number of women serving on these local Councils and Boards.

It was owing to the rise of the political agitation for Home Rule between 1914 and 1917 that women began to wake up to their position of exclusion by British law from any share in representative government. The internment of one of their own sex, Dr. Besant, stimulated political activity and political self-consciousness amongst women to a very great extent. The moment for the ripe public expression of their feelings came when the Secretary of State for India came to India to investigate and study Indian affairs at first hand in 1917.

During the Hon. E. S. Montagu's visit only one Women's Deputation waited on him but it was representative of womanhood in all parts of India, and it brought to his notice the various reforms which women were specially desirous of recommending the Government to carry out.

The first claim for women suffrage for Indian women was made in the address presented to Mr. Montagu at this historic **All-India Women's Deputation** which waited upon him in Madras on the 18th December 1917. The section referring to enfranchisement merits full quotation:

"Our interests, as one half of the people, are directly affected by the demand in the united (Hindu-Muslim Reform) scheme (I. 3) that 'the Members of the Council should be elected directly by the people on as broad a franchise as possible,' and in the Memorandum (3) that 'the franchise should be broadened and extended directly to the people.' We pray that, when such a franchise is being drawn up, women may be recognized as 'people,' and that it may be worded in such terms as will not disqualify our sex, but allow our women the same opportunities of representation as our men. In agreeing with the demand of the abovementioned Memorandum that 'a full measure of Local Self-Government should be immediately granted, we request that it shall include the representation of our women, a policy that has been admittedly successful for the past twenty years in Local Self-Government elsewhere in the British Empire. The precedent for including women in modern Indian political life has been a marked feature of the Indian National Congress, in which since its inception women have voted and been delegates and speakers, and which this year finds its climax in the election of a woman as its President. Thus the voice of India approves of its women being considered responsible and acknowledged citizens; and we urgently claim that, in the drawing up of all provisions regarding representation, our sex shall not be made a disqualification for the exercise of the franchise or for service in public life."

The year 1918 was devoted to converting the Government forces to the justice and expediency of Indian Woman Suffrage, but this proved a more difficult matter. It was a disappointment first that though the Secretary of State had given a sympathetic reply to the All-India Women's Deputation, yet when the Scheme of Reforms, drawn up by him and Lord Chelmsford as the outcome of his visit to India was published no mention of women was made

though the widening of the electorate was one of the reforms suggested. When the Southborough Franchise Committee was formed to investigate the suggestions regarding the franchise in this Scheme, the women suffragists took every means to bring to the notice of the Committee all the evidence which showed the need for, and the country's support of the inclusion of women in the new franchise.

After the introduction of the **Government of India Bill** into Parliament in July 1919, a number of Indian deputations proceeded to London to give evidence before the Joint Select Committee of Members of both Houses of Parliament which had been appointed to place the Reforms on a workable basis. Mrs. Annie Besant, Mrs. Sarojini Naidu and Mrs. and Miss Herabai Tata were the women who were heard by the Committee in support of the extension of the franchise to women in India.

The House of Commons decided that the question was one for Indians to answer for themselves and while retaining the sex disqualification in the Reform Bill they framed the Electoral Rules in such terms that if any Provincial Legislative Council should approve by a resolution in favour of women's franchise, women should be put on the electoral register of that Province. This was the only provision regarding franchise matters which might be changed before a 10 years' time limit. Until after that period women were ineligible for election as Legislative Councillors.

Travancore, a very progressive Indian State, was the first to grant the Legislative vote to women at the close of 1920, and it was promptly followed by the Indian State of Jhalawar. In the first session of the Legislative Councils in 1921 it is gratifying to record that a motion was tabled by Dewan Bahadur Krishnan Nair of Malabar that he would bring forward a Resolution in the **Madras** Legislative Council to remove the disqualification of sex existing in regard to the Legislative Council franchise. During the month that must legally intervene between the tabling of a Woman Suffrage motion and its introduction for Debate the Madras women under the leadership of the Women's Indian Association carried on all forms of public propaganda and canvassed the important members of the Council. The Debate took place on April 1st and after a short discussion, in which it was evident that opposition came only from the Muhammadan members, the debate itself became only an accumulation of appreciation of womanhood and an expression of faith in its future. When the division was taken, it resulted in the resolution being carried by a majority of 54. Madras has thus the honour of being the first Province in British India to enfranchise its women, and it has done this ungrudgingly and unhesitatingly in the broad spirit of the equality of the sexes, as it grants the vote to women on the same terms as it has been granted to men. Dr. (Mrs.) Muthulakshmi Reddi, the first woman member of the British Indian Legislature, has been able to introduce legislation to do away with the Devadasi service in the Hindu temples and the immoral traffic in women and children. She has also devoted her attention to the development of the education of girls and to the promotion of the health of mothers and children.

Mr. Trivedi brought forward a Woman Suffrage Resolution in the **Bombay** Legislative Council during the same session, but some irregularity in its wording caused it to be pronounced out of order. In June that subject was tabled again and championed by Rao Saheb Harilal Desaibhai Desai of Ahmedabad, Deputy President of the Council. As in Madras, the intervening month was filled with suffrage activity by the women of the Presidency and was remarkable for a large joint meeting of Bombay city women at which 19 Women's Societies took part, and for a suffrage meeting of Marathi and Gujerati women in Poona when over 800 women showed the greatest enthusiasm for the movement.

The **Bombay** Council Debate on Woman Suffrage took three days and the subject was very fully discussed by over 40 members. The result was satisfactory to the suffragists, the voting being 52 in favour, 25 against and 12 neutral. Thus Madras and Bombay Presidencies gave the lead to the other Provinces. In September, 1922, Mr. S. M. Bose, in the **Bengal** Council, moved a Woman Suffrage Resolution, which was debated for three days but finally defeated by 56 to 37 votes, a *bloc* of 40 Muhammadan members voting solidly against it. In September 1925 the Bengal Council passed the Suffrage Resolution by a vote of 54 to 38.

Mr. Devaki Prasad Sinha's similar Resolution in the **Behar and Orissa** Legislative Council was defeated by only a 10 votes' majority.

These Debates proved so educational to their respective Provinces that the **Bengal** and **Behar** Provinces have since granted qualified women the **Municipal Vote.**

In February, 1923, a world suffrage record was made by the *unanimous* vote of the **United Provinces** Legislative Council in favour of Woman Suffrage.

In 1926 the **Punjab** granted woman suffrage without a division, and in 1926 the **Central Provinces.**

The new Reform Bill for **Burma** has included the grant of woman suffrage to the qualified Burmese women, and further made provision for their election as Councillors if the Council passes a Resolution desiring their admission and if that Resolution is approved of by the Governor.

In April, 1922, the **Mysore** Legislative Council unanimously passed the Woman Suffrage Resolution. The vote for the Representative Assembly of Mysore was granted to women in October, 1922. The vote for Mysore Legislative Franchise was granted to the Mysore women by H. H. The Maharaja and His Privy Council in June 1923. In October, 1924, **Assam** Provincial Council granted Woman Suffrage for its Province by 26 to 8. It also has been the first Province to pass a Resolution in favour of allowing women to enter the Council as members.

In 1929 soon after the All-India Women's Educational Reform was held in Patna, the Legislative Council of **Behar** and **Orissa** gave women the right of voting, election and nomination to the Council on the same terms as men. Thus the whole of British India has now

given to women equal political rights with men. The result has already demonstrated itself in the remarkable advancement of all the interests of women along the lines of education, health, housing, morality and social customs.

The Indian Native States of **Travancore, Cochin and Rajkot** are the only places in India where the sex disqualification has been completely removed from the statute book. These have allowed women the right to stand for election for the Legislative Council as well as the right to vote for it, and two women have been elected to the newly formed Representative Council of Rajkot. The year 1925 has been noteworthy for the appointment of the first woman Minister to Government. Mrs. Poonem Lukhose became a member of the Travancore Legislative Council on taking the position of State Darbar Physician. She acted as Minister for Health to the State for three years. Cochin State nominated Mrs. Madhavi Amma as a member of its first Legislative Council.

In British India by the terms of the Reform Bill the Councils had no power to alter the disqualification of sex which remains against the right to stand as candidates for election to the Councils. This could only be changed by the vote of the British Parliament; and the gaining of this right remained as a further objective of the women suffragists. Many large, influential meetings were held claiming the right of women to entry of the Legislatures. A deputation of women about this subject waited on the Madras Governor and their claims were supported by him and by his Government. The Imperial Legislative Assembly and the Council of State had been accorded the power to grant women the franchise for their assemblies also by resolution, but only for those provinces which had already granted women the Legislative franchise. The Legislative Assembly has passed by a large majority a Resolution granting the Assembly franchise tothewomen of such Provinces. Accordingly in November 1923, women in India voted for the first time for the elections of both Provincial Legislative Councillors and members of the Legislative Assembly. The number of women who voted in the large cities was surprisingly large in Bombay and Madras Presidencies and comprised women of all castes and communities.

In April, 1926, as a result of a favourable recommendation of the Muddiman Committee on Franchise Reforms, the Rule was changed in the Reform Bill which disqualified women from entering the Legislatures. Power was granted to the Councils and the Assembly to pass Resolutions allowing qualified women to be elected or nominated as members of these bodies. Again Madras Council, on the 17th July, was the first to pass a Resolution admitting women to its membership. Bombay and the Punjab followed its lead in August and October respectively. This enabled women to become members of the Councils which have been functioning since then. But the permission came too late for women to stand for election with any great chance of success, so the Women's Indian Association asked that women be nominated by Government for the new Councils in those Provinces which had voted to admit them, and that women also be nominated to the Assembly and the Council of State. Thus the year 1926 marked another milestone passed on the road to the complete political emancipation of Indian womanhood.

In 1926 the Central Provinces, the Punjab and Bengal, all granted the Franchise to women. The year 1927 was notable for the nomination of the first woman member to a Legislative Council in British India, the recipient of the honour being DR. MUTHULAKSHMI AMMAL, and she was further honoured by being elected unanimously by her colleagues in the Madras Legislative Council, to the Office OF DEPUTY-PRESIDENT OF THE COUNCIL. Since then Mrs. Kale has been nominated to the Legislative Council of the Central Provinces, and Mrs. Ahmed Shaw to that of the United Provinces. A Deputation from the All-India Women's Conference in Delhi in 1928 waited on the Viceroy requesting him to nominate two women to the Legislative Assembly. That has still remained ungranted.

The number of women enfranchised by the grant of the vote throughout India will not be more than a million under the present qualifications. Property and not literacy is the basis of the franchise, though the grant of the vote to every graduate of seven years' standing ensures that the best educated women of the country as well as those who have to shoulder the largest property responsibilities will be those who rightly will be the legislating influence on behalf of womanhood. As regards the custom of purdah prevailing in parts of India special provisions have been made in Municipal voting for purdah recording stations for purdah women in which a woman is returning officer and this has been found quite satisfactory and has been adopted also where desired in connection with Legislative Council elections.

Though the Women's Indian Association was the only Indian women's society which had woman suffrage as one of its specific objects, almost all other women's organisations have combined in special efforts for the gaining of municipal and legislative rights and the following ladies have identified themselves specially with the movement: Lady D. Tata, Lady A. Bose, Lady T. Sadasivaier, the Begum of Cambay, Mrs Ramabai Ranade, Mrs. Sarojini Naidu, Mrs. Jaiji Jehangir Petit, Mrs. Tata, Mrs. Wadia, Mrs. Jinarajadasa, Dr. A. Besant, Mrs. M. E. Cousins, Mrs. Srirangamma, Mrs. Chandrasekhara Iyer, Miss S. Sorabji, Mrs. Khedkar, Dr. Mistry, Dr. Muthulakshmi Ammal, Mrs. Palmer, Mrs. Saraladevi Choudhuri, Mrs. Kumudini Basu, Mrs. K. N. Roy, Lady Shafi, Mrs. Hassan Imam, Miss S. E. Das, Mrs. P. K. Sen, Mrs. Rustomji Faridoonji, Mrs. B. Rama Rao, Mrs. Deep Narain Singh, Mrs. Raschid, Mrs. van Gildemeester, etc.

Warrant of Precedence.

The following new Warrant of Precedence for India was approved by His Majesty the King-Emperor of India, and received His Royal Sign Manual, on 9th April 1930:—

1. Governor-General and Viceroy of India.

2. Governors of Presidencies and Provinces within their respective charges.

3. Governors of Madras, Bombay and Bengal.

4. Commander-in-Chief in India.

5. Governors of the United Provinces, Punjab, Bihar and Orissa and Burma.

6. Governors of the Central Provinces and Assam; Governor of the North-West Frontier Province.

7. Chief Justice of Bengal.

8. Members of the Governor-General's Executive Council.

9. Commander-in-Chief of His Majesty's Naval Forces in the East Indies.

10. President of the Council of State.

11. President of the Legislative Assembly.

12. Chief Justice of a High Court other than that of Bengal.

13. Agents to the Governor-General, Rajputana, Central India, Baluchistan, Punjab States and States of Western India; Chief Commissioner of the North-West Frontier Province; Commissioner in Sind; Members of Executive Councils and Ministers of Governors and Lieutenant-Governors*; Political Resident in the Persian Gulf; Resident and Commander-in-Chief at Aden, and Residents at Hyderabad and in Mysore within their respective charges.

14. Chief Commissioner of Railways; General Officers Commanding, Northern, Southern, Eastern and Western Commands; and Officers of the rank of General.

15. Members of the Executive Councils and Ministers in Madras, Bombay and Bengal.*

16. Members of the Executive Councils and Ministers, United Provinces, Punjab, Burma and Bihar and Orissa.*

17. Agents to the Governor-General, Rajputana, Central India, Baluchistan, Punjab States and States of Western India; Chief Commissioner of the North-West Frontier Province; Political Resident in the Persian Gulf; and Residents at Hyderabad and in Mysore.

18. Members of the Executive Councils and Ministers, Central Provinces and Assam;* Members of the Executive Council and Ministers, North-West Frontier Province.

19. Presidents of Legislative Councils, within their respective Provinces.

20. Chief Judges of Chief Courts; and Puisne Judges of High Courts.

21. Lieutenant-Generals.

22. Auditor-General; Chairman of the Public Service Commission; and Chief Commissioner of Delhi, when within his charge.

23. Air Officer Commanding, Royal Air Force in India; Flag Officer Commanding and Director, Royal Indian Marine; Members of the Railway Board; Railway Financial Commissioner; Secretaries to the Government of India; and Vice-Chairman, Imperial Council of Agricultural Research.

24. Additional Secretaries and Joint Secretaries to the Government of India; Commissioner in Sind; Controller of Civil Accounts; Financial Adviser, Military Finance; Judges of Chief Courts; Members of the Central Board of Revenue; and Resident and Commander-in-Chief at Aden.

25. Chief Commissioner of the Andaman and Nicobar Islands, when within his charge; and Chief Secretaries to the Governments of Madras, Bombay and Bengal.

26. Commissioners of Revenue and Commissioner of Excise, Bombay; Consulting Engineer to the Government of India; Development Commissioner, Burma; Director of Development, Bombay; Director-General, Indian Medical Service; Director-General of Posts and Telegraphs; Financial Commissioners; Judicial Commissioners of the Central Provinces, Sind and North-West Frontier Provinces; Major-Generals; Members of a Board of Revenue; Members of the Public Service Commission; and Surgeons-General.

27. Chairman of the Madras Services Commission; Vice-Chancellors of the Indian Universities.

28. Agents of State Railways; Controller of the Currency; Additional Judicial Commissioners; Judicial Commissioner, Western India States Agency; Commissioners of Division; Residents of the 2nd Class; Deputy Auditor-General in India; Revenue and Divisional Commissioners, North-West Frontier Province, within their respective charges.

29. Members of the Indian Civil Service of 30 years' standing, whose position but for this Article would not be lower than Article 34.

30. Advocate-General, Calcutta.

31. Advocates-General, Madras and Bombay.

32. Chief Secretaries to Governments other than those of Madras, Bombay, Bengal and Assam.

33. Accountants-General, Class I; Air Force Officer Commanding, Aden; Brigadiers; Census Commissioner for India; Chief Controller of Stores, Indian Stores Department; Commissioner, Northern India Salt Revenue; Director-General of Archæology in India; Director of the Geological Survey; Director, Intelligence Bureau; Director of Ordnance Factories and Manufacture; Director of Railway Audit; Educational Commissioner with the Government of India; His Majesty's Senior Trade Commissioner, Calcutta; Inspector-General of Forests; Military Accountant-General; Public Health Commissioner with the Government of India; and Surveyor-General of India.

* The Vice-President of the Council appointed under section 48 of the Government of India Act ranks in the same article of the Warrant but senior to his colleagues on the Council.

34. Additional Judicial Commissioners; Chief Commissioner of the Andaman and Nicobar Islands; Chief Commissioner of Delhi; Chief Secretary to the Government of Assam; Chief Secretary to the Government of the North-West Frontier Province; Commissioners of Division; Judicial Commissioner, Western India States Agency; and Residents of the 2nd Class; Revenue and Divisional Commissioners of the North-West Frontier Province.

35. Non-Official Presidents of Municipal Corporations in Presidency Towns and Rangoon, within their respective municipal jurisdictions; Private Secretary to the Viceroy; and Secretaries, Additional Secretaries and Joint Secretaries to Local Governments.

36. Accountants-General other than Class I; Chief Accounts Officer, East Indian Railway; Chief Auditor of State Railways; Chief Commercial Managers of State Railways; Chief Conservators of Forests; Chief Engineers;* Chief Engineer, Telegraphs; Chief Operating Superintendents of State Railways; Chief Mechanical Engineers of State Railways; Chief Mining Engineer, Railway Board; Colonels; Command Controllers of Military Accounts; Deputy Controller of the Currency at Bombay; Directors of Agriculture; Director, Agricultural Research Institute, Pusa; Director of Army Audit; Director of the Botanical Survey of India; Director of Civil Aviation in India; Director-General of Observatories; Directors of Public Instruction under Local Governments; Director, Military Lands and Cantonments; Directors, Railway Board; Directors of the Survey of India; Director, Zoological Survey; Expert Advisers, Imperial Council of Agricultural Research; Financial Adviser, Posts and Telegraphs; His Majesty's Trade Commissioners, Bombay and Calcutta; Inspectors-General, Civil Hospitals; Inspectors-General of Police under Local Governments and in the North-West Frontier Province; Inspectors-General of Prisons under Local Governments; Master of Security Press, Nasik; Members of the Indian Civil Service and of the Indian Political Department of 23 years' civil service, whose position but for this Article would not be lower than Article 55; Mint Masters, Calcutta and Bombay; President of the Forest College and Research Institute; Provincial Directors of Public Health; and Traffic Managers and Locomotive Superintendents of State Railways.

37. Military Secretary to the Viceroy.

38. Solicitor to the Government of India and Standing Counsel for the Presidency of Bengal.

39. Presidency Senior Chaplains of the Church of Scotland.

40. Chairmen of Port Trusts and of Improvement Trusts of the Presidency Towns, Rangoon and Karachi; Chief Executive Officers of the Municipalities of the Presidency Towns and Rangoon, within their charges; Chief Inspector of Mines; Commissioners of Police in the Presidency Towns and Rangoon; and Settlement Commissioners.

41. Collectors of Customs. Collectors and Magistrates of Districts; Collector of Salt Revenue, Madras and Bombay. Collector of Stamp Revenue and Deputy Collector of Land Revenue, Calcutta, Commissioner of Ajmer-Merwara; Deputy Commissioners of Districts; Deputy Commissioner, Port Blair; Divisional and District and Sessions Judges (including the Judicial Commissioner of Chota Nagpur), Political Agents and Superintendents, and Residents (other than those of the 1st and 2nd Class); Commissioners of Income Tax; Opium Agent, Ghazipur; and Remembrancers of Legal Affairs and Government Advocates under Local Governments.

42. Deputy Financial Adviser, Military Finance; Deputy Secretaries to the Government of India; Director-General of Commercial Intelligence; Director of Inspection, Indian Stores Department; Director of Public Information, Government of India; Director of Purchases and Intelligence, Indian Stores Department; Director, Regulations and Forms in the Army Department; Establishment Officer in the Army Department; Secretary to the Imperial Council of Agricultural Research; Secretary, Public Service Commission; Secretary to the Railway Board; and Secretaries to Residents of the First Class, within their respective charges.

43. Director, Central Research Institute, Kasauli; Director of the Imperial Institute of Veterinary Research, Muktesar; Director of the Indian Institute of Science; and Principal of the Thomason Civil Engineering College, Roorkee.

44. Assistant to the Inspector-General of Forests; Budget Officer, Finance Department; Government of India; Chief Electrical Engineers; Civilian Superintendents of Clothing Factories; Civilian Superintendents of Ordnance Factories; Colliery Superintendent, East Indian Railway; Commandant, Frontier Constabulary, North-West Frontier Province; Comptroller, Assam; Conservators of Forests; Controller of Army Factory Accounts; Controller of Marine Accounts; Controller, Royal Air Force Accounts; Deputy Agents, Deputy Traffic Managers, and Officers* of similar status of State Railways; Deputy Chief Engineer, Telegraphs; Deputy Director-General, Indian Medical Service; Deputy Director-General of the Post Office; Deputy Director-General, Telegraph Traffic; Deputy Director, Intelligence Bureau; Deputy Director, Ordnance Factories and Manufacture (if a civilian); Deputy Inspectors-General of Police; Deputy Military Accountant-General; Director, Medical Research; Directors of the Persian Gulf Section and of the Persian Section of the Indo-European Telegraph Department; Directors of

* Present incumbents of the office of Chief Engineer who have ranked in entry 33 of the Warrant of 1898 will rank in entry 33 of this Warrant until they relinquish their office as Chief Engineers.

Officers of similar status are: Deputy Superintendents, Locomotive Department; Superintendents, Carriage and Wagon Department; Controllers of Stores; Senior Signal Engineers; State Railways Coal Superintendent; Chief Medical Officer; Deputy Chief Transportation Superintendents; Deputy Chief Commercial Managers; Deputy Chief Mechanical Engineers, and Deputy Chief Engineers.

Telegraph Engineering; Director of Wireless; District Controllers of Military Accounts; Divisional Superintendents, State Railways; Lieutenant-Colonels; Members of the Madras Services Commission; Members of the Indian Civil Service and of the Political Department of 18 years' civil service, whose position but for this Article would not be lower than Article 55; Postmasters-General; Signal Engineers; and Superintending Engineers.

45. Assay Master, Bombay; Deputy Auditors-General; and Deputy Controllers of the Currency, Calcutta and Northern India.

46. Actuary to the Government of India; Chief Inspectors of Explosives; Chief Judges of Small Cause Courts, Presidency Towns and Rangoon; Controller of Printing, Stationery and Stamps; Directors of major Laboratories; and Director of Public Instruction, North-West Frontier Province.

47. First Assistant to the Resident at Aden; Private Secretaries to Governors; Political Secretary, Aden.

48. Administrators-General; Chief Presidency Magistrates; Deputy Directors, Railway Board; Judicial Assistant, Aden, when within his charge; Metallurgical Inspector, Jamshedpur; and Officers in Class I of the General or the Public Works List of the Indian Audit and Accounts Service.

49. Chief Inspector of Stores and Clothing, Cawnpore; Commissioner of Labour, Madras; Controller of Patents and Designs; Directors of Fisheries in Bengal and Madras; Directors of Industries; Directors of Land Records; Directors of Veterinary Services; Excise Commissioners; Inspector-General of Railway Police and Police Assistant to the Agent to the Governor-General, Rajputana; Inspectors-General of Registration; Principal, Research Institute, Cawnpore: Registrars of Co-operative Societies; Superintendent of Manufacture, Clothing Factory, Shahjahanpore.

50. District Judges not being Sessions Judges, within their own districts.

51. First Assistants to the Residents at Baroda and in Kashmir.

52. Chairman of the Port Trust, Aden; and Military Secretaries to Governors.

53. Senior Chaplains other than those already specified.

54. Sheriffs within their own charges.

55. Collectors of Customs; Collectors and Magistrates of Districts; Collector of Salt Revenue, Madras & Bombay; Collector of Stamp Revenue and Deputy Collector of Land Revenue, Calcutta; Commissioner of Ajmer-Merwara; Deputy Commissioners of Districts; Deputy Commissioner, Port Blair; Deputy Secretaries to Local Governments; Divisional and District and Sessions Judges (including the Judicial Commissioner of Chota Nagpur); Judicial Assistant, Aden; Political Agents and Superintendents; Residents (other than those of the 1st and 2nd Class); Second Assistant Resident and Protectorate Secretary, Aden; and Settlement Officers.

56. Assistant Executive Engineers of 20 years' standing; Chief Forest Officer, Andaman and Nicobar Islands; Controller of Inspection, Calcutta Circle, Indian Stores Department; Controller of Purchase, Calcutta Circle, Indian Stores Department; Deputy Directors of Purchase, Indian Stores Department; Deputy Directors of Commercial Intelligence; Deputy Director-General of Archæology; Deputy Director of Industries, United Provinces; Deputy Registrar of Co-operative Societies, United Provinces; Government Solicitors other than the Solicitor and Assistant Solicitor to the Government of India; Managing Director, Opium Factory, Ghazipur; Officers of the Indian Educational Service and of the Indian Institute of Science of 18 years' standing; Principals of major Government Colleges; Principal, School of Mines and Geology; Registrars to the High Courts; Secretaries to Legislative Councils; Superintendent of the Government Test House; Superintendents of the Survey of India; Assistant Collectors of Customs, Assistant Directors-General of the Post Office, Deputy Postmasters-General, Deputy Conservators of Forests, Divisional Engineers and Assistant Divisional Engineers, Telegraphs, Divisional Engineers and Assistant Divisional Engineers, Wireless, Executive Engineers of the Indian Service of Engineers holding a charge declared to be of not less importance than that of a division, Forest Engineers, Instructor, Wireless, Officers of the Archæological and other Scientific Departments, Officers of the Indian Agricultural Service, Officers of the Indian Veterinary Service, Officers of Class II of the General or the Public Works List of the Indian Audit and Accounts Service, Officers on the Superior List of the Military Accounts Department, Officers of the Superior Revenue Establishment of State Railways who hold the rank of District Officer or a position of similar status, Officers of the 1st Division, Superior Traffic Branch of the Telegraph Department, Senior Inspector of Mines, Superintendents and Deputy Commissioners of Police; Wireless Research Officers; Officers of the Bengal Pilot Service of 21 years' standing.

57. Assistant Solicitor to the Government of India; Deputy Director of Public Information, Government of India; and Under Secretaries to the Government of India.

58. Agent-General in India for the British Protectorate in Africa under the administration of the Colonial Office; Consulting Surveyor to the Government of Bombay; Directors of Survey, Madras and Bengal; Keeper of the Records of the Government of India; Librarian, Imperial Library; Public Analyst to the Government of Madras.

59. Chemical Inspector, Indian Ordnance Department; Civil Engineer Adviser to the Director of Ordnance, Factories and Manufacture; Civil Secretary and District Magistrate, Aden; District Judges not being Sessions Judges; Inspector of General Stores; Majors; Members of the Indian Civil Service of 12 years' standing; Superintendents and Deputy Commissioners of Police of more than 15 but less than 20 years' standing; and Works Managers of Ordnance Factories. Sanitary, Electrical and Architectural Specialist officers will take precedence in accordance with the rank in the Public Works Department fixed for their appointments but junior to all Public Works Department officers of the corresponding rank.

60. Assistant Commissioners of Income Tax; Assistant Executive Engineers of 12 years' standing; Assistant Superintendents of the Survey of India; Chief Works Chemist, United Provinces; Examiner of Local Fund Accounts, Madras; Inspector of Clothing Stores, Shahjahanpur; Officers of the Indian Educational Service and of the Indian Institute of Science of 10 years' standing; Officer in charge of the Mathematical Instrument Office; Presidency Post masters; Superintendent, Bombay City Survey and Land Records; Superintendents and Deputy Commissioners of Police of less than 15 years' standing; Assistant Collectors of Customs; Assistant Director-General of the Post Office, Deputy Postmasters-General, Deputy Conservators of Forest, Divisional Engineers and Assistant Divisional Engineers, Telegraphs, Divisional Engineers, and Assistant Divisional Engineers, Wireless, Executive Engineers of the Indian Service of Engineers holding a charge declared to be of not less importance than that of a division, Forest Engineers, Instructor, Wireless, Officers of the Archæological and other Scientific Departments, Officers of the Indian Agricultural Service, Officers of the Indian Veterinary Service, Officers of Class II of the General or Public Works List of the Indian Audit and Accounts Service, Officers on the Superior List of the Military Accounts Department, Officers of the Superior Revenue Establishment of State Railways who hold the rank of District Officer or a position of similar status, Officers of the 1st Division, Superior Traffic Branch of the Telegraph Department, and Wireless Research officers of 12 years' standing.

61. Assistant Commissioners (Senior), Northern India Salt Revenue; Assistant Chief Controller of Stores, Indian Stores Department; Assistant Controller of Inspection, Calcutta Circle, Indian Stores Department; Assistant Director of Inspection, Indian Stores Department; Assistant Director of Intelligence, Indian Stores Department; Assistant Directors of Purchase, Indian Stores Department; Assistant Metallurgical Inspectors, Indian Stores Department; Assistant Directors of Dairy Farms; Assistant Directors of Public Health; Assistant Directors, Railway Board; Assistant Financial Adviser, Military Finance; Assistant Secretaries to the Government of India; Chemical Examiner for Customs and Excise, Calcutta; Chemist at the Government Test House, Indian Stores Department; Chief Inspectors of Factories and Boilers in Bengal and Bombay; Commander of the Steamer employed in the Persian Gulf Section of the Indo-European Telegraph Department; Curator of the Bureau of Education; Deputy Administrator-General, Bengal; Deputy Assistant Director, Pay and Pensions Directorate, Adjutant-General's Branch; Deputy Commissioner, Northern India Salt Revenue; Deputy Commissioners of Salt and Excise; Deputy Director of Land Records, Burma; Director, Vaccine Institute, Belgaum; District Opium Officers; Divisional Engineers, Telegraphs, of less than 12 years' standing; Divisional Engineers, Wireless, of less than 12 years' standing; Emigration Commissioner; Engineer and Electrician of the Persian Gulf Section of the Indo-European Telegraph Department; Examiner of Questioned Documents; Executive Engineers of less than 12 years' standing; First Assistant Commissioner, Port Blair; General Managers, Northern India Salt Revenue; Honorary Presidency Magistrates; Judge of the City Civil Court, Madras; Judges of Presidency Courts of Small Causes; Lady Assistants to the Inspectors General, Civil Hospitals; Legal Assistant in the Legislative Department of the Government of India; Officers of the Bengal Pilot Service of 10 years' standing; Officers of the Provincial Civil Services drawing the maximum pay of the time-scale or upwards; Physicist at the Government Test House, Indian Stores Department; Presidency Magistrates; Protector of Emigrants and Superintendents of Emigration, Calcutta; Protectors of Emigrants; Public Prosecutors in Bengal and in Sind; Registrars to Chief Courts; Registrar of Companies, Bombay; Registrar of Joint Stock Companies, Bengal; Secretary, Board of Examiners; Secretary to the Board of Revenue in the Department of Revenue and Agriculture, Madras, when a member of the Provincial Service; Senior Income Tax Officer, Bombay, and Income Tax Officers drawing the maximum pay of the time-scale; and Superintendents of Central Jails and Civil Surgeons not belonging to the Indian Medical Service.

1. The entries in the above table apply exclusively to the persons entered therein, and while regulating their relative precedence with each other, do not give them any precedence over members of the non-official community resident in India, who shall take their place according to usage.

2. Officers in the above table will take precedence in order of the numbers of the entries. Those included in one number will take precedence *inter se*, according to the date of entry into that number.

3. When an officer holds more than one position in the table, he will be entitled to the highest position accorded to him.

4. Officers who are temporarily officiating in any number in the table will rank in that number below permanent incumbents.

5. All officers not mentioned in the above table, whose rank is regulated by comparison with rank in the army, to have the same rank with reference to civil servants as is enjoyed by military officers of equal grades.

6. All other persons who may not be mentioned in this table to take rank according to general usage, which is to be explained and

* In virtue of the provisions of section 9 (*ii*) of the Indian Church Act, 1927, a Bishop or Archdeacon who held a bishopric or archdeaconry on the 1st March 1930 takes rank as follows:—

Bishop of Calcutta, Metropolitan of India, immediately after Chief Justice of Bengal, Article 7.

Bishops of Madras and Bombay, immediately after Chief Justice of a High Court other than that of Bengal, Article 12.

Bishops of Lahore, Rangoon, Lucknow and Nagpur, immediately after Chief Commissioner of Delhi, when within his charge, Article 22.

Bishops (not territorial) under license from the Crown, immediately after Chief Secretaries to Governments, other than those of Madras, Bombay, Bengal and Assam, Article 32.

Archdeacons of Calcutta, Madras and Bombay, in Article 33.

Archdeacons of Lahore Lucknow, Rangoon and Nagpur, in Article 39.

determined by the Governor-General in Council in case any question shall arise.* When the position of any such person is so determined and notified, it shall be entered in the table in italics, provided he holds an appointment in India.

7. Nothing in the foregoing rules to disturb the existing practice relating to precedence at the Courts of Indian States or on occasions of intercourse with Indians, and the Governor-General in Council to be empowered to make rules for such occasions in case any dispute shall arise.

8. The following will take courtesy rank as shown:—

Consuls-General,—Immediately after Article 33, which includes Brigadiers; Consuls—Immediately after Article 36 which includes Colonels; Vice-Consuls—Immediately after Article 59, which includes Majors.

Consular officers *de carriere* will in their respective grades take precedence of consular officers who are not *de carriere*.

9. The following may be given, by courtesy, precedence as shown below, provided that they do not hold appointments in India:—

Peers according to their precedence in England; Knights of the Garter, the Thistle, and St. Patrick; Privy Councillors; Members of the Council of the Secretary of State for India—Immediately after Members of the Governor-General's Executive Council, Article 8.

Baronets of England, Scotland, Ireland, and the United Kingdom according to date of Patents; Knight Grand Cross of the Bath; Knights Grand Commander of the Star of India; Knights Grand Cross of St. Michael and St. George; Knights Grand Commander of the Indian Empire; Knights Grand Cross of the Royal Victoria Order; Knights Grand Cross of the Order of the British Empire—Immediately after Puisne Judges of High Courts, Article 20.

Knight Commander of the Bath; Knights Commander of the Star of India; Knights Commander of St. Michael and St. George; Knights Commander of the Indian Empire; Knight Commander of the Royal Victorian Order; Knight Commander of the Order of the British Empire; Knights Bachelor—Immediately after the Residents of the 2nd Class, Article 28.

10. All ladies, unless by virtue of holding an appointment themselves they are entitled to a higher position in the table, to take place according to the rank herein assigned to their respective husbands, with the exception of wives of Peers and of ladies having precedence in England independently of their husbands, and who are not in rank below the daughters of Barons; such ladies to take place according to their several ranks, with reference to such precedence in England immediately after the wives of Members of the Governor-General's Executive Council.

SALUTES.

Persons.	No. of guns.	Occasions on which salute is fired.
Imperial salute	101	When the Sovereign is present in person.
Royal salute	31	On the anniversaries of the Birth, Accession and Coronation of the Reigning Sovereign; the Birthday of the Consort of the Reigning Sovereign; the Birthday of the Queen Mother; Proclamation Day.
Members of the Royal Family.. ..	31	On arrival at, or departure from, a military station, or when attending a State ceremony.
Foreign Sovereigns and members of their families.	21	
Maharajadhiraja of Nepal	21	
Sultan of Zanzibar	21	
Ambassadors	19	
Prime Minister of Nepal	19	
Governor of the French Settlements in India.	17	
Governor of Portuguese India	17	
Governors of His Majesty's Colonies ..	17	
Lieutenant-Governors of His Majesty's Colonies.	15	
Maharaja of Bhutan	15	
Plenipotentiaries and Envoys	15	
Governor of Damaun	9	
Governor of Diu	9	
Viceroy and Governor-General ..	31	On arrival at, or departure from, a military station within Indian territories or when attending a State ceremony.
Governors of Presidencies and Provinces in India.	17	On assuming or relinquishing office whether temporarily or permanently. On occasions of a *public* arrival at, or departure from, a military station, and on formal ceremonial occasions such as arriving at or leaving a Durbar, or when paying a formal visit to a Ruling Chief. Also on occasions of private arrival at, or departure from, a military station, if desired.

Persons.	No. of Guns.	Occasions on which salute is fired.
Residents, 1st Class	13	Same as Governors.
Agents to the Governor-General ..	13	
Commissioner in Sind	13	
Agent to the Governor in Kathiawar ..	13	
Residents, 2nd Class	13	On assuming or relinquishing office, and on occasion of a *public* arrival at, or departure from a military station.
Political Agents (*b*)	11	
Commander-in-Chief in India (if a Field Marshal).	19	On assuming or relinquishing office. On *public* arrival at, or departure from, a military station, and on formal ceremonial occasions. Also on occasions of private arrival or departure, if desired.
Commander-in-Chief in India (if a General)	17	
Naval Commander-in-Chief, East Indies Squadron (*c*).	..	Same as for military officer of corresponding rank (*see* K.R.).
G.Os.C. in C.-Commands (*d*)	15	On assuming or relinquishing command, and on occasions of *public* arrival at or departure from, a military station within their command. Also on occasions of private arrival or departure, if desired.
Major-Generals Commanding Districts (*d*).	13	
Major-Generals and Colonel-Commandants Commanding Brigades (*d*).	11	

Permanent Salutes to Ruling Princes and Chiefs.

Salutes of 21 *guns.*

Baroda. The Maharaja (Gaekwar) of.
Gwalior. The Maharaja (Scindia) of.
Hyderabad. The Nizam of.
Jammu and Kashmir. The Maharaja of.
Mysore. The Maharaja of

Salutes of 19 *guns.*

Bhopal. The Begam (or Nawab) of.
Indore. The Maharaja (Holkar) of.
Kalat. The Khan (Wali) of.
Kolhapur. The Maharaja of.
Travancore. The Maharaja of.
Udaipur (Mewar). The Maharana of.

Salutes of 17 *guns.*

Bahawalpur. The Nawab of.
Bharatpur. The Maharaja of.
Bikaner. The Maharaja of.
Bundi. The Maharao Raja of.
Cochin. The Maharaja of.
Cutch. The Maharao of.
Jaipur. The Maharaja of.
Jodhpur (Marwar). The Maharaja of.
Karauli. The Maharaja of.
Kotah. The Maharao of.
Patiala. The Maharaja of.
Rewa. The Maharaja of.
Tonk. The Nawab of.

Salutes of 15 *guns.*

Alwar. The Maharaja of.
Banswara. The Maharawal of.
Bhutan. The Maharaja of.
Datia. The Maharaja of.
Dewas (Senior Branch). The Maharaja of.
Dewas (Junior Branch). The Maharaja of.
Dhar. The Maharaja of.
Dholpur. The Maharaj Rana of.
Dungarpur. The Maharawal of.
Idar. The Maharaja of.
Jaisalmer. The Maharawal of.

(*b*) Within the territories of the State to which they are attached.
(*c*) According to naval rank, with two guns added.
(*d*) No military officer shall receive an artillery salute unless he is in actual military command and is the senior military officer in the spot. Attention is invited to the extra guns allowed for individuals.

Khairpur. The Mir of.
Kishangarh. The Maharaja of.
Orchha. The Maharaja of.
Partabgarh. The Maharawat of
Rampur. The Nawab of.
Sikkim. The Maharaja of.
Sirohi. The Maharao of.

Salutes of 13 *guns.*

Benares. The Maharaja of.
Bhavnagar. The Maharaja of.
Cooch Behar. The Maharaja of.
Dhrangadhra. The Maharaja of.
Jaora. The Nawab of.
Jhalawar. The Maharaj-Rana of.
Jind. The Maharaja of.
Junagadh. The Nawab of.
Kapurthala. The Maharaja of.
Nabha. The Maharaja of.
Nawanagar. The Maharaja of
Palanpur. The Nawab of.
Porbandar. The Maharaja of.
Rajpipla. The Maharaja of.
Ratlam. The Maharaja of.
Tripura. The Maharaja of.

Salutes of 11 *guns.*

Ajaigarh. The Maharaja of.
Alirajpur. The Raja of.
Baoni. The Nawab of.
Barwani. The Rana of.
Bijawar. The Maharaja of.
Bilaspur. The Raja of.
Cambay. The Nawab of.
Chamba. The Raja of.
Charkhari. The Maharaja of.
Chhatarpur. The Maharaja of.
Faridkot. The Raja of.
Gondal. The Thakur Saheb of.
Janjira. The Nawab of.
Jhabua. The Raja of.
Maler Kotla. The Nawab of.
Mandi. The Raja of.
Manipur. The Maharaja of.
Morvi. The Maharaja of.
Narsinggarh. The Raja of.
Panna. The Maharaja of
Pudukkottai. The Raja of.
Radhanpur. The Nawab of.
Rajgarh The Raja of.
Sailana. The Raja of.
Samthar. The Raja of.
Sirmur. The Maharaja of.
Sitamau. The Raja of.
Suket. The Raja of.
Tehri. The Raja of.

Salutes of 9 *guns.*

Balasinor. The Nawab (Babi) of.
Banganapalle. The Nawab of.
Bansda. The Raja of.
Baraundha. The Raja of.
Bariya. The Raja of.
Bhor. The Pant Sachin of.
Chhota Udepur. The Raja of.
Danta. The Maharana of.
Dhrol. The Thakor Saheb of.
Hsipaw. The Sawbwa of.
Jawhar. The Raja of.
Kalahandi. The Raja of.
Kengtung. The Sawbwa of.
Khilchipur. The Rao Bahadur of.
Limbdi. The Thakor Saheb of.
Loharu. The Nawab of.
Lunawada. The Raja of.
Maihar. The Raja of.
Mayurbhanj. The Maharaja of.
Mudhol. The Raja of.
Nagod. The Raja of.
Palitana. The Thakor Saheb of.
Patna. The Maharaja of.
Rajkot. The Thakor Saheb of.
Sachin. The Nawab of.
Sangli. The Chief of.
Sant. The Raja of.
Savantvadi. The Sar Desai of.
Shahpura. The Raja of.
Sonpur. The Maharaja of.
Vankaner. The Raj Saheb of.
Wadhwan. The Thakor Saheb of.
Yawnghwe. The Sawbwa of.

Personal Salutes.

Salutes of 21 *guns.*

Kalat. His Highness Mir Sir Mahmud Khan G.C.I.E., Wali of.

Salutes of 19 *guns.*

Bikaner. Lieut.-General His Highness Maharaja Sir Ganga Singh Bahadur, G.C.S.I., G.C.V.O., G.B.E., K.C.B., A.D.C., Maharaja of.

Kotah. Lieutenant-Colonel His Highness Maharao Sir Umed Singh Bahadur, G.C.S.I., G.C.I.E., G.B.E., Maharao of.

Mysore. Her Highness Maharani Kempa Nanjammanni Avaru Vanivilas Sannidhana, C.I., Maharani of.

Patiala. Lieut.-General His Highness Maharajadhiraja Sir Bhupindar Singh Mahinda Bahadur, G.C.S.I., G.C.I.E., G.C.V.O., G.B.E., A.D.C., Maharaja of.

Tonk. H. H. Amin-ud-Daula Wazir-ul-Mulk Nawab Sir Muhammad Ibrahim Ali Khan Bahadur Saulat Jang, G.C.S.I., G.C.I.E., Nawab of.

Salutes of 17 *guns.*

Alwar. Colonel His Highness Sewai Maharaj Shri Jey Singhji, G.C.I.E., K.C.S.I., Maharaja of.

Dholpur. Lieutenant-Colonel His Highness Maharajadhiraja Shri Sawai Maharaj-Rana Sir Udaibhan Singh Lokindar Bahadur Diler Jang Jai Deo, K.C.S.I., K.C.V.O., Maharaja Rana of.

Orchha. His Highness Maharaja Mahendra Sawai Sir Pratal Singh Bahadur, G.C.S.I., G.C.I.E., Maharaja of.

Salutes of 15 *guns.*

Benares. Lieutenant-Colonel His Highness Maharaja Sir Parbhu Narayan Singh Bahadur, G.C.S.I., G.C.I.E., Maharaja of.

Jind. Lieutenant-Colonel His Highness Maharaja Sir Ranbir Singh Rajendra Bahadur, G.C.I.E., K.C.S.I., Maharaja of.

Junagadh. His Highness Vali Ahad Mohaba Khanji Rasulkhanji, Nawab of.

Kapurthala. Colonel His Highness Maharaja Sir Jagatjit Singh Bahadur, G.C.S.I., G.C.I.E., G.B.E., Maharaja of.

Nawanagar. Colonel His Highness, Maharaja Shri Digvijaysinhji, Maharaja of.

Salutes of 11 *guns.*

Aga Khan, His Highness Aga Sir Sultan Muhammad Shah, G.C.S.I., G.C.I.E., G.C.V.O., of Bombay.

Bariya. Captain H. H. Maharawal Shri Sir Ranjitsinhji Mansinhji, K.C.S.I., Raja of.

Chitral. His Highness Mehtar Sir Shuja-u-Mulk, K.C.I.E., Mehtar of.

Dharampur. H. H. Maharana Vijayadevji of.

Lunawada. His Highness Maharana Birbhadrasinhji, Raja of.

Sangli, Lt.-Meherban Sir Chintamanrao Dhundiro *alias* Appa Saheb Patwardhan, K.C.I.E., Raja of.

Vankaner. Captain His Highness Raj Saheb Sir Amarsinhji Banesinhji, K.C.I.E., Raja Saheb of.

Salutes of 9 *guns.*

Bashahr. Raja Padam Singh, Raja of.

Loharu. Nawab Sir Amir-ud-din Ahmad Khan Bahadur, K.C.I.E., *ex*-Nawab of.

Mong Mit, Ukhin Maung, K.S.M., Sawbwa of.

Local Salutes.

Salutes of 21 *guns.*

Bhopal. The Begam (or Nawab) of. Within the limits of her (or his) own territories, permanently.

Indore. The Maharaja (Holkar) of. Within the limits of his own territories, permanently.

Udaipur (Mewar). The Maharana of. Within the limits of his own territories, permanently.

Salute of 19 *guns.*

Bharatpur. The Maharaja of.
Bikaner. The Maharaja of.
Cutch. The Maharao of.
Jaipur. The Maharaja of.
Jodhpur (Marwar). The Maharaja of.
Patiala. The Maharaja of.
(Within the limits of their own territories permanently.)

Salute of 17 *guns.*

Alwar. The Maharaja of.
Khairpur. The Mir of.
(Within the limits of their own territories permanently.)

Salutes of 15 *guns.*

Benares. The Maharaja of.
Bhavnagar. The Maharaja of.
Jind. The Maharaja of.
Junagadh. The Nawab of.
Kapurthala. The Maharaja of.
Nabha. The Maharaja of.
Nawanagar. The Maharaja of.
Ratlam. The Maharaja of.
(Within the limits of their own territories, permanently.)

Salutes of 13 *guns.*

Janjira. The Nawab of. (Within the limits of his own territory, permanently.)

Salutes of 11 *guns.*

Savantvadi. The Sar Desai of.. .. .. Within the limits of his own territory, permanently.

Salutes of 5 *guns.*

Abu Dhabi. The Shaikh of .. .. .. Fired by British Ships of War in the Persian Gulf at the termination of an official visit by this Chief.

Bunder Abbas. The Governor of
Lingah. The Governor of .. .. ..
Muhammerah. The Governor of .. .. .. } At the termination of an official visit.

Muhammerah. Eldest son of the Shaikh of .. Fired on occasions when he visits one of His Majesty's ships as his father's representative.

Salutes of 3 *guns.*

Ajman. The Shaikh of .. ..
Dibai. The Shaikh of .. ..
Ras-al-Kheima. The Shaikh of .. ..
Shargah. The Shaikh of.. .. .. ..
Umm-ul-Qawain. The Shaikh of .. .. } Fired by British Ships of War in the Persian Gulf at the termination of official visits by these Chiefs.

TABLE OF LOCAL PERSONAL SALUTES.

Salutes of 11 *guns.*

His Excellency Shaikh Sir Isa bin Ali al Khalifah, K.C.I.E., C.S.I., Shaikh of Bahrain. Fired by British Ships of War in the Persian Gulf at the termination of an official visit by this Chief.

(TABLE OF) PROVISIONAL LOCAL SALUTES.

Salutes of 17 *guns.*

Council of Ministers (as a whole) of His Highness the Sultan of Muscat.

Salutes of 13 *guns.*

The President of the Council of Ministers of His Highness the Sultan of Muscat, when a member of the ruling family.

Salutes of 9 *guns.*

The President of the Council of Ministers of His Highness the Sultan of Muscat when not a member of the ruling family.

Salutes of 7 *guns.*

Bahrain. The Shaikh of.
Kuwait. The Shaikh of.
Muhammerah. The Shaikh of.
Qatr. The Shaikh of.

Salutes of 5 *guns.*

Bahrain. Eldest son of the Shaikh of, or other member of the ruling family.
Kuwait. Eldest son of the Shaikh of, or other member of the ruling family. } Fired when acting as Deputy of these Chiefs.

Individual Members of the Council of Ministers of His Highness the Sultan of Muscat.

(TABLE OF) PROVISIONAL PERSONAL SALUTES.

Salutes of 13 *guns.*

His Excellency Shaikh Sir Khaz'al Khan, G.C.I.E., K.C.S.I., Shaikh of Muhammerah. Fired by British Ships of War in the Persian Gulf at the termination of an official visit by this Chief.

Indian Orders.

The Star of India.

The Order of the Star of India was instituted by Queen Victoria in 1861, and enlarged in 1866, 1875, 1876, 1897, 1902, 1911, 1915 and 1920 and the dignity of Knight Grand Commander may be conferred on Princes or Chiefs of India, or upon British subjects for important and loyal service rendered to the Indian Empire; the second and third classes for services in the Indian Empire thirty years in the department of the Secretary of State for India. It consists of the Sovereign, a Grand Master (the Viceroy of India), the first class of forty-four Knights Grand Commanders (22 British and 22 Indian), the second class of one hundred Knights Commanders, and the third class of two hundred and twenty-five Companions, exclusive of Extra and Honorary Members, as well as certain additional Knights and Companions.

The Insignia are (i) the Collar of gold, composed of the lotus of India, of palm branches tied together in satire, of the united red and white rose, and in the centre an Imperial Crown; all enamelled in their proper colours and linked together by gold chains. (ii) The Star of a Knight Grand Commander is composed of rays of gold issuing from a centre, having thereon a star of five points in diamonds resting upon a light blue enamelled circular riband, tied at the ends and inscribed with the motto of the Order, *Heaven's Light our Guide*, also in diamonds. That of a Knight Commander is somewhat different, and is described below. (iii) The Badge, an onyx cameo having Her Majesty Queen Victoria's Royal Effigy thereon, set in a perforated and ornamental oval, containing the motto of the Order surmounted by a star of five points, all in diamonds. (iv) The Mantle of light blue satin lined with white, and fastened with a cordon of white silk with blue and silver tassels. On the left side a representation of the Star of the Order.

The ribbon of the Order (four inches wide for Knights Grand Commanders) is sky-blue, having a narrow white stripe towards either edge, and is worn from the right shoulder to the left side. A Knight Commander wears (a) around his neck a ribbon two inches in width of the same colours and pattern as a Knight Grand Commander, and pendent therefrom a badge of a smaller size, (b) on his left breast a Star composed of rays of silver issuing from a gold centre, having thereon a silver star of five points resting upon a light blue enamelled circular ribbon, tied at the ends, inscribed with the motto of the Order in diamonds. A Companion wears around his neck a badge of the same form as appointed for a Knight Commander, but of a smaller size pendent to a like ribbon of the breadth of one and a half inches. All Insignia are returnable at death to the Central Chancery, or if the recipient was resident in India, to the Secretary of the Order at Calcutta.

Sovereign of the Order:—His Most Gracious Majesty The King-Emperor of India.

Grand Master of the Order:—His Excellency the Viceroy and Governor-General of India, the Right Honourable Viscount Willingdon, P.C., G.M.S.I., G.M.I.E., G.B.E.

Officers of the Order:—*Registrar*: Col. the Hon. Sir George Arthur Charles Crichton, K.C.V.O., Secretary of the Central Chancery of the Orders of Knighthood, St. James' Palace London, W. 1.

Secretary: The Hon'ble Mr. B. J. Glancy, C.S.I., C.I.E., Secretary to the Government of India in the Foreign and Political Department

Extra Knights Grand Commanders (G. C. S. I.)

H. I. M. The Queen-Empress.
H. R. H. The Duke of Connaught.
H. R. H. The Prince of Wales.

Honorary Knights Commanders (K. C. S. I.)

His Excellency Shaikh Sir Khaz'al Khan, G.C.I.E., Sardar Aqdas, Shaikh of Muhammarch and dependencies.

Prince Ismail Mirza, Motamad-ed-Dowleh Amir-i-Akram, son of His Royal Highness the late Sultan Sir Massoud Mirza, Yemined-Dowleh, Zil-es-Sultan of Persia.

Honorary Colonel Supradipta Manyabar General Sir Baber Shum Shere Jung, Bahadur Rana, G.B.E., K.C.I.E., of Nepalese Army (Nepal).

Honorary Companions.

H. H. Saiyid Sir Taimur bin Faisal bin-us-Saiyd Turki, K.C.I.E., Sultan of Masqat and Oman.

Shaikh Hamad bin Isa al Khalifah, son of the Sheikh of Bahrain.

His Excellency Shaikh Ahmad bin Jabina Sabah, C.I.E., Ruler of Kuweit.

Knights Grand Commanders (G. C. S. I.)

H. H. The Gaekwar of Baroda
Baron Ampthill.
H. H. The Maharaja of Mysore
Baron Hardinge of Penshurst
Sir John Hewett
H. H. The Maharaja of Bikaner
H. H. Maharao of Kotah
H. H. The Maharaja of Kapurthala
His Exalted Highness the Nizam of Hyderabad
H. H. The Aga Khan
H. H. The Maharao of Cutch
Viscount Willingdon
H. H. The Maharaja of Patiala
The Marquess of Reading
The Marquess of Zetland.

H. H. The Maharaja of Alwar
Baron Lloyd
Viscount Lee of Fareham
The Earl of Lytton
Baron Irwin.
Sir Harcourt Butler
Sir Leslie Wilson
Viscount Goschen.
Sir William Birdwood.
The Right Honourable Sir John Allsebrook Simon.
Field-Marshal Sir Claud William Jacob.
His Highness The Maharana of Udaipur.
His Highness The Maharaja of Kolhapur.
Viscount Peel.
Lieut.-Col. The Right Honourable Sir Francis Stanely Jackson.
H. H. The Nawab of Bhopal.
H. E. Sir William Malcolm Hailey.
H. H. The Maharaja of Kashmir.
Lieutenant-Colonel The Right Honourable Sir Samuel John Gurney Hoare.
The Right Honourable Sir Frederick Hugh Sykes

Knights Commanders (K.C.S.I.)

Sir Hugh Shakespear Barnes
Sir Arthur Henry Temple Martindale
Sir Joseph Bampfylde Fuller
Sir Charles Stuart Bayley
H. H. Maharaja of Jind
Sir George Stuart Forbes
H. H. Maharaja of Ratlam
Sir Harvey Adamson
Nawab of Murshidabad
Sir John Ontario Miller
Sir Lionel Montague Jacob
Sir Murray Hammick
Sir Robert Warrand Carlyle
Sir Reginald Henry Craddock
Sir James McCrone Douie
Lord Meston of Agra and Dunottar
Sir Benjamin Robertson
Maharajadhiraja of Burdwan
Sir Elliot Graham Colvin
Sir Trevredyn Rashleigh Wynne
H. H. Maharaja of Dewas State (Senior Branch)
Sir M. F. O'Dwyer
Sir Michael William Fenton
Colonel Sir Sidney Gerald Burrard
Sir P. Sundaram Aiyar Sivaswami Aiyar
Sir Edward Albert Gait
H. H. Nawab of Maler Kotla
Sir William Henry Clark
Major-General Sir Percy Zachariah Cox
Sir Steyning William Edgerley
Sir Harrington Verney Lovett
Sir Robert Woodburn Gillan
Maharaj Sri Sir Bhairon Singh Bahadur
Sir Alexander Gordon Cardew
Lieut.-Col. Sir Hugh Daly
Sir C. H. A. Hill
H. H. The Maharaja of Dhrangadhra
Lieut.-Col. Sir F. E. Younghusband
Sir T. Morison
Lieut.-Gen. G. M. Kirkpatrick
Major-Gen. R. C. O. Stuart
Sir George Rivers Lowndes
H. H. Maharajadhiraja Maharawal Sir Jowahir Singa Bahadur of Jaisalmer
Sir Archdale Earle
Sir Stuart Mitford Fraser
H. H. The Maharaja of Datia
H. H. The Maharaj Rana of Dholpur
Lieut.-General Sir William Raine Marshall
Sir William Vincent
Sir Thomas Holland
Sir James Bennett Brunyate
Sir Sydney Arthur Taylor Rowlatt
Sir G. Carmichael
Dr. Sir M. E. Sadler
Major-Gen. Sir Harry Triscott Brooking
Major-Gen. Sir George Fletcher MacMunn
The Right Hon'ble Lord Southborough
Sir George Barnes
Sir Edward Maclagan
Sir William Marris
Sir N. D. Beatson-Bell
Sir L. J. Kershaw
Sir L. Davidson
The Hon'ble Sir C. G. Todhunter
Sir Henry Wheeler
Sir H. R. C. Dobbs
Captain His Highness Maharawal Shri Sir Ranjitsinghji Mansinghji, Raja of Baria.
Sir Hamilton Grant
Sir John Henry Kerr
Dr. Sir Tej Bahadur Sapru
Major-General Sir Havelock Charles
The Hon'ble Sir Ibrahim Rahimtulla
Sir Charles Innes
The Maharao of Sirohi
H. E. Sir Montagu Butler
H. H. The Maharaja of Rajpipla
Sir Frederick Nicholson.
H. H. The Maharaja of Jodhpur
Sir Frederic Whyte
The Hon'ble Sir Maurice Hayward
Sir Abdur Rahim
H. H. the Nawab of Junagadh
Sir Basil Blackett
Sir Henry Lawrence
H. H. The Maharaja of Rewa
Sir Bhupendranath Mitra.
Sir Chunilal V. Mehta.
Sir S. P. O'Donnel.
H. E. Sir Hugh Lansdown Stephenson
H. E. Sir Egbert Laurie Lucas Hammond
Khan Bahadur Sir Muhammad Habibullah
Sir William John Keith
Nawab Sir Sidiq Muhammad Khan of Bahawalpur.
H. H. the Maharaja of Porbunder
H. E. Sir Geoffrey de Montmorency
Sir James Crerar
Sir Jean Rieu
Sir George Lambert
H. H. The Maharaja of Morvi
Sir George Rainy.
Sir Ernest Hotson
Sir Denys Bray.
Sir Atul Chandra Chatterjee
His Highness the Raja of Mandi.
Thakor Saheb of Limbdi.
Sir Norman Marjoribanks.
The Hon'ble Sir George Schuster.
The Hon. Sir Brojendra Lal Mitter, Kt.
H. H. Maharaja Mahendra Sir Yadvendra Singh Bahadur, K.C.I.E., of Panna
Major H. H. Raja Narendra Shah, of Tehri.
The Hon. Sir John Perronet Thompson.
Major-General Sir Leonard Rogers.
H. E. Sir James David Sifton.

H. E. Sir Michael Keanei.
Lieut.-Col. H. E. Sir Ralph Griffith.
The Hon'ble Khan Bahadur Mian Sir Fazl-i-Husain.
The Hon'ble Sir Joseph William Bhore.
The Hon'ble Sir Harry Haig.
The Hon'ble Captain Nawab Sir Muhammad Ahmed Said Khan, of Chittari.
The Hon'ble Sir Prorash Chandra Mitter.
The Hon'ble Sir Henry Daffield Craik.
Vice-Admiral Sir Humphrey Thomas Walwyn.
Sir Reginald Arthur Mant.
H. E. Sir Herbert William Emerson.
H. H. the Maharaja of Benares.
Sir Ghulam Husain Hidayatullah.
H. E. Sir Clarendon Gowan.
H. H. the Maharaja of Manipur.
Sir Edward Maynard des Champs Chamier.

Companions (C.S.I.)

Col. Charles Edward Yate.
Henry Aiken Anderson
Lieut.-Col. Sir Arthur Henry McMahon
Sir Frederick Styles Philpin Lely
Charles Gerwien Bayne
Hartley Kennedy
William Charles Macpherson
Col. James Alexander Lawrence Montgomery
William Thomas Hall
Richard Townsend Greer
Sir Louis William Dane
Hermann Michael Kisch
Sir Cecil Michael Wilford Brett
Sir Frank Campbell Gates
John Mitchell Holms
Raja Narendra Chand
Oscar Theodore Barrow
Francis Alexander Slacke
Percy Comyn Lyon
William Arbuthnot Inglis
John Alexander Broun
Maurice Walter Fox-Strangways
William Lochiel Sapte Lovett Cameron
Maj.-Gen. Sir Henry Montague Pakington Hawkes
Francis Capel Harrison
Andrew Edmund Castlestuart Stuart
Norman Goodford Cholmeley
Walter Francis Rice
Rear-Admiral Allen Thomas Hunt
Sir John Walter Hose
Charles Ernest Vear Goument
George Moss Harriott
Ernest Herbert Cooper Walsh
Sir Edward Vere Levinge
Lieut.-Col. Charles Archer
James Peter Orr
Herbert Alexander Casson
William Axel Hertz
Brevet-Colonel Sir Clive Wigram
Herbert Thompson
Lieut.-Col. Sir John Ramsay
Stuart Lockwood Maddox
Dr. Sir Gilbert Thomas Walker
Lieut.-Col. Phillip Richard Thornhagh Gurdon
Major Edmund Vivian Gabriel
Sir John Stuart Donald
Henry Montague Segundo Mathews
Maulvi Sir Ahmad Hussain Nawab Amir Jang Bahadur
Sir Horace Charles Mules
Lieut.-Col. Arthur Russell Aldridge
Lieut.-Col. Sir Mathew Richard Henry Wilson
John Charles Burnham
Col. Thomas Francis Bruce Renny-Tailyour
Col. Alain Chartier de Lotbiniere Joly de Lotbiniere
Lieut.-Col. Charles Mowpray Dallas
Edward Henry Scamander Clarke
Sir Jagadish Chandra Bose
Oswald Campbell Lees
Lieut.-Col. Albert Edward Woods
William Exall Tempest Bennett
William Ogilvie Horne
William Harrison Moreland
Col. Lestock Hamilton Reid
Surg.-Gen. Henry Wicknam Stevenson
Honorary Lieut.-Col. Raja of Lambagraon
Lieut.-Col. Donald John Campbell MacNabb
Henry Venn Cobb
Frederick William Johnston
William Henry Lucas
Arthur Leslie Saunders
Raja Sir Daljit Singh of Jullunder
Sir Walter Maude
Sir Henry Ashbrooke Crump
Sir William James Reid
Walter Gunnell Wood
John Cornwallis Godley
A. Butterworth
Lt.-Col. A. B. Dew
Sir Hugh T. Keeling
Sir Henry Sharp
Sir Robert R. Scott
Rear-Admiral Arthur Hayes-Sadler
Laurence Robertson
Sir John Ghest Cumming
Lieut.-Col. Stephen Lushington Aplin
Sir James Houssemayne DuBoulay
Major-General Sir Arthur Wigram Money
T. A. Chalmers
R. Burn
Sir Godfrey B. H. Fell
Major-General Sir W. C. Knight
Lt.-Col. Sir Cecil Kaye
Sir Patrick James Fagan
Lt.-Col. Lawrence Impey
Col. Benjamin William Marlow
Lt.-Col. Harold Fenton Jacob
Lt.-Col. Francis Beville Prideaux
Lt.-Col. Stuart George Knox
Col. Sir Hugh Whitchurch Perry
Henry Cecil Ferard
Charles Evelyn Arbuthnot William Oldham
Francis Coope French
Sir Horatio Norman Bolton
Major-General J. C. Rimington
Colonel H. R. Hopwood
Brig.-General R. H. W. Hughes
L. E. Buckley
C. H. Bompas
M. M. S. Gubbay
Major-Gen. J. M. Walter
Brig.-General W. G. Hamilton
Major Sir Alexander J. Anderson
Major-General Sir Theodore Fraser
Col. Thomas A. Harrison
Major-General L. O. Dunsterville
Sir Hugh McPherson
Sir Henry Fraser Howard
Lieut.-Col. Herbert Des Voeux

Col. Charles Rattray
Sir Evelyn Berkeley Howell
Major-General Sir Felix Fordati Ready
Col. Herbert Evan Charles Bayley Nepean
Lieut.-Col. Patrick Robert Cadell
Lieut.-Col. Montagu William Douglas
Richard Meredith
Sir Manubhai Nandshankar Mehta
Lieut.-Col. Sir Thomas Wolseley Haig
Herman Cameron Norman
Major-General James Wilton O'Dowda
Brevet-Lieut.-Col. Sir Arnold Talbot Wilson
Colonel (temporary Colonel-on-the-staff) Charles Ernest Graham Norton
Captain Wilfrid Nunn
Major-General Hubert Isacke
Colonel Stewart Gordon Loch
Col. Frederick James Moberly
Brigadier-Gen. Robert Fox Sorsbie
Colonel Alan Edmondson Tate
Major-Gen. William Cross Barratt
Temporary Brigadier-General Sir Edward Hugh Bray
Col. (Honorary Brigadier-Gen.) Arthur Howarth Pryce Harrison
Colonel (temporary Major-Gen.) Frank Ernest Johnson
Major-General Robert Archibald Cassels
Frederick Campbell Rose
Sir Selwyn Howe Fremantle
Peter William Monie
Major-General Charles Astley Fowler
Colonel Michael Edward Willoughby
Major-General Edward Arthur Fagan
Major-General Herbert William Jackson
Lt.-Col. Arthur Leslie Jacob
The Hon'ble William Pell Barton
C. F. Payne
W. J. J. Howley
Sir Bentram P. Standen
Sir John L. Maffey
Lieut.-Col. J. L. W. F. French-Mullen
Lt.-Col. J. L. R. Gordon, C.B.
Colonel C. W. Profeit
H. M. R. Hopkins
R. A. Graham
Claud Alexander Barron
Sir Geoffrey R. Clarke
Lieut.-Col. D. Donald
Khan Bahadur Sardar Muhammad Ali Khan Qizilbash.
Col. G. B. M. Sarel
Major-General F. E. Coningham
Col. D. A. D. McVean
Col. H. G. Burrard
Col. J. H. Foster Lakin
Major-General G. A. H. Beatty.
Sir Robert Holland
C. J. Hallifax
Lieut.-General H. F. Cooke
Lieut.-Col. E. M. Proes
L. T. Harris
Sir Albion Rajkumar Banerji
Sir Reginald Glancy
W. R. Gourlay
Lieut.-General Sir Kenneth Wigram, I.A.
Rai Bahadur Dewan Bishan Das
Sir Arthur Rowland Knapp
Charles Montagu King
Rai Bahadur Raja Pandit Hari Kishan Kaul
S. R. Hignell
Major-General S. F. Muspratt
W. E. Copleston
Frederick B. Evans
B. C. Allen
J. E. Webster
Diwan Bahadur Raghunatha Rao Ram Chandra Rao Avargal
Sardar Bahadur Nawab Mebrab Khan, Chief of Bugti Tribe
Sir Godfrey John Vignoles Thomas, Bart.
Capt. Dudley Burton Napier North
Sir Edward M. Cook, K.C.S.
Sir Francis Charles Griffith
Maharaj Shri Fateh Singh
J. Hullah
Sir John F. Campbell
J. Milne
The Hon'ble Sir James Donald
Lt.-Col. Sir W. F. T. O'Connor
E. S. Lloyd
L. F. Morshead
Sir S. A. Smyth
Colonel W. H. Jefferey
C. G. Adam
Diwan Bahadur T. Raghavayya Pantulu Garu
Raja Ejaz Rasul Khan of Jehangirabad
D. H. Lees
H. P. Tollinton
A. W. McNair
F. Noyce
W. Sutherland
Captain Sir E. J. Headlam
S. F. Stewart
Sir D. T. Chadwick
M. E. Couchman
F. G. Pratt
Sir R. Oakden
Major-General Sir T. H. Symons
F. Lewisohn
W. P. Sangster
T. Emerson
A. H. Ley
Sir E. Burdon
A. W. Pim
The Hon'ble Mr. A. W. Botham
L. Birley
N. Macnichael
Sir A. Y. G. Campbell
Lieut.-Col. S. B. A. Patterson.
B. Foley
A. Langley
Lieutenant-Colonel M. L. Ferrar
The Hon'ble Brigadier-General Sir T. H. Keyes.
R. J. S. Dodd.
Major H. G. Vaux.
Sir Leonard Reynolds
H. G. Stokes
Rana Bhagalchand, Raja of Jubbal
J. C. Ker
Sir M. G. Simpson
Lt.-Colonel C. C. E. Bruce
R. T. Harrison
C. T. Mullings.
H. L. Birdwood
J. Ghosal
J. H. Field
W. H. J. Wilkinson-Guillemard.
H. A. Thornton
C. J. Irwin
J. E. C. Jukes.

H. A. B. Vernon.
The Hon'ble Mr. Thomas Couper.
Nawab Malik Hayat Khan Nun.
Kunwar Jagdish Prasad.
H. K. Briscoe.
G. Wiles.
Sir Charles Tegart.
C. Latimer.
J. H. Garrett.
C. B. Cunningham.
T. H. Morony.
Raja Padam Singh, Raja of Bashahr.
L. M. Stubbs.
G. Cunningham.
Col. W. H. Evans.
G. S. Wilson.
Lieut.-Colonel G. D. Ogilvie
J. A. Shillidy, I.C.S.
Robert Duncan Bell
John Tarlton Whitty
Henry George Walton, I.C.S.
Sir George Anderson, Kt.
Colonel John Philip Cameron, I.M.S.
David George Mitchell, I.C.S.
Douglas Gordon Harris.
Brevet-Colonel Frederic Percival Mackie.
The Hon'ble Mr. Idwal Geoffrey Lloyd, I.C.S.
The Hon'ble Mr. Bertrand James Glancy.
The Hon'ble Mr. John Collard Bernard Drake, I.C.S.
Charles William Aldis Turner, I.C.S.
Charles Alexander Souter, I.C.S.
The Hon'ble Mr. John Austen Hubback, I.C.S.
Digby Livingstone Drake-Brockman, I.C.S.
John Arthur Laing Swan, I.C.S.
Arthur Ralph Astbury.
H. A. F. Metcalfe.
H. Calvert.
C. B. Cotterel.
E. C. Melville.
R. M. Makwell.
A. H. Mackenzie.
W. H. Lewis.
A. H. Lloyd.
R. N. Reid.
J. M. Clay.
R. H. Thomas.
R. B. Ewbank.

The Most Eminent Order of the Indian Empire.

This Order, instituted by H. M. Queen Victoria, Empress of India, December 1877, and extended and enlarged in 1886, 1887, 1892, 1897, 1902, 1911, 1915 and 1920 is conferred for services rendered to the Indian Empire, and consists of the Sovereign, a Grand Master, forty Knights Grand Commanders (of whom the Grand Master is first and principal), one hundred and forty Knights Commanders, and an indefinite number of Companions (not exceeding, without special statute, 20 nominations in any one year); also Extra and Honorary Members over and above the vacancies caused by promotion to a higher class of the Order, as well as certain Additional Knights and Companions appointed by special statute Jan. 1st, 1909, commemorative of the 50th Anniversary of the assumption of Crown Govt. in India.

The Insignia are: (*i*) The COLLAR of gold formed of elephants, lotus flowers, peacocks in their pride, and Indian roses, in the centre the Imperial Crown, the whole linked together with chains; (*ii*) The STAR of the Knight Grand Commander, comprised of five rays of silver, having a small ray of gold between each of them, the whole alternately plain and scaled, issuing from a gold centre, having thereon Her Majesty Queen Victoria's Royal Effigy, within a purple circle, edged and lettered gold, inscribed *Imperatricis Auspiciis*, and surmounted by an Imperial Crown gold; (*iii*) The BADGE consisting of a rose, enamelled gules, barbed vert, and having in the centre Her Majesty Queen Victoria's Royal Effigy, within a purple circle, edged and lettered gold, inscribed *Imperatricis Auspiciis*, surmounted by an Imperial Crown, also gold; (*iv*) The MANTLE is of Imperial purple satin, lined with and fastened by a cordon of white silk, with purple silk and gold tassels attached. On the left side a representation of the Star of the Order.

A Knight Commander wears: (*a*) around his neck a ribbon two inches in width, of the same colour (purple) and pattern as a Knight Grand Commander, pendent therefrom a badge of smaller size: (*b*) on his left breast a star, similar to that of the first class, but the rays of which are all of silver.

The above mentioned Insignia are returned at death to the Central Chancery, or if the Knight was resident in India to the Secretary of the Order.

A Companion wears around his neck a badge (not returnable at death) of the same form as appointed for a Knight Commander, but of smaller size, pendent to a like ribbon of the breadth of one and a half inches.

Sovereign of the Order:—His Most Gracious Majesty The King-Emperor of India.

Grand Master of the Order:—H. E. the Viceroy (Viscount Willingdon).

Officers of the Order:—The same as for the Order of the Star of India.

Extra Knight Grand Commanders (G. C. I. E.)

The Duke of Connaught
H. R. H. The Prince of Wales

Honorary Knights Grand Commanders (G. C. I. E.)

H. E. Shaikh Sir Khazal Khan, Shaikh of Mohammerah and Dependencies.
H. H. Imam Sir Abdul Aziz bin Abdur Rahman bin Faisal-al-Saud Sultan of Nejd and Dependencies.
H. H. the Prime Minister of Nepal.

Honorary Knights Commanders (K. C. I. E.)

Sir Leon E. Clement-Thomas
Dr. Sir Sven Von Hedin
Cavaliere Sir Filippo De'Filipip
Honorary Colonel Supradipta Manyabar, General Sir Baber Shumshere Jung Bahadur Rana of Nepal
H. H. Sultan Sir Abdul Karim Fadthli bin Ali Sultan of Lahej
Sir Alfred Martineau
Commanding General Sir Padma Shum Shere Jung Bahadur, Rana of Nepal

Genl. Sir Tej Shum Shere Jung Bahadur, Rana of Nepal

H. E. General Sir Yang-tseng-hsiu, Chiang Chun and Governor of Hsin Kiang Province

General Sir Mohan Shumshere Jung Bahadur Rana of Nepal.

H. H. Saiyid Sir Taimur bin Faisal bin-us-Saiyid Turki, G.S.I., Sultan of Muscat and Oman.

His Highness the Maharaja of Bhutan.

H. E. Shaikh Sir Ahmed Bin Jabiral Sabab, Ruler of Kuweit.

Knights Grand Commanders (G.C.I.E.)

H. H. The Maharao of Cutch
H. H. The Maharaja of Gondal
Lord Ampthill
H. H. The Aga Khan
Lord Lamington
Lt.-General Sir Edmond Elles
Sir Walter Lawrence
H. H. The Maharaja of Bikaner
H. H. The Maharao of Kotah
Maharaja Peshkar Sir Kishan Parshad
Lord Hardinge
Sir Louis Dane
Sir Guy Fleetwood Wilson
H. H. The Maharaja of Patiala
Lord Willingdon
The Yuvaraja of Mysore
Sir Charles Stuart Bayley
H. H. the Maharaja of Jind
The Marquess of Zetland.
Sir Michael Francis O'Dwyer
Sir Gulam Muhammad Ali, Prince of Arcot
Major-General Sir Percy Zachariah Cox
H. H. Tukoji Rao III, ex-Maharaja of Indore
Lord Lloyd.
H. H. The Maharaja of Baroda
H. H. The Maharaja of Alwar
H. H. The Maharaja of Kapurthala
The Marquess of Reading
Lord Lytton
H. H. The Maharaja of Dhrangadhra.
The Right Hon'ble Rowland Thomas Baring, Earl of Cromer, O.M.
Sir William Henry Hoare Vincent.
Sir Harcourt Butler
Sir Reginald Craddock.
Rt. Hon. Sir Leslie Orme Wilson
Maharajadhiraja Sir Bijay Chand Mahtab Bahadur of Burdwan
Viscount Goschen
H. H. The Maharaja of Kolhapur.
Lord Irwin
The Rt. Hon. Sir Francis Stanley Jackson.
H. E. Sir Malcolm Hailey.
H. H. Maharaja Sir Hari Singh of Kashmir
H. E. Sir Frederick Sykes
H. H. the Nawab of Bhopal
Marquess of Linlithgow
H. E. Sir Frederick Stanley
H. H. the Maharajah of Jodhpur
His Highness the Maharaja of Rewa.
His Highness the Maharaja Rana of Dholpur.
His Highness the Nawab of Junagadh.
His Highness the Nawab of Bahawalpur.
His Highness the Maharaja of Ratlam.
His Highness Maharajadhiraja Maharao Sir Sarup Ram Singh Bahadur, Maharao of Sirohi.
Major His Highness Nawab Sir Taley Muhammad Khan, Nawab of Palanpur.
H. E. the Right Hon'ble Sir John Anderson.
H. H. The Maharaja of Datia.
H. E. Sir Geoffrey Fitzhervey De Montmorency.
Sir Atul Chandra Chatterjee.
His Excellency M. H. R., Baron Brabourne.
His Highness the Nawab of Tank.

Knights Commanders (K. C. I. E.)

Ex-Nawab of Loharu
Sir Andrew Wingate
Sir Alexander Cunningham
Sir James George Scott
Sir Frederick Augustus Nicholson
Sir Gangadharrav Ganesh, Chief of Miraj (Senior Branch)
Brevet-Col. Sir Buchanan Scott
Lieut.-Col. Sir Francis Edward Younghusband
Sir Fredric Styles Philpin Lely
Lt.-Col. Sir Arthur Henry McMahon
Dr. Sir Thomas Henry Holland
Sir Trevredyn Rashleigh Wynne
Sir Richard Morris Dane
Sir Theodore Morison
Gen. Sir Robert Irvin Scallon
Sir Archdale Earle
Sir Charles Stewart-Wilson
Gen. Sir Malcolm Henry Stanley Grover
Lieut.-Col. Sir Hugh Daly
Sir Henry Parsall Burt
Sir James Houssemayne DuBoulay
Sir Rajendra Nath Mukharji
Lieut.-Col. Sir Henry Beaufoy Thornhill
H. H. The Nawab of Jaora
H. H. The Raja of Sitamau
H. H. The Raj Saheb of Wankaner
Rear-Adm. Sir Colin Richard Keppel
H. H. The Maharaja of Bijawar
Sir John Twigg
Sir George Abraham Grierson
Dr. Sir Marc Aurel Stein
Dr. Sir Alfred Gibbs Bourne
Sir Frank Campbell Gates
Sir George Macarthey
Sir Edward Douglas Maclagan
Maj.-Gen. Sir George John Younghusband
Sir Brian Egerton
Sir Stephen George Sale
Sir Prabhashankar D. Pattani
Lieut.-Col. Sir John Ramsay
Sir William Maxwell
Sir Mokshagundam Visvesvaraya
His Highness the Maharaja of Samthar
Sir John Stuart Donald
Lieut.-Col. Sir Percy Molesworth Sykes
Sir Edward Vere Levinge
The Hon'ble Raja Sir Rampal Singh of Kuri Sudhauli
The Hon'ble Lt.-Col. Nawab Malik Sir Umar Hayat Khan Tiwana
H. E. Sir Henry Wheeler
Khan Bahadur Nawab Sir Sahibzada Abdul Qaiyum

Lieut.-Gen. Sir Henry D'Urban Keary
Sir George Cunningham Buchanan
Major-Gen. Sir William George Lawrence Beynon
H. H. The Raja of Rajgarh
Maharaja of Sonpur
Sir Alfred Hamilton Grant
Lieut.-Col. Maharaja* Sir Jai Chand, of Lambargaon

Rear-Admiral Sir D. St. A. Wake
Lieut-Gen. Sir Alfred Horsford Bingley
Sir Godfrey Butler Hunter Fell
Lieut.-Gen. Sir Thomas Joseph O'Donnell
Major-Gen. Sir Godfrey Williams
Sir Nicholas Dodd Beatson Bell
Sir William Sinclair Marris
His Highness Mehtar Sir Shuja-ul-Mulk Mehtar of Chitral
Maulvi Sir Rahim Bakhsh
Sir C. E. Low, I.C.S.
H. H. The Maharana of Udaipur
Khan Bahadur Nawab Sir Mir Shams Shah, I.S.O.

Lieut.-Gen. Sir Edward Locke Elliot
Lieut.-Gen. Sir Edward Altham Altham
Lieut.-Gen. Sir Charles Alexander Anderson
Gen. Sir Havelock Hudson
Major-Gen. Sir Wyndham Charles Knight
Major-Gen. Sir Herbert Aveling Raitt
Major-Gen. Sir H. F. E. Freeland
Brevet-Lieut.-Col. Sir Arnold Talbot Wilson
2nd-Lt. Meherban Sir M. V. Raje Ghorpade, Raja of Mudhol

Sir W. Maude, I.C.S.
Sir C. M. Stevenson Moore, I.C.S.
Major-Gen. Sir Willfrid Malleson
Major-Gen. Sir Patrick Hehir
Sir J. G. Cumming
Sir H. J. Maynard
Lieut.-Gen. Sir Andrew Skeen
H. H. The Nawab of Malerkotla
Sir H. R. C. Dobbs
The Thakor Saheb of Limbdi
Sir H. A. Crump

Lt.-Col. Sir A. B. Dew
Nawab Sir Khan-I-Zaman Khan, Nawab of Amb
Raja Sir Muhammad Nazim Khan, Mir of Hunza
Col. Sir W. H. Willcox
H. H. The Maharaja of Panna

Sir P. J. Fagan
Sir Norcot Warren
Raja Sahib Sri Sir Govinda Krishna Yachendrulu-varu of Venkatagiri
Sir C. A. Bell
Maulvi Sir Ahmad Husain Nawab Amin Jang Bahadur
Lieutenant-Colonel Sir T. W. Haig
Sir John Henry Kerr

Vice-Admiral Sir Lionel Halsey
H. H. The Maharaja of Sikkim
H. H. The Raja of Sangli
Sir H. F. Howard
Sir A. R. Knapp
H. E. Sir H. L. Stephenson
Sir R. A. Mant
Sir B. N. Mitra
The Hon'ble Khan Bahadur Nawab Sir Muhammad Muzammil-ullah Khan of Bhikrampur, U. P.

Sir Chimanlal H. Setalvad
Khan Bahadur Sir Muhammad Habibulla Sahib Bahadur
Sir H. McPherson
Sir W. J. Reid
Sir E. M. D. Chamier

Sir R. E. Holland
The Hon'ble Sir M. B. Dadabhoy
Sir G. Rainey
Sir C. P. Ramaswami Ayyar

Sir S. P. O'Donnell
Sir B. P. Standen
Sir Denys Bray
Sir H. N. Bolton

Sir M. V. Joshi
Sir John Thompson
Sir William Barton

Sir Frederick William Johnstone
Sir Cowasji Jehangir (Junior)
Sir Grimwood Mears

Sir Norman Edward Marjoribank
The Hon'ble Lieutenant Sir Muhammad Ahmedan Sa'id Khan of Chhatari, U.P.

Sir Reginald Glancy
Sir Clement Hindley
The Hon'ble Khan Bahadur Mian Sir Fazli Hussain

Sir Thomas Middleton
The Hon'ble Sir Alan Pim
Sir Frederic Gauntlett

The Hon'ble Lt.-Col. Sir B. H. St. John
Sir Alexander M. Stow
The Thakur Saheb of Palitana

The Hon'ble Sir Lancelot Graham
Sir Edwin Lutyens
The Hon'ble Sir Joseph Bhore
Sir Arthur Moberly

Sir Ross Barker
Sir Herbert Baker
Sir Samuel Stewart
Sir Samuel Smyth
Sir Leonard Reynolds
Sir James Sifton

The Hon. Sir Archibald Young Gipps Campbell
Sir Evelyn Berkeley Howell, C.S.I., C.I.E.
Sir Osborne Arkell Smith, Kt.

The Hon'ble Sir Arthur Edward Nelson
Sir Ceal Hermann Kisch

H. H. The Maharawal of Banswara
The Hon'ble Khan Bahadur Sir Usman Sahib Bahadur.

The Hon'ble Brigadier-General Sir Terence Humphrey Keyes.

The Hon'ble Sir Walter Frank Hudson.
The Hon'ble Maj-Genl. Sir John Wallace Dick Megaw.

Maharajadhiraja Sir Kameshwara Singh of Darbhanga.

H. H. the Raja of Ali Rajpur
Sir Shanmukham Chetty
Sir James Alexander Ossory Fitr Patrick

Sir Hopetoun Gabriel Stokes
Sir Alexander Norman Ley Cater
Sir Harry Alexander Fanshawe Lindsay
Sir Vernon Dawson

* Personal: Hereditary title is Raja.

Honorary Companions (C. I. E.)

Laurent Marie Emile Beauchamp
Dr. Jean Etienne Justin Schneider
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Khan Bahadur Mian Muhammed Hayat Khan
Major the Rev. G. D. Barne
J. Evershed
C. A. H. Townsend
E. W. Legh

J. C. Ker
F. F. Bion
P. S. Keelan
Colonel W. M. Coldstream
C. W. Gwynne
R. B. Ewbank
Sir B. L. Dhingra
Srimant Jagdeo Rao Puar
Maulvi Sir Nizam-ud-Din Ahmed
Sardar Sahibzada Sultan Ahmed Khan
P. G. Rogers
C. W. Dunn
R. E. Gibson
Lieut.-Col. G. H. Russell
B. J. Glancy
H. B. Clayton
E. W. P. Sims
Maung Maung Bya
Sardar Bahadur Sheo Narayana Singh
W. T. M. Wright
The Rev. E. M. Macphail
Col. Sir G. R. Hearne
M. E. W. Jones
Major-General R. Heard
U. Mojumdar
P. E. Percival
L. O. Clarke
K. N. Knox
E. Cornan Smith
Major G. C. S. Black
Mirza Sir Mohamed Ismail
J. M. Ewart
Rai Bahadur T. N. Sadhu
B. Venkatapathiraju Garu
F. Clayton
F. Young
Khan Bahadur Sardar Asghar Ali
A. W. Street
R. B. Thakur Mangal Singh
Sir A. R. L. Tottenham
Sir A. A. L. Parsons
F. C. Turner
J. A. L. Swan
H. G. Billson
Colonel C. H. Bensley
T. G. Rutherford
Lieut.-Col. G. D. Ogilvie
Lieut.-Colonel E. C. G. Maddock
F. Anderson
G. Cunningham
Major C. K. Daly
Sir F. C. Crawford
H. Calvert
U. Me
Col. the Revd. W. T. Wright
Rai Bahadur Gyanendra Chandra Ghose
Rai Bahadur Sukhamaya Chaudhuri
Diwan Bahadur T. Rangachariyar
Sir W. L. Travers
Sardar Bahadur Sardar Sir Jawahir Singh
Brevet-Major Sir Hissam-ud-Din Bahadur
Khan Bahadur Sir Shah Nawaz Khan Bhutto
Rao Bahadur D. B. Raghubir Singh
Lieut.-Col. R. P. Wilson
G. R. Thomas
H. Tireman
A. D. Ashdown
T. H. Morony
C. W. Lloyd Jones
H. A. Crouch
W. Gaskell
D. G. Harris
Lieutenant-Colonel C. A. Hingston
R. P. Hadow
Lieut.-Col. Sir W. D. Smiles
J. M. Clay
Lieut.-Col. J. A. Brett
Lieut.-Col. H. R. Lawrence
A. M. MacMillan
Khan Bahadur Qazi Sir Azizuddin Ahmad
Sir Oscar De Glanville
K. B. Sir Behramji Hormasji Nanavati
Surendra Nath Mullick
J. R. D. Glascott
Col. S. H. E. Nicholas
H. A. F. Lindsay
Kashinath Shriram Jatar
Rao Bahadur Sir Vangal Thiruvenkata Krishnama Acharya Avargal
G. Wiles
Sahibzada Abdul Majid Khan
E. R. Foy
B. A. Collins
Sir R. R. Maconachie
P. Hawkins
C. M. King
Sir H. W. Emerson
Sir P. A. Kelly
B. S. Kisch
F. D. Ascoli
Lieut.-Col. B. R. Reilly
H. S. Crosthwaite
Lieut.-Col. R. H. Bot
Sir Jadu Nath Sarkar
P. Hide
F. W. Sudmersen
The Rev. A. E. Brown
Ramaswami Srinivasa Sarma
Sir E. H. Kealy
T. R. S. Venkatarama Sastrigal
M. Irving
H. O. B. Shoubridge
Col. K. V. Kukday
S. W. Goode
A. H. W. Bentinck
H. L. L. Allanson
G. S. Bajpai
W. H. A. Webster
Rai Bahadur H. K. Raha
J. C. B. Drake
Lieut.-Col. T. W. Harley
G. Clarke
Brevet-Col. D. G. Sandeman
H. J. Bhabha
Sardar Mir M. A. Khan
Khwaja Nazim-ud-Din
A. C. Woolner
A. L. Covernton
P. S. Burrell
H. Denning
W. B. Brande
G. W. Hatch
C. U. Wills
H. A. Lane
K. H. Framji
Col. W. H. Evans
G. E. Faweus
F. Armitage
Lieut.-Col. A. C. Tancock

Brevet Lieut.-Col. H. L. Haughton
Lieut.-Col. H. D. Marshall
H. D. G. Law
R. W. Hanson
H. R. Wilkinson
Lieut.-Col J. W. Cornwal
R. D. Anstead
D. Milne
W. Roch
G. K. Devdhar
Chaudhari Sir Chhaju Ram
J. H. R. Fraser
Lt.-Col. J. C. H. Leicester
C. W. C. Carson
J. N. Gupta
G. E. Soames
H. C. Liddell
A. G. Edie
J. B. G. Smith
D. L. Drake-Brockman
D. M. Stewart
R. Littlehailes
J. A. Baker
Lt.-Col. R. W. Macdonald
C. S. Whitworth
A. B. Briggs
Col. L. D. E. Lenfestey
J. E. Armstrong
R. J. Hirst
F. P. V. Gompertz
Lieut.-Col. A. G. Tresidder
Major A. F. R. Lumby
P. L. Orde
Rai Bahadur Janak Singh
Diwan Bahadur T. K. Mehta
H. W. Nicholson
A. G. Clow, I.C.S.
A. H. Lloyd, I.C.S.
A. T. Stowell
His Excellency Sir Clarender Gowan, I.C.S.
Colonel C. C. Palmer
J. Hezlett, I.C.S.
G. T. Boag, I.C.S.
C. W. A. Turner, I.C.S.
Lt.-Col. C. L. Dunn, I.M.S.
A. R. Astbury
J. N. G. Johnson, I.C.S.
Brevet Lieut.-Col. C. E. T. Erskine
Major R. O. Chamier
E. H. Berthoud, I.C.S.
R. A. Horton
W. H. Doshi
D. F. Mulla
Sir G. Morgan
K. B. Chong
F. W. Thomas
Durbar Shri V. M. Surag
G. G. Dey
J. G. Beazley
A. E. Gilliat
R. H. Beckett
T. B. Copeland
F. G. Arnould
C. S. C. Harrison
A. H. Mackenzie
Col. C. P. Gunter
Prof. R. Coupland
W. S. Hopkyns.
Lt.-Col. W. E. C. Bradfield
Lt.-Col. L. Cook
Lt.-Col. G. D. Franklin
Lt.-Col. (Hony. Col.) R. R. Will
Lt.-Col. J. Cunningham
H. A. F. Metcalfe
V. K. A. Aravamudha Ayangar
S. D. Smith
G. E. C. Wakefield
Rai Bahadur Sir Badridas Goenka
Dr. H. G. Roberts
Dr. J. A. Voelcker
C. B. Pooley
T. M. Lyle
Lieut.-Colonel H. S. Strong
G. Macworth Young
H. A. B. Vernon
J. F. Dyer
William Mayes
Lieut.-Colonel C. I. Brierly
J. M. D. Wrench
H. A. R. Delves
N. N. Gangulee
Lieut.-Colonel W. G. Neale
Lieut.-Colonel L. E. L. Burne
J. R. Dain, I.C.S.
F. H. Fearnley Whittingstall
Lieut.-Colonel R. E. Wright
Lieut.-Colonel H. H. Broome
E. F. Gunter
J. A. Madan, I.C.S.
F. W. H. Smith
R. S. Finlow
W. L. Scott
H. T. Holland
G. H. Stoker
D. G. Lal.
Lt.-Col. H. R. N. Pritchard.
Khan Bahadur Kutub-ud-Din Ahmed
Major-General R. W. Anthony
P. C. Tallents
F. A. Hamilton
C. A. Bentley.
J. Coatman
P. W. Marsh.
J. G. Acheson
J. D. V. Hodge
Lt.-Col. A. H. Palin
Major D. Pott
F. J. Playmen
T. A. L. S. O'Connor
F. V. Wylie
Captain H. Morland
J. McGlashan
M. Lea
J. Hormasji
Rai Bahadur Sk. Ghosh
Diwan Bahadur G. N. Chetti Garu
Lt.-Col. R. J. W. Heale
M. B. Cameron
A. N. L. Cater
F. A. Sashsa
M. G. Hallett
A. J. Laine
D. J. Boyd
J. Clague
Col. G. W. Ross
W. S. Jannyavala V. N. Garu
T. Sloan
R. G. Grieve
S. Walker
M. Webb

H. L. Newman
Col. W. V. Coppinger
B. C. Burt
Lt.-Col. A. F. Hamilton
J. L. Sale
W. P. Roberts
Lt.-Col. J. C. More
S. B. Teja Singh Malik
Mian Mohammed Shah Nawaz
R. B. Kesho W. Brahma
K. B. Sardar Hassan Khan Gurchani
S. F. Madden
Major-Genl. G. Tate
G. Kaula
F. B. P. Lory
F. C. Pavry
F. F. R. Channer
Lt.-Col. W. J. Powell
D. G. Mackenzie
R. R. Simpson
G. T. H. Bracken
R. N. Reid
F. H. Puckle
B. R. Rau
G. R. F. Tottenham
E. W. Perry
Lt.-Col. H. R. Dutton
Lt.-Col. H. H. McGann
Lt.-Col. J. J. T. MacKnight
Col. C. H. Haswell
C. W. E. Arbuthnot
Khan Bahadur Shaikh Abdul Aziz
L. Mason
Lieut.-Col. S. P. Williams
R. M. Statham
M. Ratnaswami
R. T. Rusell
G. R. Dain
J. A. Woodhead
G. S. Hardy
W. Booth-Gravely
E. Gordon
W. A. Cosgrave
G. F. S. Collins
A. Cassells
J. A. Sweeney
Captain H. Boyes
Lt.-Col. E. E. Doyle
W. L. Stampe
R. E. L. Wingate
Major H. Wilberforce-Bell
W. H. Lewis
Lt.-Col. J. R. J. Tyrrell
M. L. Pasricha
F. H. Burkitt
F. T. Jones
Lt.-Col. H. W. Acton
Lt.-Col. H. C. Manders
Captain T. W. Rees
C. F. Strickland
Col. G. H. R. Halland
Rai Bahadur S. M. Bapna
G. H. Spencer
B. N. De
F. C. Isemonger
Lt.-Col. I. M. Macrae
H. Bomford
R. H. Williamson
J. Master
A. B. Brown

F. W. Stewart
H. V. Braham
H. R. Uzielli
J. A. Dawson
G. A. Shillidy
G. T. H. Hardinge
Rai Bahadur P. C. Dutta
A. W. W. Mackie
A. C. Badenoch
Khan Bahadur Nawab Muzuffar Khan
H. R. Pate
A. Mc Kerrol
C. A. Malcolm
Lt.-Col. F. C. Shelmerdine
J. A. Thorne
A. Monro
P. C. Bamford
Lt.-Col. F. C. Temple
Lt.-Col. H. C. Garbett
H. Shanka Rau
J. A. Pope
Captain H. A. B. Digby-Beste
H. B. Wetherill
W. S. Fraser
C. G. Chenevix-Trench
L. C. Coleman
Rai Bahadur P. C. Bose
Amir Sheikh Mahmadbhai Abdullabhai
U. Zaw Pe
A. R. Leishman
Muhammad Yamin Khan
C. C. Biswas
J. T. Donovan
H. R. Gould
J. F. Hall
S. T. Hollins
C. T. Brett
B. C. A. Lawther
A. C. J. Bailey
W. N. P. Jenkin
Satish Chandra Gupta
Kenneth Samuel Fitze
The Hon. Mr. Bijay Kumar Basu
Ernest Ferdinand Oppenheim, I.C.S.
Dugald Stuart Burn
Ghazanfar Ali Khan, I.C.S.
Harold Graham, I.C.S.
Frank Burton Leach, I.C.S.
Lieut.-Col. Sherman Gordon Venn Ellis, D.S.O., I.A.
Harold Argyll Watson, I.C.S.
Henry Abraham Gubbay
Alfred Ernest Mathias, I.C.S.
John Pierson Buckeley, I.E.S.
Allan Arbuthnot Lane Roberts, I.C.S.
John William Smyth, I.C.S.
Olaf Kirkpatrick Caroe
Khan Bahadur Jamshedji Bajanji Vachha
Satyendra Nath Roy, I.C.S.
Arthur Beatson Reid, I.C.S.
Thomas James Young Roxburgh, I.C.S.
Lieut.-Col. John Morison, I.M.S.
Theodore James Tasker, I.C.S.
Captain William Arthur Williams
Norman Lindsay Sheldon
Edward Charles Stuart Baker, O.B.E.
Khan Bahadur Saiyid Ahmad Hasan
John Carson Nixon, I.C.S.
Lodhi Karim Hyder.
Gilbert Pitcairn Hogg, I.C.S.
Colonel Neil Charles Bannatyne.

Alma Latifi, O.B.E., I.C.S.
Tom Lister, I.C.S.
Claude Henry Gidney.
Thomas Joseph Alexander Craig.

Robert Daniel Richmond.
Colonel Harry Malcolm Mackenzie, I.M.D.
Colonel Henry Robert Baynes Reed, D.S.O., M.C., I.A.

Edmund James Rowlandson.
Roland Graham Gordon, I.C.S.
John Henry Darwin, I.C.S.
Captain Mathew John Clarke.

Sam Carter Mould.
Gurunath Venkatesh Bewoor.
Lieut.-Col. Walter Edwin Beazley
Hugh Dow, I.C.S.
Khan Bahadur Nabi Baksh Muhammad Husain.
Khan Bahadur Shah Muhammad Yahya.
Dhanjibhai Hormusji Mehta.
Allan Macleod, I.C.S.
Ram Chandra, I.C.S.
Maj.-Genl. William Charles Hughan Forster, I.M.S.
Sao Kine Maung, Sawbwa of Mong Mit State.
James Reid Taylor, I.C.S.

Charles Lyall Philip, I.C.S.
Captain Sher Mohammad Khan.
Edmund Nicolas Blandy, I.C.S.
Noel James Ranghton, I.C.S.

Charles Gerald Tievor.
Colonel John Norman Walker.
Lieut.-Col. Robert Bresford Seymour Sewell.
Lieut.-Col. Arthur Kenry Eyre Mosse.

Lieut.-Col Charles Terence Chichele-Plowden
Edgar Stuart Roffey.
Vivian Augustus Short.
William Duncan MacGregor.

Lieut.-Cd. David Seton Johnston.
Harold Liley Roe.
Hugh George Rawlinson.
John Gordon Cameron Scott.

The Rev. William Herbert Greenland Padfield
Rai Bahadur Pandit Seetta Prasad Bajpai.
Khan Bahadur Hafiz Hidayat Husain.
Rai Bahadur Abinash Chandra Banarji.
David Keith Cunnison.

Thakor Saheb Shri Madar Sinhji Vakhatsinhji
Lt.-Cd. J. L. R. Weir
E. C. Jibson
N. N. Anklesaria
W. P. Brett
C. St. Leger Teyen

Col R. H. Anderson
J. E. Adam
H. P. Thomas
T. P. M. O'Callaghan
J. Davidson
Captain L. C. E. Crabbe
Lt.-Col. J. McPherson
J de Graaff Hunter
D. H. C. Drake
A. G. Leach.
D. B. Meek.
Lt.-Col. H. F. E. Childers.
Lt.-Col. E. J. D. Colvin.
R. S. Pursell.
Lt.-Col. W. L. Harnett.
Khan Bahadur K. J. Petigara
A. M. Green

J. N. Duggan
A. J. Leech
H. M. Shircore.
A. S. Hands.

Captain T. I. Stevenson.
A. J. Raisman
J. A. Stewart
K. L. B. Hamilton
H. J. Twynam

J. Prasad
Col. G. A. Hare
B. N. Rau
L. H. Greg.
J. R. T. Booth

C. C. Chitham
L. H. Colson
R. E. Russell
N. Fitzmaurice

A. C. Lothian
Major G. L. Betham
Rai Bahadur Diwan G. Nath
Major W. P. Hay
C. E. S. Fairweather
Lt.-Col. A. D. Stewart
Lt.-Col. R. N. Chopra

Major R. T. Lawrence
K. G. Mitchell
W. D. Croft
Khan Bahadur M. N. Mehta
Khan Bahadur Shaikh Wahid-uddin

The Imperial Order of the Crown of India.

This Order was instituted Jan. 1, 1878, and for a like purpose with the simultaneously created Order of the Indian Empire. It consists of the Queen and Queen Mother with some Royal Princesses, and the female relatives of Indian Princes or of persons who have held conspicuous offices in connection with India. Badge, the Royal Cypher in jewels within an oval surmounted by an Heraldic Crown and attached to a bow of light blue watered ribbon, edged white. Designation, the letters C. I.

Sovereign of the Order.

THE KING-EMPEROR OF INDIA.

Ladies of the Order (C. I.)

Her Majesty The Queen
H. M. the Queen of Norway
H. R. H. the Princess Victoria
H. M. The Queen of Roumania
H. R. H. the Princess Beatrice
H. R. H. the Princess Louise (Duchess of Argyll)
H. I. and R. H. Grand Duchess the Cyril
Lady Patricia Ramsay
H. H. the Princess Marie-Louise
Baroness Kinloss
Lady Jane Emma Crichton
Dowager Countess of Lytton
Dowager Marchioness of Dufferin and Ava
Marchioness of Lansdowne
Constance Mary Baroness Wenlock
H. H. Maharani Sahib Chimna Bai Gaekwar
H. H. Rani Sahib of Gondal
H. H. the Dowager Maharani of Mysore
Lady George Hamilton

H. H. the Maharani Sahiba of Udaipur
Alice, Baroness Northcote
Amelia Maria, Lady White
Baroness Ampthill
Countess of Minto
Marchioness of Crewa
France Charlotte, Lady Chelmsford
The Lady Willingdon
The Lady Irwin
Countess of Lytton
Viscountess Goschen
Lady Birdwood
Lady Ali Shah.

Distinctive Badges.—An announcement was made at the Coronation Durbar in 1911, that a distinctive badge should be granted to present holders and future recipients of the titles of 'Diwan Bahadur', 'Sardar Bahadur', 'Khan Bahadur', 'Rai Bahadur', 'Rao Bahadur', 'Khan Sahib', 'Rai Sahib' and 'Rao Sahib'. Subsequently the following regulations in respect of these decorations were issued:—(1) The decoration to be worn by the holders of the titles above mentioned shall be a badge or medallion bearing the King's effigy crowned and the name of the title, both to be executed on a plaque or shield surrounded by a five-pointed star surmounted by the Imperial Crown, the plaque or shield being of silver gilt for the titles of Diwan, Sardar, Khan, Rai and Rao Bahadur, and of silver for the titles of Khan, Rai, and Rao Sahib. (2) The badge shall be worn suspended round the neck by a ribbon of one inch and a half in width, which for the titles of Diwan and Sardar Bahadur shall be light blue with a dark blue border, for the titles of Khan, Rai and Rao Bahadur light red with a dark red border, and for the titles of Khan, Rai and Rao Sahib dark blue with light blue border.

A Press Note issued in November, 1914, states:—The Government of India have recently had under consideration the question of the position in which **miniatures** of Indian titles should be worn, and have decided that they should be worn on the left breast fastened by a brooch, and not suspended round the neck by a ribbon as prescribed in the case of the badge itself. When the miniatures are worn in conjunction with other decorations, they should be placed immediately after the Kaiser-i-Hind Medal.

Indian Distinguished Service Medal.—This medal was instituted on June 28th, 1907, by an Army Order published in Simla as a reward for both commissioned and non-commissioned officers of the regular and other forces in India. It bears on the obverse the bust of King Edward VII, and on the reverse a laurel wreath encircling the words For Distinguished Service. The medal, 1⅝ inches in diameter, is ordered to be worn immediately to the right of all war medals suspended by a red ribbon 1¼ in. wide, with blue edges ¼ in. wide. This medal may be conferred by the Viceroy of India.

Indian Order of Merit.—This reward of valour was instituted by the H. E. I. Co. in 1837, to reward personal bravery without any reference to length of service or good conduct. It is divided into three classes and is awarded to native officers and men for distinguished conduct in the field. On the advancement from one class to another the star is surrendered to the Government, and the superior class substituted, but in the event of the death of the recipient his relatives retain the decoration. The order carries with it an increase of one-third in the pay of the recipient, and in the event of his death the allowance is continued to his widow for three years. The First Class consists of a star of eight points, 1⅝ in. in diameter, having in the centre a ground of dark-blue enamel bearing crossed swords in gold, within a gold circle, and the inscription Reward of Valour, the whole being surmounted by two wreaths of laurel in gold. The Second Class star is of silver, with the wreaths of laurel in gold; and the Third Class entirely of silver. The decoration is suspended from a simple loop and bar from a dark-blue ribbon 1¼ in. in width with red edges, bearing a gold or silver buckle according to class.

Order of British India.—This order was instituted at the same time as the Order of Merit, to reward native commissioned officers for long and faithful service in the Indian Army. Since 1878, however, any person European or native, holding a commission in a native regiment, became eligible for admission to the Order without reference to creed or colour. The First Class consists of a gold eight-pointed radiated star 1½ in. in diameter. The centre is occupied by a lion statant gardant upon a ground of light-blue enamel, within a dark-blue band inscribed Order of British India, and encircled by two laurel wreaths of gold. A gold loop and ring are attached to the crown for suspension from a broad ornamental band ⅞ in. in diameter, through which the ribbon, once blue, now red, is passed for suspension from the neck. The Second Class is 1⅞ in. in diameter with dark-blue enamelled centre: there is no crown on this class, and the suspender is formed of an ornamental gold loop. The reverse is plain in both classes. The First Class carries with it the title Sirdar Bahadur, and an additional allowance of two rupees a day and the Second the title of Bahadur, and an extra allowance of one rupee per day.

Indian Meritorious Service Medal—This was instituted on July 27th, 1888, and on receipt of the medal the order states "a non-commissioned officer must surrender his Long Service and Good Conduct medal": but on being promoted to a commission he may retain the M. S. medal, but the annuity attached to it will cease. On the obverse is the diademed bust of Queen Victoria facing left, with a veil falling over the crown behind, encircled by the legend Victoria Kaisar-i-Hind. On the reverse is a wreath of lotus leaves enclosing a wreath of palm tied at the base, having a star beneath, between the two wreaths is the inscription for meritorious service. Within the palm wreath is the word India. The medal, 1⅝ in. in diameter, is suspended from a scroll by means of a red ribbon 1¼ in. wide. The medals issued during the reigns of Queen Victoria's successors bear on the obverse their bust in profile with the legend altered to EDWARDVS or GEORGIVS.

THE KAISAR-I-HIND MEDAL.

This decoration was instituted in 1900, the preamble to the Royal Warrant—which was amended in 1901 and 1912—being as follows:—"Whereas We, taking into Our Royal consideration that there do not exist adequate means whereby We can reward important and useful services rendered to Us in Our Indian Empire in the advancement of the public interests of Our said Empire, and taking also into consideration the expediency of distinguishing such services by some mark of Our Royal favour: Now for the purpose of attaining an end so desirable as that of thus distinguishing such services aforesaid, We have instituted and created, and by these presents for Us, Our Heirs, and Successors, do institute and create a new Decoration." The decoration is styled "The Kaisar-i-Hind Medal for Public Service in India" and consists of two classes. The Medal is an oval-shaped Badge or Decoration—in gold for the First Class and in silver for the Second Class—with the Royal Cypher on one side and on the reverse the words "Kaisar-i-Hind for Public Service in India"; it is suspended on the left breast by a dark blue ribbon.

Recipients of the 1st Class.

Abdul Qaiyum, Khan Bhadur Nawab Sir Sahibzada, K.C.I.E., M.L.A.
Abdus Samad Khan of Rampur
Advani, M. S.
Aiyar, Mrs. Parvati Ammal Chandra Sekhara.
Ajaigarh, Her Highness the Dowager Maharani of Kamal Kunwar
Alexander, A. L.
Allen, The Revd. J. H.
Allyn, Dr. (Miss) Jessie Matilda, M.D.
Aloysia, Rev. Mother Mary
Amarchand, Rao Bahadur Ramnarayan
Amar Nath
Ampthill, Margaret, Baroness
Anderson, I. R.
Anderson, The Rev. H.
Arbuthnot, Miss Margaret Georgina
Archer, George Barnes
Ashton, Albert Frederick
Ashton, Dr. R. J.
Baird-Smith, J. R.
Balfour, Dr. Ida
Bandorawalla, N. M.
Banks, Mrs. A. E.
Barber, Benjamin Russell
Barber, Rev. L.
Bardsley, Deaconess J. B.
Bare, Doctor Esther Gimson, M.D.
Barnes, Major Ernest
Barton, Lady Evelyn Agnes
Bawden, Rev. S. D.
Beadon, Mrs. Mary O'Brien.
Beals, Dr. L. H.
Bear, Mrs. Georgiana Mary
Beaty, Francis Montagu Algernon
Beck, Miss Emma Josephine
Beckett, Miss G.
Bell, Lt.-Col. Charles Thornhill
Benson, Doctor (Miss) A. M.
Benson, Lady
Bentley, Dr. Charles Albert
Bestall, Rev. A. H.
Bhandari, Rai Bahadur Captain R. R. M.
Bhore, Lady M. W.
Bikaner, Maharaja of
Bingley, Major-General Sir Alfred
Birkmyre, Lady A.
Bisset, Miss M. R.
Blanche Annie, Sister
Blowers, Commissioner Arthur Robert
Bonington, Max Carl Christian
Booth-Tucker, Frederick St. George de Lautour
Bose, Rai Bahadur Sir Bipin Krishna.
Bott, Lieut.-Col. R. H.
Brahmachari, Rai Bahadur U. N.
Bramley, Percy Brooke
Bray, Sir Denys DeSaumarez
Brayne, Mrs. I. G.
Broadway, Alexander
Brown, Rev. A. E.
Brown, Dr. Miss E.
Brown, Rev. W. E. W.
Bruce, Mrs. B. M. I.
Brunton, James Forest
Buchanan, Rev. John
Bunbury, Evelyn James, Bombay
Bull, Henry Martin
Burn, Sir Richard
Burnett, General Sir Charles John
Burton, Miss A. I.
Buttler, Lady Ann Gertrude
Caleb, Dr. C. C.
Calnan, Denis
Campbell, Colonel Sir Robert Neil
Campbell, Dr. Miss S.
Campion, John Montriou
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Carmichael, Lady
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Carter, Edward Clark
Cassels, Mrs. Sylvia
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Chand, Sakhi, Rai Bahadur
Chand, Rai Bahadur Lala Tara
Chandrasekhara Ayyar, M. R. Ry., P. S. A.
Chapman, R. A. B.
Chatterton, The Rt. Rev. Eyre, D.D.
Chatterton, Sir Alfred
Chatterton, Mrs. L.
Chaudhuri, Raja Sarat Chandra Ray
Chattiyar, M. C. S.
Chetty, Dewan Bahadur Sir K. P. Puttanna
Chitnavis, Sir Shankar Madho
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Chute, Mrs.
Coldstream, William
Comley, Mrs. Alice
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Coppel, Right Rev. Bishop Francis Stephen
Corbett, Capt. J. E. (Retd.)
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Cox, Arthur Frederick

Crawford, Francis Colomb
Creighton, Deaconess Beatrice.
Crosthwaite, The Rev. C. A.
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Cullen, Mrs. E. J.
Dane, Lady
Darbyshire, Miss Ruth
Das, Ram Saran
Das, Sri Gadadhar Ramanuj
Das, Rai Bahadur Lala Mathra (with gold bar)
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Davies, Rev. Can. A. W.
Davis, Caleb
Davies, Mrs. Edwin
Davis, The Rev. C.
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deLotbiniere, Lieutenant-Colonel Alain C. Joly
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Dhar, Her Highness the Rani Sahiba Luxmiba
Puar of
Dhingra, Dr. Behari Lal
Dobson, Mrs. Margaret
Dodson, Miss E. I.
Douglas, Dr. E.
Drysdale, Rev. J. A.
DuBern, Amedee George
DuBern, Jules Emile
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Fatina Sidika, Begum Saheba
Ferard, Mrs. Ida Margaret
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Frances, Sister Dorothy
Francis, Edward Belcham
Franklin, Miss H. M.
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Glazebrook, N. S.
Glenn, Henry James Heamey
Goheen, Mr. R. H. K.
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Gordon, The Rev. D. R.
Goschen, Viscountess
Gould, Miss Hilda
Graham, Miss A. S.
Graham, The Rev. John Anderson
Grattan, Colonel Henry William
Greenfield, Miss C. R.
Gregory, Brother
Griffin, Miss E.
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Haig, Lieutenant-Colonel Patrick Balfour
Hall, Harold Fielding Patrick
Hamilton, Lieut.-Col. Robert Edward Archibald.
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Harvest, Lieut.-Colonel Herbert de Vere
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Hutchinson, Lieut.-Col. William Gordon
Hutchinson, Sir Sydney Hutton Cooper
Hutchison, J.
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Ives, Harry William Maclean
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Jackson, Lady Kathleen Anna Dorothy.
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James, Lieutenant-Colonel Charles Henry
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Khan, Khan Bahadur Moghal Baz
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Nicholson, Sir Frederick Augustur
Nisbet, John
Noyce, William Florey
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Oakley, F. H.
O'Byrne, Gerald John Evangelist
O'Donnell, Doctor J. P.
O'Donnel, Dr. Thomas Joseph
Oh, Maung Ba *(atias)* Ahmedullah
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O'Meara, Major Eugene John
Padfield, The Rev. W. H. G.
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Paranjpye, Dr. Raghunath Parshottam
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Ramamurti Pantulu Garu, Rao Sahib.
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Reid, R. N.
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Rost, Lt.-Col. Ernest Reinhold
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Roy, Babu Harendra Lal
Ruddle, Mrs. M. I.
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Samthar, Maharaja of
Sangli, Her Highness Rani Sahib of
Sanjiva Rao, Mrs. Padma Bai
Sarabhai Ambalal
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Scott, Rev. W.
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Scudder, Miss Ida
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Sellos, Rev. Father Auguste
Semple, Lieut.-Colonel Sir David
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Sharpe, Rev. E. D.
Sharpe, Walter Samuel
Sheard, E.
Sheppard, Mrs. Adeline B.
Sheppard, William Didsbury
Sherratt, The Rev. W.
Shillidy The Rev. John

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Shoubridge, Lieut.-Col. C. A. G.
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Singh, Raja Bhagwan Bakhsh
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Vaughan, Lieut.-Colonel Joseph Charles Stoelke
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Whitley, Rt. Hon. John Henry
Wilkinson, Lieut.-Colonel Edmund
Willingdon, The Lady
Wilson-Johnston, Joseph
Wilson, Lady
Winter, Edgar Francis Latimer
Wood, Arthur Robert
Woodard, Miss A.
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Younghusband, Lieut.-Col. Sir Francis Edw

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Achariyar, C. R. V.
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Alfred, Miss A.
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Ali Shabash Khan Sahib Shaikh
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Allen, Miss Maud
Amar Nath, Lala
Amar Singh
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Anestesie, Sister
Anderson, Miss Emma Deane
Anstie-Smith, Rev. G.
Antia, Jamshedji Merwanji
Antia, J. D.
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Atkinson, Lady Constance
Atkinson, Mrs. Ada.
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Augustin, The Rev. Father
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Avargal, M.R.Ry. Tanjore Ekambaram Pillai
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Ba, San
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Baker, Honorary Major Thomas
Bacon, Miss Edna Gertrude, Bareilly.
Bala Krishna Shetty, M.R.Ry. A.
Balbhadra Dass Mirhoutra
Ball, Miss Marguerite Dorothy
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Bapat, Risaldar Sadashiva Krishna
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Beatson-Bell, The Rev. Sir Nicholas Dodd, K.C.S.I., K.C.I.E.
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Bennett, The Rev. J. G.
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Bhagwandas, Bai Zaoerbai
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Cecilia, Sister Fannie
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Chakravarti, Rai Bahadur Birendra Nath
Chakravarti, Mr. G. K.
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Chatterjee, Mrs. Onila Bala
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Chitale, Ganesh Krishna
Chogmal, Karnidhan
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Connor, W. A.
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Coombes, Josiah Waters
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Cutting, Rev. William
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Dadabhoy, Lady Jerbanoo
DaGama, Accacio
D'Albuquerque, Cajetaninho Francis
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Das, Niranjan
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Dass, Malik Narain
Dastoor, P. S.
Datta, Dr. Dina Nath Pritha
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Davies, Miss Harriet
Davis, Miss B. E.
Davis, Miss M. K.

Dawson, Alexander Thomas
Dawson, Mrs. Charles Hutton
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De Penning, Capt. H. F.
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Dockrell, Major Morgan
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Drake, Miss Joan
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Dun, Miss L. E.
Dunk, Mrs. M. R.
Durjan Singh, Rao Bahadur
Dutta, Mehta Harnam
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Eastley, Mrs. Esme
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Edward, R.
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Ennis, Miss E. J.
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Ghose, Babu J. N.
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Ghulam Murtaza Bhutto, Shah Nawaz
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lapur, Bellary
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Gowardhandas, Chatrabhuj
Govind Lal, Lala
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Grant, Dr. Lilian Wemyss (also bar.)
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Gray, Commissary William David
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Greenway, Mr. A. L.
Greenwood, D. A.
Greg, L. H.
Griessen, Albert Edward Pierre
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Gune, Trimbak Raghunath
Gyi, U. Maung
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Harris, A. R.
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Hayes, Captain P.
Hayness, A. G.
Hedinger, Charles George
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Hicks, Rev. G. E.

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Higgins, Andrew Frank
Hill, Elliott
Hodge, Rev. J. Z.
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Hogg, Harry William
Hogg, Miss B. K.
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Jackson, Mrs. K.
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Jivanandan
Joglekar, Rao Bahadur Ganesh Venkatesh
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Johnston, Augustus Frederick
Johnstone, Mrs. Edith Alma
Johnstone, Mrs. Rosalie
Jones, Mrs. V. R. B.
Jones, Rev. D. E.
Jones, The Rev. John Peter
Jones, The Rev. Robert
Jones, The Rev. John Pengwern
Jones, Mrs. A. V.
Joshee, D. L.
Joshi, Rai Bahadur K. D.
Joshi, Narayan Malhar
Joshi, Trimbak Waman
Joti Prasad, Lala
Joti Ram
Joyce, Mrs. E. L.
Judd. C. R.
Jugaldas, M.
Jung, Sher, Khan Bahadur
Jwala Prasad, Mrs.
Kaji Hiralal Lallubhai
Kalubava, Azam Kesarkahn
Kanoo, Yasuf
Kanga, Mrs.
Kapadia, M. K.
Kapadia, Miss Motibai
Karanjia, Mr. B. N.
Karve, Dhondo Keshav
Kelavkar, Miss Krishnabai
Kelly, Claude Cyril
Kelly, Miss Eleanor Sarah
Kemp, V. N., The Rev.
Ker, Thomas
Khamliena Sailo
Khan, Hon. Lieut-Nawab Jamshed Ali
Khan, Mrs.
Khan, Mrs. Gracie.
Kharshedji, Miss S. N.
Khujoorina, Nadirshah Nowrojee
Kidar Nath, Lala
Kidar Nath
King, Miss Elsie
King, Rev. Dr. R. A.
King, Robert Stewart (also bar)
Kirloskar, Lakshman Kashinath also bar
Kitchin, The Revd. J.
Kitchin, Mrs. M.
Klein, C. H.
Knight, H. W
Knollys, Lieut.-Col. Robert Walter Edmond
Knox, Major Robert Welland
Kothari, S. P.
Kreyer, Lieut.-Colone, Frederick August Christian
Krishman, Rao Bahadur Kottayi
Krishnaswami Ayyar, Diwan Bahadur A.
Krishnaswami Chetty, M.R. Ry. C. V.
Krishnaswami Chetty, Mrs. C.
Kugler, Miss Anna Sarah (also bar)
Kumaran, P. L.
Kyaw, U. Po.
Lajja Ram
Lal, Miss Grace Sohan
Lala Jai Deva.
Lamb, Dr. J.
Lambourn, G. E.
Lang, John
Langhorne, Frederick James
Lankester, Dr. Arthur Colborne
Latham, Miss J. L.
Lawrence, Captain Henry Rundle
Lawrence, Sir Henry Staveley
Lear, A. M.
Leslie Leycester Hudson
Levi, Miss S. E.
Lilawati, Miss
Linforth, Miss I.
Little, Mr. M.
Lloyd, Miss Elizabeth
Lloyd, Mrs. E. M.
Lobo, Miss Ursula Marie
Locke, Robert Henry
Lodi, Khan Bahadur Bakhir Muhi-ud Din Khan
Longhurst, Miss H. G.
Lorimer, Mrs.
Lovrain, Rev. J. H.
Low, Sir Charles Ernest
Luce, Miss L. E.
Luce, Mrs. Tu Tee.
Luck, Miss Florence Ada
Lund, George
Lundin, Sister M. I.
MacAlister, The Rev. G.
MacArthur, Miss V. E.
MacFarlane, Miss E. M.
Mackay, Rev. J. S.
Mackenzie, Alexander McGregor

Mackenzie, Howard
Mackenzie, Miss Mina
MacKenna, Lady Esther Florence
MacKinnon, Miss Grace
Macleod, Lieut.-Colonel John Norman
MacKellar, Dr. Margaret
MacMarquis, J.
MacNair, Mrs. M.
Macknee, H. C.
Macaulay, Miss Eliza Jane, Ahmedabad
Macphail, Miss Alexandrina Matilda (also bar)
Macphail, The Rev. James Merry
Macrae, The Rev. Alexander
Madan, Mr. Rustamji Hormasji
Maddox, Lieut.-Colonel Ralph Hanry
Madeleine, Sister Mary, Cuddalore
Madeley, Mrs. E. M.
Mahommed Allanur Khan
Maiden, J. W.
Mankar, K. S.
Manubai Bapat, Mrs.
Maracan, Esmail Kadir
Margaret Mary, Sister
Marker, Mrs. Arabai Ardashir.
Marler, The Rev. Frederick Lionel
Marshall, W. J.
Mary, Mother A.
Mary of St. Vincent, Sister
Mary, Sister Eleanor
Marzban, Phirozshah Jehangir, J.P.
Masani, Rustam Pestonji
Mathias, P. F.
Maung Maung
Maung, U. Ba.
McCarthy, Lady
McCowen, Oliver Hill
McDonald, Joseph James
McElderry, Miss S. L.
McGuire, Hugh William
McIlwrick, Leslie
Mckee, Rev. William John
McKenzie, Miss Alice Learmouth
McMaster, Dr. Elizabeth, M.D.
McNeil, Miss W. H.
McRobbie, Miss S. L.
Mead, Rev. Cecil Silas
Mederlet, Rev. Father E.
Mehta, Mrs. Homia, M.B.E.
Mehta, Khan Saheb M. N.
Mehta, Vaikuntrai Lallubhai
Menesse, N. H.
Meyer, E.
Mill, Miss C. R.
Miller, Capt. L. G.
Minniken, Mrs. V. W.
Mirikar, Narayanrao Yeshwant
Misra, Miss Sundri Singh
Mitchelson, Miss
Mitra, Mrs. Dora
Modi, D. N.
Mody, S. R.
Mohammed Mhan
Mon, U.
Moore, Dr. Albert Ernest
Moore, Mother T
Moore, Nursing Sister Dora Louisa Truslove
Moore, Miss Eleanor Louisa
Moorehouse, Rev. H. A. D.
Mordecai, T.
Morrison, Miss M. H.
Motilal, Seth of Piparia
Mott, J.
Mount, Captain Alan Henry
Moxon, Miss Lais
Mozumdar, Jadu Nath
Mudaliar, Rao Sahib Conjeevaram Manickn
Mugaseth, Dr. K. D.
Muhammad, Khan Bahadur Shaikh K.
Mukharji, Babu Jogendra Nath
Mukerji, Babu Hari Mohan
Mukerji, Rai Sahib A. K.
Muller, Miss Jenny
Murphy, Edwin Joseph
Mya, U. Po.
Myres, Miss J. L.
Nag, Mrs. Sasi Mukhi
Naimullah, Mohamed
Nand Lal
Naoum Abbo
Napier, Alan Bertram
Narain, Har
Narayan Canaji Rao, Rao Saheb
Narayanjee Laljee
Narayanaswami Chetty, D.B.G.
Narayan Singh, Rai Sahib
Nariman, Khan Bahadur Manekji Kharsedji
Navalkar, Miss Ruby
Nasrulla Khan, Mirza
Naylor, Miss N. F.
Nayudu, Rao Sahib Gudalore Ranganayakulu
Neill, Rev. C.
Newman, Miss Elizabeth Mary
Nicholson, Rev.
Noble, Dr. W. A.
Noemi, Rev. Mother
Norris, Miss Margaret
Noyes, Mrs. V. M. E.
Oakley, Mrs. Winfred Nelly Vale
O'Brien, Lieut.-Colonel Edward
O'Conor, Brian Edward
Ogilvie, Miss L.
O'Hara, Miss Margaret
Old, Frank Shepherd
Oldreive, Rev. F.
Orman, Honorary Captain Charles Henry
Orr, Adolphe Ernest
Orr, James Peter
Orr, Mrs. Amy
O'Sullivan, Miss E.
Outram. The Rev. A.
Owen, Mr. C.
Owen, Major Robert James
Owens, Miss Bertha
Pal, Babu Barada Sundar
Palin, Lieut.-Col. Randle Harry
Parchure, Mrs. Umabai.
Park, The Rev. George W.
Parker, Miss Ada Emma (also Bar)
Parker, Dr. (Miss) H. E.
Parker, Mrs. R. J.
Parsons, Ronald
Patch, Miss K.
Patel, Khan Bahadur Barjorji Dorabji, C.I.E.
Patel, K. G.
Paterson, Miss Rachel
Patrick, Sister
Pearce, Miss G. A.
Pearce, Miss M. M.
Pearce, W. R.
Pearson, E. A.
Penn, The Rev. W. C.

Penner, Rev. Peter Abraham
Petigara, R. J.
Pettigrew, The Rev. William
Pha Htaw, Mrs. Ma Ma Prue.
Phadke, V. K.
Phailbus, Miss Rose Margaret (also Bar)
Phelps, The Revd. A. C.
Phelps, Mrs. Maude Marion
Philip, Mrs. A. J.
Pierce, Miss Ada Louise
Piggott, Miss R.
Piggott, C. W. O'M.
Pillay, Chinnappa Singaravaul
Pim, Mrs. Ranee
Pinney, Major John Charles Digby
Pinto, J. L.
Pinto, Miss Preciosa
Pitamberdas, Laxmidas
Pittar, D. A.
Plowden, Lt.-Col. Trevor Chichele
Pollete-Roberts, Miss Adelaide
Pope, Mrs. Judith Chevallier
Popen, Sister Lilian Victoria
Porter, Miss E.
Posnett, Miss E.
Powell, John
Prabhu, Anantrao Raghunath
Prahraj, Gopal Chandra.
Prance, Miss G.
Prasad, Capt. Tulsi, of Nepal
Prasad, Ishwari
Pribhdas Shevakram
Price, The Rev. Eustace Dickinson
Prideaux, Frank Winckworth Austice
Provost, Father F.
Pugh, Mrs. E. E.
Purshotamdas Thakurdas
Quinn, Miss A. M.
Rahim, Abdul, Pirzada Saiyid Sardar.
Rahman, Mrs. Z. A.
Rahmat Bibi
Rai, Babu Ram Kinkar
Raj Narayan, Rai Bahadur.
Rait, Miss Helen Anna Macdonald
Rajadnya, R. N.
Ram, Lala Diyali
Ram Lala Kanshi
Ram, Rai Bahadur Raizada
Ramaswami, Rao Saheb Colattur
Ramanbhai, Mrs. Vidhyagauri, M.B.E.
Ramgopal, Mallani, Seth
Rangaswami Brahuspathi, Dr.
Ranjit Singh
Rankine, Miss S. J.
Raphael, Raphael Abraham
Rattan Chand
Ratanji Dinshah Dalal
Rattansi Mulji
Raushan Lal
Ray, Babu Sarat Chandra
Ray, Harendra Nath
Rebeiro, Louis John Alfred
Rebello, F.A.C.
Reed, Lady
Reid, The Rev. James Potter
Reese, The Rev. Thomas Willoughby (also Bar)
Rechards, Mrs. H. F.
Richardson, Mrs. Catherine Stuart
Rieu, Rev. Father Peter John
Rivenburg, The Rev. Dr.
Robarts, Major Charles Stuart Hamilton
Roberts, Mrs. H.
Roberts, The Rev.
Roberts, The Rev. J. W.
Robertson, Miss M.
Robilliard, H.
Robinson, Lieut.-Colonel William Henry Banner
Robson, J.
Rocke, Captain Cyril E. A. Spencer
Roe, Colonel Cyril Harcourt
Roe, Mrs. Edith Mary
Rokade, Mrs. Janabai
Roseveare, Miss Eva Mary
Rose, Miss Maude
Ross, F. W.
Rukhmabai, Dr. Miss (also Bar).
Rulach, Rev. George Bernard
Rushforth, Mrs. W.
Rustomji Faridoonji
Rutherford, Miss Mary Elizabeth
Sabawala, Mrs. Bapsy
Sackett, Mrs. E.
Sadiq, Shams-ud-din
Sadlier, A. W. Woodward
Sage, Miss M. D.
Sahai, Ram (also Bar).
Sahan Ram Kali
Sahay, Lala Deonath
Sahervala, Khan Sahib Ismailji Abdul Hussain
Salamattulah, Capt. Mohammad
Salkield, Tom
Samuels, Joseph
Savidge, Rev. Frederick William
Saw Ba La
Sawhney, Lala-Isher Das
Schultze, The Rev. Frederick Volkomor Paul
Scott, Dr. D. M. (also Bar).
Scotland, Lieut.-Colonel David Wilson
Sen, Dr. P. C.
Sethna, Dr. K. S.
Shahi Babu Lal Behar
Shah, Mohamed Kama.
Shah, Mohammad Nawaz
Shah, Reverend Ahmad
Shamnath, Rai Bahadur (also Bar).
Sharifa Hamid Abdul Ali, Mrs.
Sharpe, Miss P. E.
Shaw, Mrs. Hawthorne
Shripad Krishna Belvalkar.
Shroff, Dr. E. D.
Shunker, Cicil Percival Vancontre
Shyam Rikh, Raja Francis Xavier
Shyama Charan Bhattacharji, Rai Bahadur.
Siddens, Mrs.
Simcox, Arthur Henry Addenbrooke
Simkins, Charles Wylkins
Simon, Miss M.
Simonsen, J. L.
Simpson, Mrs.
Sims, Mrs. A.
Sinclair, Reginald Leahy
Singh, Kanwar Ghamandi
Singh, Apji Dnul
Singh, Babu Kesho
Singh, Babu Ramdhari
Singh, Bhai Ganga
Singh, Bhai Lehua
Singh, Bhai Takhut
Singh, Makkhan
Singh, Rev. P L.
Singh, Rai Bahadur Sundar

Singh, Kukhmina
Singh, Risaldar Major, Hanmant
Singh, Sardar Gurdit
Singh, G. Sher
Singh, Sohan
Singhe, Miss L. N. V.
Sisingi, J.
Skrine, Mrs. D. F.
Small, Miss J. M.
Smith, Miss Ellen
Smith, The Rev. Frederick William Ambery
Smith, Miss Katherine Mabel
Smith, Miss Jessie Edith
Solomon, Dr. Jacob
Somervell, T. W.
Sommerville, The Rev. Dr. James
Sorabji, Miss S.
Spencer, Lady E. M.
Spurgin, Mrs. Francis Clare
Sri Ram Kunwar
Srivastava, R. S.
Stanley, Mrs. S. A.
Starte, Oliver Harold Baptist
Steel, Alexander
Steele, The Rev. John Ferguson
Stephens, John Hewitt
Stephens, Mrs. Grace
Stevens, Miss L. K.
Stevens, Mrs. (Ethel)
Stevenson, Surgeon-General Henry Wickham
Stewart, Miss E. F.
Stewart, Major Hugh
Stewart, Mrs. Lilian Dorothea
Stewart, Thomas
Stillwell, Dr. (Miss) Effie, M.D.
St. Gregory, Rev. Mother
St. Joseph, J. D.
Stockings, The Rev. H. M.
Strip, Samuel Algernon
Stuart, Dr. (Miss) Gertrude
Subbu Lakshmi Ammal, Rishiyar Subrahmanya Ayyar.
Sundar Singh Sardar, Sardar Bahadur.
Sultan Ahmed Khan
Sunder Lal
Sundrabai, Bai
Swain, Mrs. Walker
Swainson, Miss Florence (also Bar)
Swami Shyamananda
Swift, Miss Eva
Swinchatt, C. H.
Swinhoe, R. C. J.
Swiss, Miss Emily Constance
Symes, Miss Kathleen Mabel
Tahairulnessa Chandhurani.
Talcherkar, Mr. M. C. A.
Talyarkhan, Mrs. M.
Taleyarkhan, Mr. Manekshah Cawasha
Talib Mahdi Khan, Malik
Tambe, Dr. Gopal Rao Ramchandra
Tarafdar, Mr. S. K.
Tarr, Mrs.
Taylor, Rev. Alfred Prideaux (also Bar)
Taylor, Mrs. Florence Prideaux
Taylor, Miss M. A.
Taylor, Mrs. Marine Louise.
Taylor, John Norman
Tha, Maung Shwe
Thein, Maung Po
Theobald, Mrs. (also Bar)
Thimmayya, Mrs. K. S.
Thiruvenkata Achariyar, Mrs. Sita
Thomas, Miss Frances Elizabeth
Thomas, Mrs. Mabel Fox
Thomas, Samuel Gilbert
Thompson, Mrs. Alice
Thompson, R. C.
Thoy, Herbert Dominick
Thungamma, Miss Bolar
Tilak, H. Vishwanath
Timothy, Samuel
Tirunarayana Achariyar, M. R. Ry. M. A. P.
Tomkins, Sir Lionel Linton
Tonkinson, Mrs. Edith
Tudball, Miss Emma
Turner, Mrs. Vera
Umabai, Mrs. P.
Umar Khan, Malik Zorawar Khan
Usman Sahib Bahadur, Khan Bahadur Muhammad
Vail, C. E.
Vajifdar, Mrs. Hormusji Maneckji
Vale, Mrs. K.
Valentine, Capt. C. R.
Vardon, A. C.
Varma, Babu Mahendra Deo
Veronica, Mother Mary, Indore
Vijayaraghava Acharyar
Visvesvaraya, Sir Mokshagundam
Vurghese, Diwan Bahadur George Thomas
Wait, William Robert Hamilton
Wakeman, Mrs. E.
Walayatullah, Khan Bahadur Hafiz Muhammad
Walewalker, P. Baburao
Walford, Miss Zoe.
Waller, Frederick Chighton
Walters, Miss W. E.
Walton, Mrs. Julia.
Ward, Mr. W. A. P.
Warhurst, Capt. A. E.
Warren, Miss Rosamund
Wares, Donald Horne
Webb-Ware, Mrs. Dorothy
Weighell, Miss Anna Jane
Western, Miss Mary Priscilla
Weth, Mrs. Rosa
Whitaker, Miss M. E.
White, Miss J.
While, Mrs. A. M. W.
Wiluman, Miss Elizabeth Annie
Wilkinson, Mrs. A.
Williams, David Phillips
Willis, Mrs. Florence Grace
Willis, Miss S.
Wilson, Francis Henry
Wilson, Miss Anna Margaret (also Bar)
Wince, Miss Jane
Wiseman, Capt. Charles Sheriffe
Wiser, Mrs. C. V.
Woerner, Miss Lydia
Wood, The Rev. A.
Wright, Mrs. B.
Wylie, Miss Iris Eleanor
Wyness, Mrs. Ada
Yen Singh
Yerbury, Dr. J.
Young, Dr. M. Y.

THE VICTORIA CROSS.

The announcement, made at the Delhi Durbar in 1911, that in future Indians would be eligible for the Victoria Cross, gave satisfaction which was increased during the War and afterwards by the award of that decoration to the following:—

Subadar (then Sepoy) Khudadad Khan, 129th Baluchis.—On 31st October 1914, at Hollebeke, Belgium, the British Officer in charge of the detachment having been wounded, and the other gun put out of action by a shell, Sepoy Khudadad, though himself wounded, remained working his gun until all the other five men of the gun detachment had been killed.

Naick Darwan Sing Negi, 1-39th Garhwal Rifles.—For great gallantry on the night of the 23rd-24th November 1914 near Festubert, France, when the Regiment was engaged in retaking and clearing the enemy out of our trenches and, although wounded in two places in the head, and also in the arm, being one of the first to push round each successive traverse, in the face of severe fire from bombs and rifles at the closest range.

Subadar (then Jamadar) Mir Dast, 55th Coke's Rifles.—For most conspicuous bravery and great ability at Ypres on 26th April 1915, when he led his platoon with great gallantry during the attack, and afterwards collected various parties of the Regiment (when no British Officers were left) and kept them under his command until the retirement was ordered. Jamadar Mir Dast subsequently on this day displayed remarkable courage in helping to carry eight British and Indian Officers into safety, whilst exposed to very heavy fire.

Rifleman Kulbir Thapa, 2nd Gurkha Rifles.—For most conspicuous bravery during operations against the German trenches south of Mauquissart. When himself wounded, on the 25th September 1915, he found a badly wounded soldier of the 2nd Leicestershire Regiment behind the first line German trench, and though urged by the British soldier to save himself, he remained with him all day and night. In the early morning of the 26th September, in misty weather, he brought him out through the German wire, and, leaving him in a place of comparative safety returned and brought in two wounded Gurkhas one after the other. He then went back in broad daylight for the British soldier and brought him in also, carrying him most of the way and being at most points under the enemy's fire.

Havildar (then Lance-Naick) Lala, 41st Dogras.—Finding a British Officer of another regiment lying close to the enemy he dragged him into a temporary shelter which he himself had made, and in which he had already bandaged four wounded men. After bandaging his wounds he heard calls from the Adjutant of his own Regiment who was lying in the open severely wounded. The enemy were not more than one hundred yards distant, and it seemed certain death to go out in that direction, but Lance-Naik Lala insisted on going out to his Adjutant, and offered to crawl back with him on his back at once. When this was not permitted, he stripped off his own clothing to keep the wounded officer warmer and stayed with him till just before dark when he returned to the shelter. After dark he carried the first wounded officer back to the main trenches, and then, returning with a stretcher carried back his Adjutant. He set a magnificent example of courage and devotion to his officers.

Sepoy Chatta Singh, 9th Bhopal Infantry.—For most conspicuous bravery and devotion to duty in leaving cover to assist his Commanding Officer who was lying wounded and helpless in the open. Sepoy Chatta Singh bound up the officer's wound and then dug cover for him with his entrenching tool, being exposed all the time to very heavy rifle fire. For five hours until nightfall he remained beside the wounded officer shielding him with his own body on the exposed side. He then under cover of darkness, went back for assistance and brought the officer into safety.

Naick Shahamad Khan, 89th Punjabis.—For most conspicuous bravery. He was in charge of a machine-gun section in an exposed position in front of and covering a gap in our new line within 150 yards of the enemy's entrenched position. He beat off three counter-attacks, and worked his gun single-handed after all his men, except two belt-fillers, had become casualties. For three hours he held the gap under very heavy fire while it was being made secure. When his gun was knocked out by hostile fire he and his two belt-fillers held their ground with rifles till ordered to withdraw. With three men sent to assist him he then brought back his gun, ammunition, and one severely wounded man unable to walk. Finally, he himself returned and removed all remaining arms and equipment except two shovels. But for his great gallantry and determination our line must have been penetrated by the enemy.

Lance-Dafedar Govind Singh, 28th Cavalry.—For most conspicuous bravery and devotion to duty in thrice volunteering to carry messages between the regiment and brigade headquarters, a distance of 1½ miles over open ground which was under the observation and heavy fire of the enemy. He succeeded each time in delivering his message although on each occasion his horse was shot, and he was compelled to finish the journey on foot.

Rifleman Karan Bahadur Rana, 2nd Gurkha Rifles.—For conspicuous bravery and resource in action under adverse conditions, and utter contempt of danger during an attack. He with a few other men succeeded, under intense fire, in creeping forward with a Lewis gun in order to engage an enemy machine gun which had caused severe casualties to officers and other ranks who had attempted to put it out of action. No. 1 of the Lewis gun party opened fire and was shot immediately. Without a moment's hesitation Karan Bahadur pushed the dead man off the gun, and in spite of bombs thrown at him and heavy fire from both flanks, he opened fire and knocked out the enemy machine gun crew. Then switching his fire on the enemy bomber

and riflemen in front of him, he silenced their fire. He kept his gun in action, and showed the greatest coolness in removing defects which had twice prevented the gun from firing. He did magnificent work during the remainder of the day and when a withdrawal was ordered assisted with covering fire until the enemy was close to him. He displayed throughout a very high standard of valour and devotion to duty.

Ressaldar Badlu Singh, 14th Lancers attached 29th Lancers.—For most conspicuous bravery and self-sacrifice on the morning of the 23rd September 1918, when his squadron charged a strong enemy position on the west bank of the River Jordan, between the river and Kh. es Samariveh Village. On nearing the position Ressaldar Badlu Singh realised that the squadron was suffering casualties from a small hill on the left front occupied by machine guns and 200 infantry. Without the slightest hesitation he collected six other ranks and with the greatest dash and an entire disregard of danger charged and captured the position, thereby saving very heavy casualties to the squadron. He was mortally wounded on the very top of the hill when capturing one of the machine guns single-handed, but all the machine guns and infantry had surrendered to him before he died. His valour and initiativ were of the highest order.

Rifleman Gobar Sing Negi, 2nd Battalion 39th Garhwal Rifles.—For most conspicuous bravery on 10th March 1915 at Neuve Chapelle. During an attack on the German position he was one of a bayonet party with bombs who entered their main trench, and was the first man to go round each traverse, driving back the enemy until they were eventually forced to surrender. He was killed during this engagement.

Sepoy Ishaw Singh, 28th Punjabis.—For devotion and bravery "quite beyond all praise" in Waziristan on 10th April, 1921. He received a severe gunshot wound in the chest while serving a Lewis gun, and when all the havildars had been killed or disabled he struggled to his feet, called to his assistance two men, and charged and recovered the gun, restoring it to action. He refused medical attention, insisting first on pointing out where the other wounded were and on carrying water to them. While the medical man was attending to these wounded he shielded him with his body and he submitted to medical attention himself only after he was exhausted through three hours' continual effort and by loss of blood.

PASSPORT REGULATIONS.

[*Note.*—These instructions are intended for the information of residents in the Bombay Presidency proper only. Residents in Sind should apply for passports to the Commissioner in Sind. Persons residing outside the Bombay Presidency should apply for passports to their respective Governments or Administrations.]

A.—British Subjects.

1. British Indian passports are issued only to:—(1) British subjects by birth, (2) wives and widows of such persons, (3) British subjects by naturalization and (4) British-protected persons. Before a subject of an Indian State is granted a passport he should show that he has severed all connections with his state of origin and is permanently residing in British India or produce a certificate to show that the state has no objection to the grant of a passport.

2. The Indian Passport Regulations do not require persons to be in possession of passports for leaving India, but as practically every other country requires travellers to be in possession of passports before they are allowed to land at the port of such country, travellers are advised to obtain passports before embarkation. Members of His Majesty's Naval, Military or Air Forces or of the Indian Marine Service travelling on duty and members of the families of such persons when travelling to the United Kingdom on military entitled passages need not have passports.

3. Passports are not required for journeys by sea from Bombay to ports in India or to Burma; nor are passports required for permanent residents of Ceylon or India, being British subjects to travel between India and Ceylon. Natives of India travelling to the Federated Malay States or the Straits Settlements do not require passports unless they propose to continue their journey onward. (The term "permanent resident" actually means persons born and domiciled in India).

4. In order to obtain a passport, an application form (showing, among other things, the reasons for the proposed journey) should be filled in by the applicant and the applicant's declaration certified by a Political Officer, Magistrate, Justice of the Peace, Police Officer not below the rank of Superintendent, or Notary Public resident in India. Copies of the form can be obtained from any District Magistrate, from the Commissioner of Police, Bombay, by post from the Passport Officer to the Government of Bombay, by personal application at the Passport Office, or from any of the leading Banking and Shipping Agents in Bombay. Small duplicate unmounted copies of the photograph of the applicant and a fee of Rs. 6 in cash should be forwarded with the application form. Fees are not accepted in stamps or by cheque.

5. The application form when filled in should either be posted with the photographs and fee to the Passport Officer to the Government of Bombay, or should be presented at the Passport Office, Bombay. An applicant who forwards his application for a passport through the post may call at the Passport Office at Bombay to take personal delivery of it, but if it is desired that the passport should be sent to him through the post it will be sent to the local officer of the town in which the applicant resides who will hand over the passport to the applicant personally and take a receipt for it.

6. The Passport Office in Bombay is situated in the Civil Secretariat. The office is open from 10-30 a.m. to 6 p.m. daily, except on Saturdays when it closes at 2 p.m. and on Sundays and public holidays.

7. As a passport is valid for five years, there is no objection to anyone applying for a passport weeks or even months in advance of the date of sailing and much inconvenience will be avoided by early application. A notice of at least

8. In certain circumstances, such as for instance, cases of extreme urgency, the Passport Officer is authorised to issue a travel document called an "Emergency Certificate" on being satisfied as to the nationality and the *bona fides* of the applicant. An application for an Emergency Certificate will on no account be considered, unless it is accompanied by duplicate unmounted copies of the photograph of the applicant.

Iraq.

9. Members of His Majesty's Naval, Military or Air Forces or of the Indian Marine Service in uniform and *bona fide* Muhammadan pilgrims (Haj or Zair) holding individual pilgrim passes do not require passports for their journey to Iraq. All intending pilgrims holding pilgrin passes and proceeding to the Holy shrines in Iraq or Persia are warned that if they do not set out on their journey on or about the date specified on their passes they may be refused permission to land in Iraq or Persia. All other travellers must be in possession of national passports and visas for Iraq. In the absence of Iraq Consular Officers in India, visas for Iraq are granted by Passport Issuing Authorities in India on behalf of the Iraq Government subject to the conditions stated below. The Iraq visas are of two kinds—Ordinary, valid for all entries into Iraq during a period of twelve months; and Transit, valid for a single journey only, allowing for stay of not more than fifteen days in Iraq. The fee for these visas is the same as for British visas—*vide* paragraph 18 below. Iraq national passports are valid for return to that country without any further visa or endorsement.

Except in the case of *bona fide* tourists of ample and independent means, business representatives and employees of well established firms and persons with definite guarantee of employment in Iraq, visas for Iraq will not be granted without the previous permission of the Iraq Government. The Passport Officer will, on request, ask for this permission by post or, if the applicant is prepared to defray the cost by cable. Applicants must state clearly the nature of their business and give one or more references in Iraq to enable the local authorities to make inquiries regarding the purpose of their journey.

With the exception of tourists who may remain for three months in Iraq without registration, all persons are required to obtain a "permis de sejour" from the police within fifteen days of their arrival in Iraq. Travellers are also warned that before departure from Iraq even on a transit visa they must obtain a passport endorsement of departure.

Passengers, both British and Foreign, proceeding by Eastbound aeroplane on the regular service to India do not require any endorsements or visas on their passports for any of the Arab Principalities. Similarly, passengers by Westbound do not require endorsements or visas, if they are booked to proceed the Arab Principalities places beyond. When, however, they propose to discontinue their journey at Koweit, Bahrein, Sharjah or Gwadur or to break their journey at any of those places, they must comply with the ordinary passport requirements regarding endorsements and visas.

Egypt.

10. In the absence of Egyptian Consular Officers in India visas for Egypt are granted by Passport Issuing Authorities in India on behalf of the Egyptian Government. The fee for these visas is the same as for British visas—*vide* paragraph 18 below. All visas for Egypt placed on British passports are free of charge.

The Egyptian Government have prescribed rules which regulate the admission of foreigners into Egypt. Generally except in the case of British Government officials, *bona fide* tourists of ample and independent means and representatives of commercial houses of good standing, visas for Egypt cannot be granted whether for permanent residence or for a limited period without a reference to the Egyptian Government. In applying for visas for Egypt, a form of questionnaire laid down by the Egyptian Government which can be obtained from the Passport Office at Bombay, should be filled in. In addition, an applicant for a visa should supply in writing, full particulars as regard the nature of his business in Egypt, the reasons for the journey, the proposed duration of stay in Egypt and what means he possesses.

No transit visa for Egypt can be given unless Egypt is necessarily on the route which the traveller must follow to reach his country of destination, and provided there exists no direct route by which he can reach that country without the necessity of passing through Egyptian territory.

Holders of the new-form Egyptian passport do not require visas to return to Egypt.

Other Countries.

11. Restrictions exist on travel to various parts of the British Empire and to certain foreign countries. Among these may be mentioned Afghanistan, Australia, Canada, Fiji, Madagaskar, Mexico, Mohammerah and Abadan, New Zealand, Palestine, Southern Rhodesia, Union of South Africa, South-West Africa and the United States of America. The restrictions apply particularly to Indians. Detailed particulars with respect to each country will be supplied on application.

Foreign Countries.

12. Passports for journeys to or through foreign countries require, after issue, the visa of the Consul concerned. The addresses of the foreign consulates in Bombay will be found in the appendix below. Visas are, however, not necessary for Austria, Belgium, Czechoslovakia, Denmark, France, Germany, Holland, Iceland, Italy, Liechtenstein, Luxemberg, Norway, Portugal, Sarro, Spain, Sweden and Switzerland provided the names of these countries are entered on the passport by a British Passport issuing authority. Pilgrims holding pilgrim passes for Iraq are warned that should they desire to proceed to Persia they should obtain a visa on their pass from a Persian Consular Officer in India.

Renewal.

13. A passport is valid for five years from the date of issue and is renewable for a further period of from one to five years from the date of expiry of its validity, at the option of the holder; but in no case can a passport be extended beyond ten years from the original date of issue. On expiration of this period, or, if at any time the space provided for visas is covered and the holder wishes to travel to countries for which fresh visas are required a

new passport must be obtained. Application for renewal must be made in the prescribed form, copies of which may be had from any of the officers mentioned in paragraph 4 above. The fee for renewals is Re. 1 for each year, or portion of a year, for which the passport is renewed.

Endorsements.

14. A passport is valid only for the country or countries endorsed on it and fresh endorsements from a British Passport authority are not needed during the validity of the passport for subsequent journeys to these countries. Fresh endorsements may, however, be obtained on the passport for additional countries. Passports endorsed as valid for the British Empire are also available for travelling to territories under British protection or mandate, not however including Palestine, for which country the passport must be specifically endorsed. The fee for endorsing the names of foreign countries on British passports is Re. 1, but no fee is charged for this purpose on British Indian passports. A fee of Rs. 1-8-0 is payable for an endorsement for Palestine on both British and British Indian passports.

Marriage.

15. A lady on marriage or re-marriage requires a fresh passport.

16. In the case of a joint passport issued in favour of a husband and wife, the latter cannot travel alone on it, but should take out a fresh passport, surrendering the joint passport for cancellation of her name from it. The particulars of a wife cannot be added to her husband's existing passport. The holder of the passport should either apply for a new joint passport or his wife should apply for a separate passport in her own name.

B.—Foreigners.

17. Foreigners proceeding direct to their own country, or to, or through, any other foreign country or countries do not require a British visa on their passports. The nationals of the following countries do not require a British visa for travelling to the United Kingdom. The concession also applies to certain nationals proceeding to certain British Dominions and Colonies and information on this point can be obtained from the Passport Office. The concession does not apply to India :—

Austria, Belgium, Czechoslovakia, Denmark, France, Germany, Holland, Iceland, Italy, Liechtenstein, Luxemburg, Norway, Portugal, Sarro, Spain, Sweden and Switzerland.

18. Foreigners who are subjects of the countries shown in the appendix below and who are travelling to British territories for which a British visa is necessary should first obtain passports endorsed for the British territory concerned from their consular representatives and should then present them to the Passport Officer for visa, together with a written statement of the reasons for the journey. British visas are of two kinds, *viz.*, the Non-transit and Transit. The fees for these are Rs. 7-0-0 and Re. 1-0-0, respectively, except in the case of nationals of States which levy higher fees, when the retaliatory scale of fees will be applied.

19. Other foreigners should apply for Emergency certificates through the Commissioner of Police, Bombay, or, where such foreigners reside in the mofussil, through the District Magistrate of the district in which they are residing. Small duplicate copies of the applicant's photograph must accompany the application. The fee for an Emergency Certificate is Rs. 1-8-0.

20. The holder of a foreign passport who has obtained a visa granted by a British Passport Authority outside India for a destination which involves landing in, or passing through, India does not need a further visa from the authorities in India.

ADDRESSES OF FOREIGN CONSULATES IN BOMBAY.

Afghanistan.—Amir's Bungalow, Walkeshwar Road, Malabar Hill.
Austria.—Closed down.
Belgium.—17, Cuffe Parade, Colaba.
Brazil.—Asian Building, Nicol Road, Ballard Estate.
China.—"Homelands," 1, Central Road, Colaba.
Cuba.—Jer Mahal, Dhobi Talao.
Czechoslovakia.—Khatau Mansion, 1st Floor, 17, Cooperage, Fort.
Denmark.—Vulcan House, Nicol Road, Ballard Estate.
Finland.—Alice Building, Hornby Road, Fort.
France.—11, Cuffe Parade, Colaba.
Germany.—Narandas Building, Sprott Road, Ballard Estate.
Greece.—C/o Ralli Brothers, 25, Waudby Road.
Italy.—8, Cuffe Parade, Colaba.
Japan.—Patel House, 10, Church Gate Street, Fort.
Latvia.—Forbes Building, Home Street, Fort.
Luxemburg.—17, Cuffe Parade, Colaba.
Netherlands.—214, Hornby Road, Fort.
Nicaragua.—Alice Building, Hornby Road, Fort.
Norway.—Alice Building, Hornby Road, Fort.
Panama.—American Consul looks after Panamanian interests.
Persia.—Warden Bungalow, opp. P. O., Colaba.
Poland.—Whiteway Building, Hornby Road.
Portugal.—23, Cuffe Parade, Colaba.
Roumania.—Mathew Road, Chowpatty.
Siam.—C/o Wallace and Company, Wallace Street, Fort.
Spain.—"Firdaus," opp. P. O., Colaba.
Sweden.—Vulcan House, Nicol Road, Ballard Estate.
Switzerland.—Volkart Building, Graham Road, Ballard Estate.
Turkey.—Afghan Consul looks after Turkish interests.
United States of America.—Jehangir Wadia Building, Esplanade Road, Fort.
Uraguay.—Mathew Road, Chowpatty.

States having Consulates in Calcutta but not in Bombay.

Argentine Republic.—5, Fairlie Place.

Bolivia.—7, Old Court House Street.

Dominica.—16, New Park Street.

Ecuador.—6, Lyons Range (C/o Messrs. Turner Morrison & Co.)

Hungary.—Royal Insurance Buildings, 26, Dalhousie Square.

Panama.—9, Esplanade Mansions.

Peru.—3, Victoria Terrace.

Turkey.—C/o Monsell & Co., Mercantile Buildings, Lall Bazar.

Venezuela:—C/o Messrs. Henry William, India, 1931, Ltd., 7, Church Lane.

N. B.—There are at present no Consuls for Costa Rica, Liberia, Salvador and Mexico at Calcutta. The Consulates for Guatemala and Chib Lane been abolished.

The School of Oriental Studies.

This School was established by Royal Charter in June 1916. The purposes of the School (as set out in the Charter) are to be a School of Oriental Studies in the University of London to give instruction in the Languages of Eastern and African peoples, Ancient and Modern, and in the Literature, History, Religion, Law, Customs and Art of those peoples, especially with a view to the needs of persons about to proceed to the East or to Africa for the pursuit of study and research, commerce or a profession, and to do all or any of such other things as the Governing Body of the School consider conducive or incidental thereto, having regard to the provision for those purposes which already exists elsewhere and in particular to the co-ordination of the work of the School with that of similar institutions both in Great Britain and in its Eastern and African Dominions and with the work of the University of London and its other Schools.

The School possesses noble and interesting buildings, in Finsbury Circus, provided by the British Government under the London Institution (Transfer) Act of 1912. The sum of £25,000 required for the alteration and extension of the buildings of the London Institution for the purposes of the School was voted by Parliament. The School buildings are quiet, although they are in the heart of the City. The School provides teaching in more than seventy subjects In a considerable proportion of the spoken languages instruction is given by teachers belonging to the countries where the languages are spoken, as it is the aim of the School to provide as far as possible both European and Oriental Lecturers in the principal languages included in the curriculum.

Courses on the History, Religions, and Customs of Oriental and African countries form a special feature in the teaching of the School. There is a whole time Professor in Phonetics, the classes for which are numerically larger than in any other subject. It is intended to record fully in phonetic symbols all the languages taught at the School.

Owing to the generosity of the Rockefeller Foundation a new sub-department under Professor Lloyd James has been opened for the teaching of and research into African Linguistics.

Courses are also provided in Indian Law and the History of India, and arrangements are made from time to time for special courses of lectures to be given by distinguished orientalists not on the staff.

Patron, H. M. the King. *Chairman of the Governing Body*, Sir Harcourt Butler, G.C.S.I. *Director*, Professor Sir E. Denison Ross, C.I.E., D. Lit, Ph.D. *Secretary*, G. W. Rossetti, M.A.

Teaching Staff.

	Name.	*Subjects.*	*Status.*
	Ethel O. Ashton	.. Swahili	.. Lecturer.
3.	H. W. Bailey, D. Phil. M.A.	.. Iranian Studies	.. ,,
2	T. Grahame Bailey, M.A., B.D., D. LITT.	.. Hindustani (Urdu & Hindi)	.. Reader.
	G. P. Bargery	.. Hausa	.. Lecturer.
3.	L. D. Barnett, M.A., D. LITT.	.. Indian History and Sanskrit ..	.. ,,
2.	C. O. Blagden, M.A., D. LITT.	.. Malay	.. Reader.
	R. T. Butlin, B.A.	.. Phonetics	.. Lecturer.
	K. de B. Codrington, M.A.	.. Indian Arts and Crafts	.. Hon. Lecturer.
3.	G. H. Darab Khan, M.A.	.. Persian	.. Lecturer.

TEACHING STAFF—*(contd.)*

	Name.	*Subjects.*	*Status.*
3.	C. C. Davies, Ph.D.	.. Indian History	..Lecturer.
5.	H. H. Dodwell, M.A.	.. History	..Professor.
2.	E. Dora Edwards, M.A., D. Lit.	.. Chinese	..Reader.
3.	D. E. Evans, B.A.	.. Hindustani	..Lecturer.
	J. R. Firth, M.A.	.. Linguistics	.. ,,
3.	S. G. Vesey FitzGerald, M.A.	.. Indian Law.	.. ,,
1.	H. A. R. Gibb, M.A.	.. Arabic	..Professor.
	Shaykh M. M. Gomaa, B.A.	.. Arabic	..Lecturer.
	Beatrice Honikman, M.A.	.. African Phonetics & Linguistics.	..Assistant Lecturer.
	Commander N. E. Isemonger, R.N. (retired)	.. Japanese	..Lecturer.
9.	A. Lloyd, James, M.A.	.. Phonetics	..Professor.
4.	Sir Reginald Johnston, K.C.M.G., C.B.E., M.A., LL.D.	Chinese	.. ,,
	S. G. Kanhere	.. Marathi and Gujarati ..	..Lecturer.
	G. E. Leeson	.. Hindustani (Urdu & Hindi) ..	.. ,,
	H. J. Melzian, Ph.D.	.. African Phonetics and Linguistics.	,,
2.	V. Minorsky	.. Persian Literature & History	..Reader.
2.	W. Sutton Page, O.B.E., B.A., B.D. ..	.. Bengali	.. ,,
	C. S. K. Pathy, M.A., D-es-L.	.. Tamil and Telugu	..Lecturer.
	M. D. Ratnasuriya, Ph.D.	.. Sinhalese	.. ,,
	F. J. Richards, M.A.	.. Indian Archæology ..	..Hon.Lecturer.
	Ali Riza Bey	.. Turkish	..Lecturer.
7.	Sir E. Denison Ross, C.I.E., D. Lit., Ph.D.	.. Persian	..Professor.
3.	C. A. Rylands, B.A.	.. Sanskrit	..Lecturer.
3.	W. Stede, Ph.D.	.. Pali and Sanskrit	.. ,,
	J. A. Stewart, M.C., C.I.E., M.A., I.C.S.	Burmese	.. ,,
	S. Topalian	.. Armenian and Turkish	.. ,,
2.	A. S. Tritton, D. Litt.	.. Arabic	..Reader.
	A. N. Tucker, M.A., Ph.D.	.. African Phonetics and Linguistics.	Lecturer.
8.	R. L. Turner, M.C., M.A., Litt.D. ..	.. Sanskrit	..Professor
3.	Ida C. Ward, D. Lit.	.. African Phonetics and Linguistics.	Lecturer.
6.	I. Wartski, B.A.	.. Modern Hebrew	,,
	S. Yoshitake	.. Japanese and Mongolian	,,
	Kadry Zafir, M.A.	.. Arabic	,,

1. University Professor of Arabic and Appointed Teacher.
2. University Reader and Appointed Teacher.
3. Recognised Teacher in the University of London.
4. University Professor of Chinese and Appointed Teacher.
5. University Professor of the History and Culture of British Dominions in Asia, with special reference to India and Appointed Teacher.
6. Ahad Ha'am Lectureship in Modern Hebrew.
7. University Professor of Persian and Appointed Teacher (Director).
8. University Professor of Sanskrit and Appointed Teacher.
9. University Professor of Phonetics and Appointed Teacher.

The Fisheries of India.

The fisheries of India, potentially rich, as yet yield a mere fraction of what they could were they exploited in a fashion comparable with those of Europe, North America or Japan. The fishing industry, particularly the marine section, has certainly expanded considerably within the last 50 years concurrently with improvement in the methods of transport and increase in demand for fish, cured as well as fresh, from the growing population of the great cities within reach of the seaboard. The caste system, however, exerts a blighting influence on progress. Fishing and fish trade are universally relegated to low caste men who alike from their want of education, the isolation caused by their work and caste and their extreme conservatism, are among the most ignorant, suspicious and prejudiced of the population, extremely averse to amending the methods of their forefathers and almost universally without the financial resources requisite to the adoption of new methods, even when convinced of their value. Higher caste capitalists have hitherto fought shy of associating with the low caste fishermen, and except in large operations on new lines, these capitalists cannot be counted upon to assist in the development of Indian fisheries. As in Japan, it appears that the general conditions of the industry are such that the initiative must necessarily be taken by Government in the uplift and education of the fishing community and in the introduction and testing of new and improved apparatus and methods.

The first local Government to lead the way was that of Madras, which in 1905 initiated an investigation of the industry, both marine and fresh-water, appointing Sir F. A. Nicholson to supervise operations. Bengal followed suit in 1906, and from these beginnings have sprung the local Fisheries Departments of Madras, Bengal, and Bihar and Orissa. Bombay, the remaining seaboard province, has comparatively small fresh-water interests compared with Madras and Bengal and as it happens that her marine fisheries are favoured with good harbours and the most enterprising race of fishermen in India, there was less urgent need for State help in the industry. Fisheries there were a subject of Government solicitude for five years after the war but they finally ceased to receive any attention after the abolition in 1924 of the short lived Department of Industries to which this subject was allotted.

Madras.

The Madras coast line of 1,750 miles is margined by a shallow-water area within the 100 fathom line of 40,000 square miles outside of the mere fringe inshore, this vast expanse of fishable water lies idle and unproductive. The surf-swept East coast is singularly deficient in harbours whereon fishing fleets can be based, and so from Ganjam to Negapatam, the unsinkable catamaran, composed of logs tied side by side is the only possible easy-going fishing craft. Its limitations circumscribe the fishing power of its owners and consequently these men are poor and the produce of their best efforts meagre compared with what it would be if better and larger boats were available and possible. The West coast is more favoured. From September till April weather conditions are good enough to permit even dugout canoes to fish daily. No difficulty is found in beaching canoes and boats throughout this season. The fishing population is a large one. In the census taken by the Department of Fisheries in 1927-28, the fisher-population on the West coast totalled 114,502. The esteemed table fish of the coast consist of the Seer (*Cybium* or *Scomberomorous*), Pomfret (*Apolectus* and *Stromateus*) several large species of Horse Mackerel (*Caranx*). Jew fish (*Sciaenidae*), Whiting (*Sillago.*) Thread-fins (*Polynemus*), Sardines (*Clupea*) and Mackerel (*Scomber*). In economic importance, however, shoaling fish and fish of inferior quality such as Sardine (*Clupea*). Mackerel (*Scomber*), Cat fish (*Arius*), Ribbon fish (*Trichiurus*), Goggles (*Caranx crumenophthalmus*) and Silver bellies (*Equula* and *Cazza*) take precedence of the former. Sardine and Mackerel over-shadow all others. So greatly in excess of food requirements are the catches of sardines, that every year large quantities are turned into oil and manure. Fishing outside the 5 fathom line is little in evidence save by Bombay boats (Ratnagiri) which are engaged in drift netting for bonito, seer and other medium-sized fishes. These strangers are enterprising fishers and bring large catches into Malpe and Mangalore and other convenient centres: the material is largely cured for export.

The Madras Department of Fisheries.—As Government attention has been given in Madras over a longer period to the improvement of fisheries, and a larger staff concentrated upon the problems involved than elsewhere this Presidency has now the proud position of knowing that her fisheries and collateral industries are better organised and more progressive than those in other provinces. The credit for the wonderful success which has been achieved and the still greater promise of the future, is due in large measure to the wise and cautious plans of Sir F. A. Nicholson, who from 1905 to 1918 had the guidance of affairs entrusted to him. In 1905 he was appointed on special duty to investigate existing conditions and future potentialities; in 1907, a permanent status was given by the creation of a fisheries bureau and this in turn has developed into a separate Department of Government which till August 1923 was being administered by Mr. James Hornell, F.L.S., as Director and, is now controlled by his successor Dr. B. Sundara Raj, M.A., Ph.D. The activities of the Department have greatly expanded since its inception. A Committee constituted by Government to

enquire into the working of the Department and make recommendations for its future development have just published their report in two volumes. The Evidence collected by the Committee is an octavo volume of 431 pages and the Report of the Committee is another similar volume of 264 pages. The Report is a remarkable production which summarises the aims and achievements of the Department during the last quarter of a century and contains detailed proposals for the expansion of the Department activities in different directions. The whole work of the Department has received a great impetus as a result of the report of this Committee. The Committee have emphasised the true purpose and aim of a technical Department of Fisheries to be essentially the material amelioration of the lot of the sea-going fishermen. The activities of the past 25 years were largely concerned with curing and canning, manufacture of oil and guano and safe-guarding of Government revenue. Remarkably successful as they were under the able guidance of Sir Frederick Nicholson, they seemed somewhat to obscure what should be the primary object and policy of the Department. Technological improvements in curing and canning and allied industries should follow ultimately in the wake of improved catches. Socio-economic and humanitarian endeavours however necessary and important, in view of the caste system of India, could not directly add one fish to the actual catch of the fisherman. The Committee have therefore urged that efforts to improve the professional knowledge of the sea-going fishermen and the catching powers of his craft and tackle which were inaugurated with the inquisition of the trawler in 1926 must necessarily occupy the first place of the departmental programme. The higher staff now consists of five Assistant Directors and an Assistant Biologist. These are respectively in charge of (1) the chank and beche-de-mer fisheries; (b) the Co-operative and educational work and the West coast fish curing yards; (c) inland pisciculture; (d) deep sea fishing; (e) propaganda for rural pisciculture; and (f) biological investigations and fishery research. Certain other officers have charge respectively of sections dealing with technological research; trout fisheries and the fisheries of the Northern Circars. A special staff of officers trained in co-operation have been appointed for intensive work among fishermen. The miscellaneous institutions controlled by the Department consist of a small demonstration cannery a research station for curing, canning and allied industries, a Fisheries Training Institute at Calicut for imparting special training to teachers selected to teach in schools for fishers' children of which there were 43 with a total of 3,637 pupils in 1930. All the public fish curing yards which were under the control of the Salt and Abkari Department till 1924 have passed into the charge of the Fisheries Department. It is now possible to introduce the better methods of cure and improved hygiene which the Department has been straining to popularise, in all the yards. Due to the transfer of the yards, the Fisheries Department has a large ramified staff of yard officers (Salt Sub-Inspectors, Petty Yard Officers and Peons) in almost every large fishing village on the coast. Besides the direct work of issuing salt for curing, the Department sets itself to train these officers into expert advisers in curing methods and marketing fish, social workers for the inculcation of thrift, co-operative and progressive ideas and new industries and lastly as trained observers for recording and reporting on various biological questions connected with fish and fisheries and collecting statistics regarding the value and quantity of sea fish caught and landed. Statistics have been published since 1925-26 regularly every year in the bulletins.

The activities of the Department are so varied and far-reaching that it is difficult even to enumerate them in the space available, much less to give details. So far its most notable industrial successes have been the reform of manufacturing processes in the fish-oil trade, the creation of a fish guano industry and the opening of an oyster farm conducted under hygienic conditions. Twenty-four volumes have been issued to date and the twenty-fifth volume in Press. All this work has been carried on under serious handicap for want of adequate staff and equipment.

The educational work of the Department is becoming one of its most important branches whether it be specially training teachers for schools in fishing villages or training men in the technology of curing, canning and oil manufacture, in co-operative propaganda and in the supply of zoological specimens for the use of college classes and museums. The last named has filled a long-felt want and is contributing materially to the advancement of the study of Zoology throughout India. There is now no need to obtain specimens from Europe as they can be had from the Research Assistant, Fisheries Station, Ennur, Madras, at moderate prices.

Fish Curing.—Fish curing is practised extensively everywhere on the Madras coasts: its present success is due primarily to Dr. Francis Day who after an investigation during 1869-71 of the fisheries of the whole of India, pressed for the grant to fishermen of duty-free salt for curing purposes within fenced enclosures. He advocated much else, but the time was not ripe and the salt concession was the sole tangible result of his long and honourable efforts. His salt suggestions were accepted by the Madras Government, and from 1882 a gradually increasing number of yards or bonded enclosures were opened at which salt is issued free of duty and often at rates below the local cost of the salt to Government. At present about 115 of such yards are scattered along the coast and over 55,000 tons of wet fish are annually cured therein. The total receipts on the administration of these yards for the year 1930-31 was Rs. 1,97,777-0-4 and expenditure Rs. 2,85,913-12-4.

Pearl and Chank Fisheries.—In the absence of the pearl fishery during the year, the chank fisheries prospered. An unprecedented number of 467,628 chanks were fished yielding a gross revenue of Rs. 17,860-8-8.

The Inland Fisheries.—The Inland Fisheries of Madras compare unfavourably with those of Bengal. Many of the rivers dry up in the hot season and few of the many thousands of irrigation tanks throughout the provinces

hold water for more than 6 to 9 months. As a consequence, inland fisheries are badly organised and few men devote themselves to fishing as their sole or even main occupation. The custom is to neglect or ignore the fishery value of these streams and tanks so long as they are full of water: only when the streams shrink to pools and the tanks to puddles do the owners or lessees of the fishing rights turn out to catch fish. The result is a dearth of fish throughout the greater part of the year, a glut for a few days, and often much waste in consequence. The chief fresh water fishes of economic importance are the Murrel, notable for its virtue of living for a considerable period out of water, and various carps including Labeo, Catla and the well-known favourite of sportsman in India the "Mahseer," Cat-fishes and Hilsa. In the Nilgiris, the Rainbow Trout has been acclimatised and thrives well. The Government working in conjunction with the Nilgiri Game Association maintain a hatchery at Avalanche, where quantities of fry are hatched and reared for the replenishment of the streams of the plateau. Fishing rights in the large irrigation tanks were transferred from Government to local authorities many years ago; these tanks are now being reacquired by Government in order that they may be stocked periodically by the Department; the results so far have shown a profit on the operations. To breed the necessary fry, 7 fish farms are in operation. In these the chief fish bred are the Gourami, obtained from Java, and Etroplu suratensis which has the excellent attribute of thriving and breeding as well in brackish as in fresh water; both protect their eggs while developing, a useful habit. Both the Gourami and Etroplus are largely vegetarian in diet. A further activity is represented by the breeding of small fishes especially addicted to feed upon the aquatic larvæ of mosquitoes. These are supplied in thousands to municipalities and other local authorities at a nominal price, for introduction into mosquito-haunted sheets of water; these anti-malarial operations have proved successful in the places where the local authorities have given proper attention to the direction given.

Marine Aquarium.—Perhaps a word is necessary about this institution at Madras. The building was constructed under the auspices of the Superintendent, Government Museum, Madras, and was thrown open to the public on 21st October 1909. The Superintendent, Government Museum, had charge of the Aquarium for ten years till 1919 when it was transferred to the Department of Fisheries. Ever since its opening, being the first institution of its kind in Asia, it has been immensely popular with the public.

A turtle tank of rough semi-circular shape with 21 feet as diameter was added during the course of the year.

Deep Sea Fishing and Research.—The fisherman has a fairly exhaustive knowledge of the fisheries along the coast up to 7 fathoms. If the catches of fish are to be improved it is necessary to ascertain—

(1) what kinds and quantities of fish are available beyond 7 fathoms; and,
(2) how to exploit these deep sea fisheries economically.

The department's trawler "Lady Goschen" has been exploring the off shore belt of the sea up to 100 fathoms from Point Calimere to Madras on the East Coast and Calicut to Pigeon Islands on the West Coast, with a view to ascertain the kinds and quantities of fish available there. The Assistant Biologist and staff worked on board the trawler. One remarkable discovery made by this systematic survey is that fish of better quality and in larger quantity are available in deeper waters on the East coast from Point Calimere to Madras than on the West coast from Calicut to Pigeon Islands, during the months of the survey. Whether it is the case throughout the year is yet to be ascertained. However it has helped to revise the general belief that fish are much more abundant on the West coast than on the East coast, and opens up possibilities for large fishery developments on the East Coast which will ultimately increase the supply of fish food and fish manure.

Rural Pisciculture.—As a result of the recommendation of the Royal Commission on Agriculture that all practical measures should be adopted to add fish to the diet of the cultivator thereby improving his nutrition, a scheme of rural propaganda was inaugurated in 1930. An Assistant Director with necessary staff was appointed to advise ryots in the stocking of village ponds which number over 106,050 in the Presidency. The work though begun in July 1930, has already completed a survey of ponds in 98 villages, 2,172 wells and 264 ponds in these villages were examined and out of this number 175 wells and 85 ponds were selected as suitable for piscicultural operations and 45 wells and 1 pond were stocked.

Welfare Work.—A remarkable feature in the work of the Madras Fisheries Department is the energy which it devotes to the improvement of the condition of the fisherfolk. On Sir Frederick Nicholson's initiative, the Department has always recognised the duty of spreading among them education and the habits of thrift, temperance and co-operation. The work has been specially successful on the West Coast. The number of fishermen's co-operative societies in 1930-31 was 73.

The need for special efforts to promote co-operation among fisherfolk and to renew and stimulate co-operative societies to more efficient work has been recognised by Government for some years. The Committee on Fisheries recommended that all co-operative work among fishermen both on the West and East Coasts in the Presidency should be done by the Fisheries Department and that, on the analogy of the system in vogue in the Labour Department, the staff of Inspectors of Co-operative societies should work under the Fisheries Department, the Co-operative supplying trained Inspectors and auditing the books of the societies. The Government partially accepted the recommendations and sanctioned the deputation of 3 Inspectors of Co-operative Societies for exclusive work among fishermen under the department.

Two industrial societies were started one at Blangad and the other at Palapatty on the West Coast in 1927 with the object of wearing the fishermen gradually from the influence of

middlemen capitalists. The Government sanctioned a loan of Rs. 1,500 each to the two societies for purchasing boats, nets and other accessories for fishing purposes. They are working since 1927 with varying degrees of success.

To promote the education of fishermen a training institution was opened in the middle of 1918 at Calicut to train teachers to work in elementary schools for the fisherfolk. The pupil teachers under training are familiarised with the work carried on in the fishery stations at Tanur and Chaliyam. They are given practical instructions in fishing, a boat having been purchased for the purpose. In some places the villagers themselves started the schools and then handed over to the Department. In other places schools were opened by the Department at the request of the fishermen. Local men are appointed as honorary managers of schools.

Bengal & Bihar & Orissa.

The fishing value of this extensive deltaic region lies primarily in the enormous area occupied by inland waters—rivers, creeks, jheels, and swamps,—to say nothing of paddy fields and tanks. These swarm with fish and, as the Hindu population are free to a large extent from the aversion to a fish-diet which is widely prevalent among the better castes in the south, the demand for fish is enormous. Rice and fish are indeed the principal mainstays of the population and not less than 80 per cent. of the people consume fish as a regular item of diet. It is calculated that 1·6 per cent. of the population is engaged in fishing and its connected trades, a percentage that rises to 2·6 in the Presidency, Rajshahi, and Dacca Divisions. 644,000 persons in Bengal subsist by fishing with 324,000 maintained by the sale of fish, and this in spite of the fact that fishing is not considered an honourable profession. As a fresh-water fisherman the Bengali is most ingenious, his traps and other devices exceedingly clever and effective—in many cases too effective —so eager is he for immediate profit, however meagre this may be. The greatest inland fishery is that of the hilsa (*Clupea ilisha*) which annually migrates from the sea in innumerable multitudes to seek spawning grounds far up the branches of the Ganges and the other great rivers. Other valued and abundant fishes are the rohu (*Labeo rohita*) and the katla (*Catla catla*), mrigela (*Cirrit uan mrigela*); prawns and shrimps abound everywhere. Of important fishes taken in the lower reaches of the rivers and in the great network of creeks spread throughout the Sunderbans, the bekti (*Lates calcrifer*) and the mullets are the most esteemed; apart from these estuarine fish the most valuable sea-fishes are the mango-fishes (*Polynemus,*) pomfrets. The sea-fisheries are as yet little exploited, the fishermen of Orissa, where alone coastal fishing is of any local importance, having no sea craft save catamarans of inferior design and construction.

Following the inquiry begun in 1906 by Sir K. G. Gupta, an investigation of the steam trawl potentialities of the head of the Bay of Bengal was undertaken, the trawler *Golden Crown* being employed for the purpose. The results showed that there are extensive areas suitable for trawling and capable of yielding large quantities of high class fish. Much attention was devoted during these trawl cruises to the acquisition of increased knowledge of the marine fauna, the results being published in the Records and Memoirs of the Indian Museum. For various reasons, the chief perhaps being the hostility of vested interests, the lack of cold storage facilities and the loss of time involved by the trawler having to bring her catches to Calcutta instead of sending them by a swift tender, the experiment was financially a failure and was dropped. With ever-increasing demand for fish in Calcutta and the concurrent rise in prices, the prospects of remunerative steam-trawling are now much more, steam-trawling companies being floated in the immediate future. The trade is a difficult one to organize and without a rare combination of technical fishery knowledge and far-sighted and comprehensive organization the danger run by the investing public will be considerable. Originally one Fisheries Department served the needs of the two provinces of Bengal and Bihar and Orissa. Separation was effected in after which fisheries in Bengal were administered by the Director of Agriculture. The Bengal Fishery Department was abolished under retrenchment in 1923. There is no immediate prospect of reconstitution of the Department. In Bihar and Orissa, Fisheries form a section of the Department of Industries.

Bengal Fisheries Department has of necessity a more limited scope for its activities than in the case of Madras. Practically no coastal minor industries exist, neither do the natural conditions lead us to suppose that any can be created without extreme difficulty, and in the absence of a great trawl industry which alone might be able to call into existence factories devoted to the uplift of the general utilization of fish bye-products. Apart from this, much can be done by its officers for the uplift of the general fishing population with a view to free them from the tyranny of the mahajans (fish contractors and middle men) and enable them to put more capital into their business and to conduct it co-operatively. This is necessarily extremely slow work, but a beginning has been made and a number of fishermen's co-operative societies have been formed. Their example is calculated to effectively serve the purpose of propaganda. The fishery wealth of Bengal is enormous and nothing but good can come out of intensive investigation and propaganda.

Fresh-water mussels are used extensively at Dacca in the manufacture of cheap pearl buttons and in many cases pearls also are found in the mussels which the pearl dealers gather and sell in the various parts of India. The Dacca bangle factories carry on an important local industry of very ancient standing; their material is almost entirely obtained from the South Indian and Ceylon chank fisheries already alluded to.

Bombay.

Whereas Bengal's fisheries are at present confined principally to inland waters, those of Bombay are concerned, save in Sind, almost entirely with the exploitation of the wealth of the sea. Bombay is favoured with a coast line abounding with excellent harbours for fishing craft, a fair-weather season lasting for some seven months, and a fishing population more alive to their opportunities and more daring than those of the sister Presidencies. Bombay sea-fisheries are of very great importance financially as well as economically and, though there is less necessity for a special department to develop marine industries, there is ample scope for most useful work in improving curing methods, in introducing canning and in the development of minor marine industries particularly those connected with the utilization of bye-products. With this end in view the Director of Industries administered the subject of "Fisheries" from 1918 and had for a time two officers in the Department engaged upon fishery investigation and development. A steam trawler was bought for work in Bombay waters in 1920 and began work in May 1921 off Bombay. The experiment continued until February 1922, and the trawler was subsequently sold to the Government of Burma. At the outset the results seemed promising, but the experiment as a whole showed that the cost of maintaining a trawler of the type used could not be met by sales of fish at current market rates. Cold storage has since been installed at the principal fish market in Bombay, but for a trawler special facilities are needed also for rapid coaling, supplying ice and stores, and for unloading catches. More than this a change is needed in the mediæval conditions under which the local fish market is conducted and there is much to be done in popularising little known species of edible fish, such as karei, palu, tambusa, and particularly the ray or skate which formed on the average 25 per cent. of the total catch but which is so little esteemed locally that it sold on the average at the rate of 100 lbs. for a rupee.

Owing to retrenchment the appointments of Fisheries officers have been abolished.

The more important sea-fish are pomfrets, sole and sea-perches among which are included the valuable Jew-fishes (*Sciæna* spp.) often attaining a very large size and notable as the chief source of "fish-maws" or "sounds," largely exported from Bombay for eventual manufacture into isinglass. The finest of Bombay fishing boats hail from the coast between Bassein and Surat. These boats are beautifully constructed, attain a considerable size, and are capable of keeping the sea for weeks together. In the season they fish principally off the Kutch and Kathiawar coasts and in the mouth of the Gulf of Cambay. Their main method of fishing is by means of huge anchored stow nets, which are left down for several hours and hauled at the turn of the tide. The chief catches are bombil (Bombay ducks), pomfrets and jew-fishes. The first named are dried in the sun after being strung through the mouth upon lines stretched between upright posts. South of Bombay the fishermen of Ratnagiri and Rajapur make use of another and lighter class of fishing boat, specially designed for use in drift-net fishing. Fine hauls of bonito seer (a large form of mackerel) and allied fishes are often made during the season from September to January and later of shark and ray fish. For the latter specially large and powerful nets are employed. For part of the fair season, when fishing is not usually remunerative, many of the larger Bombay fishing boats are employed as small coasters, a fact which shows how large they run in size.

In **Sind** considerable sea-fishing is carried on in the neighbourhood of Karachi chiefly for large and coarse fish, such as soormai, shark, rays and jew-fishes. In order to prevent destructive exploitation of oyster beds the plucking of oyster is confined to licensed fishermen and is limited to a few months of the cold weather. The demand for oysters for edible purposes is considerable, but although many seed pearls are procurable it does not pay to work the beds for these purposes and the export of such seed pearls to China for use in medicine ceased many years ago. Considerable fisheries exist in the River Indus, chiefly for the fish known as palla, which are annually leased out by Government for about Rs. 20,000.

In the Gulf of Kutch two pearl fisheries exist, one for the true pearl oyster, the other for the window-pane oyster. The former is carried on by His Highness the Maharaja of Jamnagar, the other partly by this Prince and partly by the administration of His Highness the Maharaja Gaekwar of Baroda. The latter industry owes its local existence to the enterprise of the Baroda Government which in 1905 obtained the services on deputation of Mr. J. Hornell, formerly Director of Fisheries in Madras, for the purpose of examining the Marine potentialities of the Baroda territory in Kathiawar. One of the consequences was the discovery of large deposits of pearl-bearing window-pane oysters until then unknown; of late years these beds have produced annually from Rs. 15,000 to Rs. 25,000 in revenue perhaps the best example we have in India of the profitable nature of well-directed scientific enquiry into fishery problems. The Baroda Government, continuing their enlightened interest in the fishery developments have had two officers trained in the Madras Fisheries Department and now employ them in development work on the Baroda coast.

Experiments in canning are now in progress at one of the chief fishing centres on the Southern Kathiawar coast and already promise considerable success particularly with regard to pomfrets.

In 1910 Mr. W. H. Lucas, Collector of Salt Revenue, drew up a report on the improvement of the sea fisheries in the Bombay Presidency. The main conclusions at which he arrived were that the Indian consumer is so conservative that new methods of curing, canning, etc., have no chance of succeeding without the help of patient demonstration by Government as an initial step towards the investment of Indian capital in a new enterprise, and that therefore the establishment of a Government demonstration fishing station at some large fishing centre on the Ratnagiri or Kanara coast may be found advisable after the results of the Madras Government fishing station have been studied.

Recently Mr. H. T. Sorley, I.C.S., carried out a survey of the fishing resources of the Bombay Presidency and Sind coast The results of this investigation published by the Bombay Government contain valuable suggestions for the development of the Presidency's fishing industry.

The year 1933 is a memorable one so far as the fishing industry of the City of Bombay is concerned. The year saw the establishment of a Section of Fisheries under the aegis of the Department of Industries, Bombay. This Section is still in its infancy and there is hardly any data whence it may be possible to draw any deductions about the future of the industry. An important feature of the work of the new Section was the launching of a fast motor boat by Sir Frederick Sykes, the then Governor of Bombay, for the rapid transport of fish from the fishing grounds to the landing sites in Bombay. The venture is merely of an experimental nature. The primary object of this experiment is to demonstrate to local fishermen how the adoption of rapid and modern means of transport will directly benefit their trade.

Burma.

Fresh, dried and salted fish and fish paste are consumed by Burmese people. The value of fish imported from foreign countries (chiefly from Straits Settlements) was 8.85 lakhs in 1931-32. The exclusive right of fishing throughout the province of Burma belongs by custom of the country to Government, and the Burma Fisheries Act provides for the protection of this right and for conceding the enjoyment of it to the people subject to certain restrictions for the conservation of the fish.

Revenue.—The economic value of any industry or tract of country can, to some extent, be gauged by the revenue it yields. The fisheries yielded a substantial revenue (about 43.85 lakhs *per annum* during the last decennium) and therefore they are one of the most important sources of national wealth. The receipts declined to 2/3rds of this amount in the year 1932-33 owing to trade and economic depression. Some open lakes, pools of water and small rivers are classed as leasable fisheries and are leased by Government to the highest and best bidders at public auction for periods varying from one to five years. The total number of leaseable fisheries in the province is 3,606 of which 1,697 lie in the Irrawaddy Division, and 699 in Maubin—one of the five districts in that division.

The Delta consists of a series of saucer-shaped islands, many of which have embankments round the greater part of them along the north-east and west; in the hollows of these islands most of the fish come into spawn, and with the floods which overflow the embankment during October the young fry come down-country from Upper Burma.

Licenses for fishing in all open fisheries are issued annually to persons who pay the prescribed fees for the specified classes of fishing implements. The greatest revenue from licenses comes from Mergui District where not only is the Pearling industry carried on, but leases for collecting green snails and sea slugs are issued.

The principal kinds of fish caught in nets on the sea-coast are (1) Kakkuyan, (2) Kathabaung, (3) Kathahmyin and (4) Kabalu. These are generally made into salt fish which fetch Rs. 2 to Rs. 3 per *viss*. The creek and fresh water fish from fisheries are generally *ngakhu*, *ngayan* and *ngagyi*. Most of them are sold fresh, but some are converted into salt fish. The fish caught in the rivers are generally *ngathalauk*, *Ngagyin* and *Ngamyinyin*. *Kakalaung* and *Ngaponna* which are found in small quantities elsewhere in India are sold in abundance in the Rangoon market.

The Punjab.

The year 1932-33 was marked by an important change in the administration of the Fisheries Department. On the retirement of Mr. C. H. Donald the post of Warden of Fisheries was abolished, and the department placed under the control of the Director of Agriculture, Punjab. The Fisheries Research Laboratory was transferred to the Agricultural College, Lyallpur, and now forms part of the Entomological Section at that Institute.

On account of financial stringency no important advance could be made either in conservation or in research. The number of fishing licenses rose from 6,892 in the previous year to 6,917 during 1932-33.

The catches of professional fisherman on the whole were satisfactory, except during the Spring of 1933, when weather conditions were unfavourable for both netting and angling. Hail storms did considerable damage to the fish in the Sohan Stream in the Rawalpindi District. The trout fishing on the Beas and its tributaries in Kulu was good, except in the Tirthan Stream where the floods were very severe and played havoc with the fish. The number of trout Angling Licenses rose from 113 in the last year to 141. The Anglers got good sport and found the fish in excellent condition. Fishing in the two Trout Streams in Kangra proper was not good. Mahasir fishing in the waters in the sub-montane Districts was satisfactory.

Trout-cultural experiments were successful in the hills, but the breeding of carp at Chhenawan did not yield any important results. Owing to paucity of funds other fish-breeding stations remained closed. 900 Larvicidal fish were sent from the Chhenawan Fish Tanks to three different places for the control of Malaria. These fish have been found by experiments to devour about 100 Mosquito larvae each in one hour.

Travancore.

This State has affiliated fisheries to the Department of Agriculture and with the help of two officers trained in Madras and another officer trained in Japan, the Department has already accomplished a notable amount of development work. Special attention has been given to the regulation of fisheries in backwaters, to the establishment of co-operative societies among the fishing community and to the introduction of improved methods of sardine oil and guano production. Useful work has been done by one of the officers in elucidating the life-histories of the more valuable food fishes and prawns. Improved methods of curing fish are being introduced. Special Schools have been opened for the education of fisher lads.

The Forests.

Even in the earliest days of the British occupation the destruction of the forests in many parts of India indicated the necessity for a strong forest policy, but whether or not our earlier administrators realized the importance of the forests to the physical and economic welfare of the country, the fact remains that little or nothing was done. The year 1855 marked the commencement of a new era in the history of forestry in India, for it was then that Lord Dalhousie laid down a definite and far-sighted forest policy. Further progress was delayed for a time by the Mutiny, but from 1860 onwards forest organization was rapidly extended to the other provinces. The earlier years of forest administration were beset with difficulties, which is not surprising considering that the Department was charged with the unpopular duty of protecting the heritage of Nature from the rapacity of mankind—a duty which naturally roused the antagonism of the agricultural population of India. Exploration, demarcation and settlement, followed by efforts to introduce protection and some form of regular management, were the first duties of the Forest Department. Work on these lines, which is not yet completed in the more backward parts of the country, has been pursued steadily from the commencement, and in consequence large tracts of forest have been saved from ruin and are gradually being brought under efficient management. Whatever may have been the opinions held in some quarters half a century ago as to the need for a policy such as that expressed in Lord Dalhousie's memorable enunciation of 1855, there is no longer any doubt that results have amply justified the steps taken, and that in her forests India now possesses a property of constantly increasing value, the future importance of which it is hardly possible to overestimate.

Types of Forest.—More than one-fifth of the total area of British India (including the Shan States) is under the control of the Forest Department. These areas are classified as reserved, protected or unclassed State forests. In the reserved forests rights of user in favour of individuals and the public are carefully recorded and limited at settlement while the boundaries are defined and demarcated; in the protected forests the record of rights is not so complete, the accrual of rights after settlement not being prohibited, and the boundaries are not always demarcated; while in the unclassed forests no systematic management is attempted, and as a rule the control amounts to nothing more than the collection of revenue until the areas are taken up for cultivation or are converted into reserved or protected forests. The total forest area of British India (including the Shan States) on 31st March 1930 was 249,710 square miles or 22·6 of the total area. This was classed as follows: Reserved 107,753; Protected 6,263; Unclassed State 135,694.

Throughout this vast forest area, scattered over the length and breadth of India from the Himalayan snows to Cape Comorin and from the arid juniper tracts of Baluchistan to the eastern limits of the Shan States, there is, as may be imagined, an infinite variety in the types of forest vegetation, depending on variations of climate and soil and on other local factors. Broadly speaking, the following main types of forest may be distinguished:—

(1) Arid-country forests, extending over Sind, a considerable portion of Rajputana, part of Baluchistan and the south of the Punjab, in dry tracts where the rainfall is less than 20 inches. The number of species is few, the most important tree being the babul or kikar (*Acacia arabica*), which however in the driest regions exists only by the aid of river inundations.

(2) Deciduous forests, in which most of the trees are leafless for a portion of the year. These forests, which extend over large areas in the sub-Himalayan tract, the Peninsula of India and Burma, are among the most important, comprising as they do the greater part of the teak and sal forests.

(3) Evergreen forests.—These occur in regions of very heavy rainfall, such as the west coast of the Peninsula, the eastern sub-Himalayan tract, and the moisture parts of Burma and are characterized by the great variety and luxuriance of their vegetation.

(4) Hill forests.—In these the vegetation varies considerably according to elevation and rainfall. In the Eastern Himalaya, Assam and Burma, the hill forests are characterized by various oaks, magnolias and laurels, while in Assam and Burma the Khasia pine (*Pinus khasya*) grows gregariously at elevations of 3,000 to 7,000 feet. In the North-Western Himalaya the chief timber tree is the deodar (*Cedrus deodara*), which occurs most commonly at elevations of 6,000 to 8,000 feet, and in association with oaks or blue pine (*Pinus excelsa*); towards its upper limit the deodar merges into very large areas of spruce and silver fir, while below it are found extensive forests of the long-needled pine (*Pinus longifolia*) which is tapped for resin.

(5) Littoral forests.—These occur on the sea coast and along tidal creeks. The most characteristic trees belong to the mangrove family (*Rhizophoreae*). Behind the mangrove belt is an important type of forest occasionally inundated by high tides, in which the most valuable species is the "sundri" (*Heritiera fomes*).

Forest Policy.—The general policy of the Government of India in relation to forests was definitely laid down in 1894 by the classification of the areas under the control of the Department into four broad classes, namely:—

(*a*) Forests the preservation of which is essential on climatic or physical grounds. These are usually situated in hilly country where the retention of forest growth is of vital importance on account of its influence on the storage of the rainfall and on the prevention of erosion and sudden floods.

(*b*) Forests which afford a supply of valuable timbers for commercial purposes, such, for example, as the teak forests of Burma, the sail forests of Northern, Central, and North-Eastern India, and the deodar and pine forests of the North-Western Himalaya.

(*c*) Minor forests, containing somewhat inferior kinds of timber, and managed for the production of wood, fodder, grazing and other produce for local consumption; these forests are of great importance in agricultural districts.

(*d*) Pasture lands.—These are not "forests" in the generally understood sense of the term but grazing grounds managed by the Forest Department merely as a matter of convenience.

These four classes of forest are not always sharply divided from each other, and one and the same tract may to a certain extent be managed with more than one object.

Administration.—The forest business of the Government of India is carried out in the Department of Education, Health and Lands. The Inspector-General of Forests is also President of the Forest Research Institute at Dehra Dun and is the technical adviser to the Government of India in forest matters. Under the Constitution of 1919 Forests were made a transferred subject in Bombay and Burma, where they had long been administered by the Provincial Governments, and in 1924 the Reforms Inquiry Committee presided over by the late Sir Alexander Muddiman, Home Member of the Government of India, recommended that they be transferred in other provinces now unless any local Government on examination of the position can make out a convincing case against the transfer in its own province.

Territorial charges.—The various provinces are divided into one or more Forest Circles; each in charge of a Conservator of Forests; provinces containing three or more circles also have a Chief Conservator who is the head of the Department for his province. Circles are divided into a number of Forest Divisions, in charge of members of the Imperial or Provincial Forest Service; these Divisions in most cases correspond to civil districts. Each Division contains a number of Ranges in charge of junior members of the Provincial Service or of Forest Rangers or Deputy Rangers; heavy Divisions are also sometimes divided into Subdivisions. The Ranges are further subdivided into a number of beats or protective charges held by Forest Guards or in some cases by Foresters.

Non-territorial changes.—Apart from territorial changes there are various important posts of a non-territorial nature connected with Forest Research and Education, the preparation of Forest Working Plans, and other special duties.

The Forest Service.—The Forest Service comprises three branches:—

(1) The Indian (Imperial) Forest Service with a sanctioned total personnel of 379 officers consisting of the Inspector-General of Forests, Chief Conservators, Conservators, Deputy and Assistant Conservators. Of these 281 have been recruited direct to the service. The officers of this service are recruited as probationers subject to the following methods prescribed in the Indian Forest Service (Recruitment) Rules, 1928:—

(*a*) by nomination in England in accordance with such supplementary regulations as may be prescribed by the Secretary of State in Council.

(*b*) by competitive examination in India in accordance with such supplementary regulations as may be prescribed by the Governor-General in Council

(*c*) by direct appointment of persons selected in India otherwise than by competitive examination;

(*d*) by the promotion on the recommendation of local Governments of members of the Provincial Forest Services;

(*e*) by the transfer of promotion of an officer belonging to a branch of Government Service in India other than a Provincial Forest Service.

Further recruitment to the Indian Forest Service, whether by promotion or direct appointment, has been suspended until a decision is reached on the recommendation of the Services Sub-Committee of the Indian Round Table Conference in regard to the provincialisation of the Indian Forest Service.

In Bombay and Burma, where. Forest is a transferred subject new services called the Bombay and Burma Forest Services Class I, have been created to take the place of the Indian Forest Service.

(2) **The Indian Forest Engineering Service.**—This service was created in 1919 but since 1922 no further recruitment has been made. Some of the Forest Engineers have been transferred to the Indian Forest Service or the Indian Service of Engineers and some have resigned or have retired. The future strength is not expected to remain at more than three *i.e.* (one each in Bombay, Madras and Punjab).

(3) **The Provincial Service.**—Formerly it consisted of Extra Deputy and Extra Assistant Conservators of Forests. All Extra Deputy Conservators who were considered to be fully qualified to hold a major charge were transferred to the Indian Forest Service in 1920. The class of Extra Deputy Conservators has been abolished and the service now consists of Extra Assistant Conservators only. The fixation of the strength of the personnel of the service rests with the local Governments.

Officers of this service are eligible for promotion upto 25 per cent. of the posts in the Indian Forest Service in provinces other than Bombay and Burma, such promotion being made by the Secretary of State for India. These officers are recruited and trained in India, their

recruitment being a matter for the local Governments. A certain number of posts in the service are filled by the promotion of specially promising Rangers. Owing to the establishment of a course for the training of probationers for the Indian Forests Service at Dehra Dun since 1926, the Provincial Service course ceased to exist from 1928. The I. F. S. College has also closed down at the end of Oct. 1932 as a result of the stoppage of recruitment to the Indian Forest Service and as a measure of economy.

(4) The Subordinate Service consists of Forest Rangers (about 840), Deputy Rangers (about 900), Foresters (about 2,000) and Forest Guards (about 11,500). The Rangers are at present trained at three different centres—the Forest College at Dehra Dun (for provinces other than Burma, the Central Provinces, Bihar and Orissa, Bombay and Madras), the Burma Forest School at Pyinmana (for Burma), and the Madras Forest College at Coimbatore (for Madras, Bihar and Orissa, Bombay and the Central Provinces). These three institutions were established in 1878, 1898 and 1912, respectively. The training of subordinates below the rank of Ranger is carried out in various local forest schools and training classes.

Research.—For the first fifty years of the existence of the Forest Department in India no attempt was made to organize the conduct of forest research, and thus to co-ordinate and elaborate the scientific knowledge so necessary to successful economic working. A commencement in organized forest research was at last made in 1906 by the establishment, at the instance of Sir Sainthill Eardley-Wilmot, then Inspector-General of Forests, of a Forest Research Institute at Dehra Dun. The Forest Research Institute, is under the administrative control of the Inspector-General of Forests who is also the President. There are five main branches of research, namely Sylviculture, Forest Botany, Forest Economic Products, Entomology and Chemistry, each branch being in charge of a research officer. The Timber Testing expert is engaged temporarily on short term contract. Indian Assistants have been appointed to receive the necessary technical training and experience with the object of eventually taking the place of experts if and when properly qualified. The Wood Technology, Paper Pulp Wood Preservation and Seasoning Sections are in charge of Indian experts who have received special training in their various subjects in Europe and America.

As a result of Mr. R. S. Pearson's long and able administration of the Forest Economic Branch, the Government of India now have at Dehra Dun a series of forest workshops and experimental laboratories without parallel anywhere else in the world and official reports show that the value of the experimental work done in them is daily exemplified by the unending stream of inquiries received from persons doing business in timber and other forest products, not only in India but elsewhere in the world. The officers in charge of this branch received their training mostly in Europe and America and their efficiency is of a very high order.

Since 1906 research work has been prosecuted energetically so much so that in 1920 a new scheme was sanctioned for the expansion of the staff and site of the Institute. Since then new land has been acquired, on which new buildings have been built for accommodating the various expanded branches and the new machinery obtained from the United Kingdom. As a result of this, steady progress has been made in the investigations which should ultimately lead to the fuller and better utilization of the raw products produced by Indian forests. Unfortunately the need for retrenchment in all Government activities has stopped or curtailed many promising lines of investigation.

Forest Products.—Forest produce is divided into two main heads—(1) Major produce, that is timber and firewood, and (2) Minor produce, comprising all other products such as bamboos, leaves, fruits, fibres, grass, gums, resins, barks, animal and mineral products, etc. The average annual outturn of timber and fuel from all sources during the quinquennium ended 31st March 1931, the latest date for which statistics are available, was 353,863,000 cubic feet against an average of 361,172,000 cubic feet per annum attained in the preceding quinquennium. The annual outturn of timber and fuel from all sources during the quinquennium 1928-29 averaged 362,217,000 cubic feet against an average of 340,000,000 c. ft. during the preceding quinquennium. The trade in bamboos was almost stationary, with expectations of great development under commercial exploitation for paper pulp manufacture in the near future. The five years witnessed the initiation and development of certain large exploitation schemes, especially in Madras, which had indifferent success. It was hoped in Madras by utilising modern American methods to extract and utilise very large quantities of valuable timbers, but the final result proved that this extensive exploitation was justified neither by the stand of timber in the forests nor by the possibilities of satisfying markets. The Provincial Government after this experience adopted a more cautious policy.

An important measure for the development of forests in the Andamans was sanctioned by the Government of India. Hitherto, elephants had been employed for extraction of timber, with the result that only the fringe of the forests could be touched. The new plan is for the employment of American methods. American logging machinery was purchased and an American expert engaged to take charge of the work. Owing, however, to the wide-spread depression in the timber trade the employment of mechanical methods for the extraction of timber have been suspended for the present. Elsewhere in India a great part of the trade in timber lies in the hands of contractors who are regarded as on the whole trustworthy if sufficient control over their operations is maintained.

Forest Industries.—The important rôle which the forests of a country play in its general commercial welfare and in providing employment for its population is not always fully recognized. Fifteen years ago it was estimated that in Germany work in the forests provided employment for 1,000,000 persons while 3,000,000 persons, earning £30,000,000 a year, were employed in working up the raw

material yielded by the forests. If accurate estimates were available for India, they would no doubt show that apart from the jungle population which is directly dependent on the forests and the large numbers of wood-cutters, sawyers, carters, carriers, raftsmen and others working in and near them, employment on an enormous scale is provided to persons engaged in working up the raw products. Among these latter may be mentioned carpenters, wheelwrights, coopers, boat-builders, tanners, rope-makers, lac-manufacturers, basket-makers, and many other classes of skilled labourers. The Indian census shows over a million people and their dependents so employed in British India and nearly a further half million in Indian States, but these are probably below the actuals, as much forest labour is not whole-time labour, devoting seven or eight months in the year to forest work and the rest to agriculture. With the opening up of the forests, the extension of systematic working, the wider use of known products, and the possible discovery of new products, a steady and extensive development of industries dependent on the forests of India may be confidently anticipated in the future.

Financial Results.—The steady growth of forest revenue, expenditure and surplus during the past 65 years is shown in the following statement, which gives annual averages for quinquennial periods:—

Financial Results of Forest Administration in British India from 1864-65 *to* 1928-29 *(in lakhs of rupees).*

Quinquennial period.	(Gross revenue average per annum).	(Expenditure average per annum).	Surplus (average per annum).	Percentage of surplus to gross revenue.
	Lakhs.	Lakhs.	Lakhs.	Lakhs.
1864–65 to 1868–69	27·4	23·8	13·6	36·4
1869–70 to 1873–74	56·3	39·3	17·0	30·2
1874–75 to 1878–79	66·6	45·8	20·8	31·2
1879–80 to 1883–84	88·2	56·1	32·1	36·4
1884–85 to 1888–89	116·7	74·3	42·4	36·2
1889–90 to 1893–94	159·5	86·0	73·5	46·1
1894–95 to 1898–99	177·2	93·0	79·2	44·7
1899–1900 to 1903–04	196·6	112·7	83·9	42 7
1904–05 to 1908–09	257·0	141·0	116·0	45·1
1909–10 to 1913–14	296·0	163·7	132·3	44·7
1914–15 to 1918–19	371·3	211·1	160·2	43·1
1919–20 to 1923–24	551·7	367·1	184·6	33·5
1924–25 to 1928–29	595·4	351·1	244·2	40·9

Most of the provinces show a steady increase of surplus. The slump in trade of the last few years was evident in the surplus for the year 1930-31 which fell to 121 lakhs from a previous "peak" figure of 273 lakhs in 1926-27. The figure, however, is still a most favourable one and indicates that the forests of India are being properly worked for the benefit of the country, with the passing of the current world-wide depression the temporary set back in financial results may be expected to disappear.

Agencies.—An agency has been established in India by the Government of India for the sale of Government timber and it is at present held by Messrs. Martin & Co., Calcutta. The agency held in England by Messrs. W. W. Howard Brothers terminated in December 1926 and the work of marketing Indian timbers in England (especially Andaman timbers) is now done under the direction of a Timber Adviser who is attached to the Office of the High Commissioner for India. This trade has not yet been raised to a satisfactory level, because, according to the official explanation, "the intense conservatism in English timber trade and the difficulty of obtaining a footing for little known timbers have combined to make satisfactory sales very difficult.

Bibliography.—A large number of bulletins and other publications has been issued by the Forest Research Institute, and of these a list can be obtained from the President, Forest Research Institute and College, New Forest, Dehra Dun, U. P.

Province.	Area of Province.	Reserved Forests.	Protected Forests.	Unclassed State Forests, &c.†	Total.	Per centage of Forests to whole Area of Province.	Outturn of Produce.		Revenue.	Expenditure.	Surplus.
							Timber and Fuel.	Minor Produce.			
	Sq. miles.	Sq. miles.	Sq. miles.	Sq. miles.	Sq. miles.	Per cent.	Cub. ft.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Madras	1,42,302	15,617	453	..	16,070	11.2	22,028,000	15,29,891	42,54,874	39,89,887	2,64,987
Bombay	1,23,245	13,716	1,152	..	14,868	12.0	52,783,000	19,08,899	56,73,847	40,66,782	1,607,065
Bengal	75,885	6,561	673	3,445	10,679	14.0	19,581,000	5,18,222	16,94,479	16,61,044	33,435
United Provinces	1,06,720	5,195	4	37	5,236	4.9	31,444,000	15,25,003	45,28,923	26,44,164	18,84,759
Punjab	96,830	1,552	3,205	521	5,278	5.4	33,350,000	18,25,195	22,84,209	21,04,402	1,39,807
Burma (Including Federated Shan States) ..	(a) 2,43,515	34,449	..	1,11,757	1,46,206	53.5	83,036,000	7,75,115	1,13,96,019	66,52,310	47,43,709
Bihar and Orissa	83,083	1,838	1,177	2	3,017	3.6	11,402,000	2,50,260	6,28,013	7,63,257	—1,35,244
Central Provinces & Berar	99,973	19,613	..	..	19,613	19.6	31,401,000	22,53,259	44,47,111	34,53,164	9,93,947
Assam	55,445	6,145	..	14,817	20,962	37.8	13,401,000	5,46,795	19,27,078	16,11,208	3,15,870
North-West Frontier Province	18,184	245	..	..	245	1.8	2,876,000	52,475	7,31,285	7,53,898	—22,613
Baluchistan (portions under British Administration)..	54,228	316	..	472	788	1.4	5,18,916	57,739	27,976	34,686	—6,710
Ajmer-Merwara	2,767	142	..	..	142	5.1	5,47,118	47,697	87,587	87,684	— 97
Coorg	1,582	519	18	..	537	33.9	3,67,476	27,846	4,85,821	2,28,515	2,57,306
Andamans and Nicobar ..	3,143	52	..	2,138	2,190	69.6	3,176,028	9,001	14,51,463	12,31,667	2,19,796
Total (1931-32) ..	1,101,902	1,05,960	6,682	1,33,189	2,45,831	22.3	3,05,911,538	1,13,27,397	3,96,07,777 (c)	3,00,74,924 (d)	95,32,853 (e)
1930–31 ..	11,02,602	1,07,753	6,263	1,35,694	2,49,710	22.6	32,28,52,829	1,25,86,854	4,72,86,859	3,52,05,803	1,20,81,056
1929–30 ..	11,03,491	1,07,353	6,298	1,35,503	2,49,154	22.6	35,00,63,521	1,50,83,945	6,13,22,361	3,63,35,513	2,49,86,846
1928–29 ..	11,03,593	1,06,849	6,308	1,36,665	2,49,822	22.7	36,41,89,585	1,51,78,316	5,78,09,143	3,50,61,269	2,27,47,874
1927–28 ..	11,03,579	1,05,588	7,658	1,36,864	2,50,110	22.6	37,01,73,767	1,43,15,363	6,13,00,136	3,56,84,654	2,65,48,453
Totals 1926–27 ..	11,00,146 b	1,02,218	8,626 b	1,16,303	2,27,147	20.6	36,20,35,906	1,45,87,903	6,19,64,731	3,56,06,316	2,73,10,639
1925–26 ..	10,99,388 b	1,01,953	8,405 b	1,17,292	2,27,650	20.7	41,06,17,323	1,43,11,941	5,98,70,825	3,39,63,202	2,69,86,633
1924–25 ..	10,99,972 b	1,03,764	8,278 b	1,17,854	2,29,896	20.8	25,52,89,800	1,37,13,591	5,67,44,683	3,54,31,978	2,26,12,964
1923–24 ..	11,00,112	1,03,449	7,931	1,17,470	2,28,850	20.8	35,45,34,164	1,48,42,307	5,44,91,224	3,49,30,281	1,95,60,943
1922–23 ..	11,00,902	1,00,922	7,238	1,15,540	2,23,704	20.3	34,99,58,974	1,45,71,518	5,52,14,072	3,95,72,604	1,56,41,468

* Excludes Delhi Province and the British Pargana of Manpur (Central India).

† Unclassed state forests or public forest lands as they are often called, include in many provinces all unoccupied waste, often entirely devoid of trees. So the statistics do not necessarily represent the wooded area.

(a) Includes 60,615 square miles for Federated Shan States.

(b) Excluding figures for Shan States and Karrenni.

(c) Includes Rs. 29,092 on account of receipts under the head Forest Research Institute and College.

(d) Includes expenditure under heads Imperial (Rs. 59,082), Forest Research Institute and College (Rs. 7,33,174).

(e) After taking into account deficits under Imperial (Rs. 59,082), Forest Research Institute and College (Rs. 7,04,082).

WIRELESS TELEGRAPHY AND TELEPHONY.

Beam Stations.—The year 1927 saw the commencement of Beam wireless services on the Marconi system between India and the United Kingdom. Powerful transmitting and receiving stations erected at Poona and Dhond respectively by the Indian Radio Telegraph Company are connected by land lines with the Central Telegraph Office in Bombay, whilst stations at Skegness and Grimsby are similarly connected with the General Post Office in London, and the circuits are so arranged that messages are exchanged between Bombay and London without intermediate handling at the Beam stations at either end. The huge aerial systems at Poona and Dhond, each supported on five steel towers 287 feet in height, are landmarks over a distance of many miles. The service was inaugurated by His Excellency the Viceroy on 23rd July 1927 at the Central Telegraph Office, Bombay, when His Excellency transmitted a message to the King and His Majesty's reply was received a few minutes later.

It is noteworthy that the opening of the Beam wireless service coincided with a reduction in rates by the cable companies. The Eastern Telegraph Co., which operates the cable from Europe to India, has become merged in the New Imperial and International Communications Ltd.

For reasons of economy, most of the inland wireless stations in India were practically closed down and placed in charge of "Care and Maintenance" parties which carry out tests twice a month, the exceptions being Peshawar Radio, which always maintained official communication with Kabul in Afghanistan and Kashgar in China, and Jotogh Radio, which receives British Official Wireless sent out from Oxford and Rugby and passes the messages to Reuter's Agency for distribution to subscribing newspapers. The stations at Delhi and Allahabad have now been equipped with apparatus to enable them to function as aeronautical wireless stations and they are used as such. New wireless stations for aeronautical purposes have been erected at Jodhpur in Bikaner, and Gaya. The wireless installations at Karachi and Calcutta have been modified so as to meet all the Wireless requirements of aircraft passing over India. New stations equipped for aeronautical communication purposes are under construction at Chittagong, Akyab, Sandoway and Bassein.

The coast stations, however, have been maintained in a state of high efficiency and many improvements effected. The application of the Baudot system to the high-speed continuous-wave wireless stations at Madras Fort and Mingaladon (Rangoon) has proved extremely satisfactory, and a large portion of the traffic between Southern India and Burma is regularly worked by this direct route instead of the circuitous route *via* Calcutta. The traffic is interrupted occasionally by atmospheric interference, particularly during the hot weather but the difficulties have been largely overcome by handspeed working during the worst periods.

For many years the Bombay stations known as Bombay Radio was located on Butcher Island in the Harbour, but during 1927 a fine new station equipped with modern apparatus was erected and taken into service at Santa Cruz, just outside the limits of Bombay Municipality.

Radio telegrams exchanged with ships at sea by coast stations in India and Burma continue to increase in number, and now total about 30,000 per annum. Official telegrams are exchanged with the British Naval station at Matara (Ceylon) *via* Bombay Radio. Regular services are also maintained between Burma and the Malay Peninsula *via* Rangoon and Penang and between Burma and Sumatra, whilst radio traffic is passed between Madras and Colombo when the normal route is interrupted.

Wireless telephonic communication between pilot vessels, lighthouses and shore stations are maintained by the Port Trusts at Bombay and Rangoon. In March 1931, telephonic communication between Bombay and London was established for the first time. The conversations were initiated from the s.s. *Belgenland* a tourist ship lying in Bombay Harbour and were made possible through the courtesy of Standard Telephones and Cables Limited in conjunction with the International Marine Radio Company.

Safety at Sea.—A noticeable feature of wireless development during the past two years has been the provision of direction-finding apparatus at Bombay and Karachi and facilities at other coast stations whereby ships at sea equipped with direction-finding apparatus can obtain bearings on coast stations and thus determine their position with a remarkable degree of accuracy. The latest style of Marcony beacon was erected on Kennedy Island during 1931 to guide shipping approaching Bombay harbour. All Ships equipped with wireless direction finders will now be able to obtain exact knowledge of their whereabouts at a distance of 150 miles from the coast. The beacon is an experiment and is likely to be the first of many others along the coast of India. Improved arrangements for broadcasting time signals, weather reports and navigational warnings from coast stations have also proved of value to ships at sea.

Broadcasting.—For several years, limited broadcasting services were maintained by Radio Clubs in Calcutta, Bombay, Madras, Karachi and Rangoon, and although the transmitting sets employed by them were of very low power, the broadcasts were tuned-in over practically the whole of India. The clubs were assisted financially by a Government contribution based upon the revenue from license fees, but this did not nearly suffice to cover the cost of the transmissions, and the greatest credit is due to the members of those clubs for the sporting manner in which they provided additional funds and undertook the entire responsibility for the programmes. Credit is also due to the Indian States and Eastern Agency for the loan of transmitting apparatus, without which the broadcasts would have been impossible.

After negotiations extending over several years, an Indian Broadcasting Company was granted a license to establish broadcasting services upon lines similar to those of the British Broadcasting Corporation, and transmitting stations were erected in Bombay and Calcutta.

the services at the former being inaugurated by His Excellency the Viceroy in July 1927 and the latter by the Governor of Bengal a month later. These stations had each an aerial input of three kilowatts, the same as that of the 2LO stations in London, of which they are practically duplicates. The programmes were so arranged that both Indian and European music are broadcast daily and the news bulletins and market and weather reports are read in two languages.

Bombay broadcasts normally on a wavelength of 3502 metres, and Calcutta on 370·4 and 49·10 metres. Reception in either of these cities, and for a distance of twenty or thirty miles around, is possible on crystal sets, of which a very large number have been sold. Valve sets are necessary for those living further afield, but although there has been a considerable demand for these, the sales have not reached expectation. One of the greatest difficulties in India is the maintenance of batteries, which is no inconsiderable item when sets containing five or six valves are employed.

The Indian Broadcasting Company was wound up in 1930 and its operations have since been conducted by the Government of India, in the Industries and Labour Department. Government for this purpose formed an Indian State Broadcasting Service and instituted a Central Broadcasting Advisory Committee, representative of the non-official public in association with the Departmental officials, to keep them in touch with public opinion. The Committee has as its chairman the Member of the Viceroy's Executive Council in charge of the Subject (now the Hon. Sir Joseph Bhore) and upon it sit at the present time Messrs. N. B. Macbeth and N. M. Dumasia, M.L.A., Bombay; H. H. Reylands and K. C. Neogy, M.L.A., Calcutta; M. R. Coburn, Financial Adviser to Government in the Posts and Telegraphs Department and B. Rama Rao, Joint Secretary to Government in the Industries and Labour Dept. It is now proposed to establish a series of additional broadcasting stations in different parts of India so as to spread broadcasting receivable on low-powered sets throughout the land. Important proposals with this purpose in view were discussed by the Advisory Committee in Calcutta in December, 1930. An event of considerable importance was Bombay's broadcast to the world on December 13, 1933. This broadcast, played from the Empire Station, gave listeners in Europe their first opportunity of hearing a typical Indian programme.

Licenses.—Broadcast receiving licenses are issued at Head Post Offices at a fee of ten rupees per year, and cover the use of receiving sets throughout British India except Baluchistan and the North-West Frontier Province. Licenses for fixed stations for transmitting and experimental purposes are much sought after, and despite a careful scrutiny of the applicants, more than 300 have been issued. The number of traders in wireless apparatus who are required to take out special Import licenses has increased considerably during the past year. This improvement must be ascribed primarily to the commencement of broadcasting.

Prospects.—The Government of India have always encouraged the development of wireless in India by private enterprise and to this source that India may look in the future for considerably increased internal radio communication. There are two most promising lines of development, *viz.*—

(*a*) Erection of small sets either for speech or morse in districts where no land lines exist, and to link such districts with the existing landlines. In this connection it may be remarked that modern small radio sets are capable of using either morse or speech at will and if used for speech can be operated by the ordinary desk telephone instrument in daily use all over India.

(*b*) The use of radio as a substitute for landline to form the trunk telephone route between two cities which already have telephone facilities.

These would, it is thought, open up a new industry which if properly forstered would very soon extend its sales outside the limits of India. It is believed that the majority of parts for small radio sets could be more cheaply manufactured in this country than they can be imported and such an industry would find the right kind of skilled labour already in India.

Radio Telephone Service.—An event of considerable importance was the inauguration of the radio telephone service between India and England on May 1, 1933, when His Excellency Sir Frederick Sykes, Governor of Bombay, and Sir Samuel Hoare, Secretary of State for India, exchanged messages as a preliminary to the opening of the service to the public.

The service is based upon the beam wireless system which has been operated successfully for the past six years by the Indian Radio and Cable Communications Company between India and the United Kingdom and, since the beginning of this year, between India and Japan. Initially, the radio telephone service was limited to Bombay and Poona at the Indian end and to the United Kingdom at the other, but facilities for conversation with other places were speedily arranged, and within a month it was possible for people in Bombay to speak to the United States, Canada, Australia, South Africa and many other parts of the world. Similarly, there is a gradual extension of the area covered in India, and when the improvement of the land lines has been completed, nearly every important city will be in direct telephonic communication with England and the rest of the world.

Many technical problems are involved in the perfection of the India-England wireless telephone, not the least of which is the ensuring of secrecy. When the service was first opened, reports from ordinary broadcast listeners in all parts of the country and as far afield as Ceylon indicated that conversations could be "tapped" with the greatest ease, but later "secrecy gear" was installed.

Any private telephone owner will be able to use the service for an overseas call. Before doing so, however, he will have to place a deposit of Rs. 100 with the Divisonal Engineer, Telegraphs, Bombay.

The charge for a 3 minutes' conversation to (*a*) places in England, Scotland and Wales is Rs. 80; (*b*) Northern Ireland (Dublin) and the Isle of Man, Rs. 84. Each additional minute's conversation to places under (*a*) will cos Rs. 26-11 and to (*b*) Rs. 28.

The Press.

The newspaper Press in India is an essentially English institution and was introduced soon after the task of organising the administration was seriously taken in hand by the English in Bengal. In 1773 was passed the Regulating Act creating the Governor-Generalship and the Supreme Court in Bengal and within seven years at the end of the same decade, the first newspaper was started in Calcutta by an Englishman in January 1780. Exactly a century and a third has elapsed since, not a very long period certainly, a period almost measured by the life of a single newspaper, *The Times*, which came into existence only five years later in 1785; but then the period of British supremacy is not much longer, having commenced at Plassey, only twenty-three years earlier. Bombay followed Calcutta closely, and Madras did not lag much behind. In 1789 the first Bombay newspaper appeared, *The Bombay Herald*, followed next year by *The Bombay Courier*, a paper now represented by *The Times of India* with which it was amalgamated in 1861. In Bombay the advent of the press may be said to have followed the British occupation of the island much later than was the case in Calcutta. In Calcutta the English were on sufferance before Plassey, but in Bombay they were absolute masters after 1665, and it is somewhat strange that no Englishman should have thought of starting a newspaper during all those hundred and twenty-five years before the actual advent of *The Herald*.

The first newspaper was called *The Bengal Gazette* which is better known from the name of its founder as *Hicky's Gazette* or *Journal*. Hicky like most pioneers had to suffer for his enterprising spirit, though the fault was entirely his own, as he made his paper a medium of publishing gross scandal, and he and his journal disappeared from public view in 1782. Several journals rapidly followed Hicky's, though they did not fortunately copy its bad example. *The Indian Gazette* had a career of over half a century, when in 1833 it was merged into the *Bengal Harkaru*, which came into existence only a little later, and both are now represented by *The Indian Daily News* with which they were amalgamated in 1866. No fewer than five papers followed in as many years, the *Bengal Gazette* of 1780, and one of these, *The Calcutta Gazette*, started in February 1784, under the avowed patronage of Government, flourishes still as the official gazette of the Bengal Government.

In 1821 a syndicate of European merchants and officials commenced the publication of *John Bull in the East*, a daily paper which was intended to reflect Tory opinion in India and set an example to the Press generally in the matter of moderation and restraint. The name of this journal was altered to *The Englishman* by the famous Stocqueler in 1836.

From its commencement the press was jealously watched by the authorities, who put serious restraints upon its independence and pursued a policy of discouragement and rigorous control. Government objected news of apparently the most trivial charac affecting its servants. From 1791 to 17 several editors were deported to Europe wi out trial and on short notice, whilst seve more were censured and had to apologi At the commencement of the rule of Welles Government promulgated stringent rules the public press and instituted an official cens to whom everything was to be submitted befo publication, the penalty for offending again these rules to be immediate deportation. The regulations continued in force till the time the Marquis of Hastings who in 1818 abolishe the censorship and substituted milder rule

This change proved beneficial to the statu of the press, for henceforward self-respectin and able men began slowly but steadily t join the ranks of journalism, which had til then been considered a low profession. Sill Buckingham, one of the ablest and best know of Anglo-Indian journalists of those days availed himself of this comparative freedom to criticise the authorities, and under the short administration of Adam, a civilian who tem porarily occupied Hastings' place, he was de ported under rules specially passed. But Lord Amherst and still more Lord William Bentinck were persons of broad and liberal views, and under them the press was left prac tically free, though there existed certain regu lations which were not enforced, though Lord Clare, who was Governor of Bombay from 1831 to 1835, once strongly but in vain urged the latter to enforce them. Metcalfe who suc ceeded for a brief period Bentinck, removed even these regulations, and brought about what is called the emancipation of the press in India in 1835, which was the beginning of a new era in the history of the Indian press. Among papers that came into being, was the *Bombay Times* which was started towards the close of 1838 by the leading merchants of Bombay, and which in 1861 changed its name to the *Times of India*. *The Bombay Gazette*, founded in 1791, ceased publication in 1914.

The liberal spirit in which Lord Hastings had begun to deal with the press led not only to the improvement in the tone and status of the Anglo-Indian press, but also to the rise of the Native or Indian Press. The first newspaper in any Indian language was the *Samachar Durpan* started by the famous Serampore Missionaries Ward, Carey and Marshman in 1818 in Bengali, and it received encouragement from Hastings who allowed it to circulate through the post office at one-fourth the usual rates. This was followed in 1822 by a purely native paper in Bombay called the *Bombay Samachar* which still exists, and thus was laid the foundation of the Native Indian Press which at the present day is by far the largest part of the press in India, numbering over 650 papers.

From 1835 to the Mutiny the press spread to other cities like Delhi, Agra, Gwalior, and even Lahore, whereas formerly it was chiefly confined to the Presidency towns. During

the Mutiny its freedom had to be temporarily controlled by the Gagging Act which Canning passed in June 1857 on account of the license of a very few papers, and owing still more to the fears of its circulating intelligence which might be prejudicial to public interests. The Act was passed only for a year at the end of which the press was once more free.

On India passing to the Crown in 1858, an era of prosperity and progress opened for the whole country in which the press participated. There were 19 Anglo-Indian papers at the beginning of this period in 1858 and 25 Native papers and the circulation of all was very small. The number of the former did not show a great rise in the next generation, but the rise in influence and also circulation was satisfactory. Famous journalists like Robert Knight, James Maclean and Hurris Mookerji flourished in this generation. The *Civil and Military Gazette* was originally published in Simla as a weekly paper, the first issue being dated June 22nd. 1872. Prior to and in the days of the Mutiny the most famous paper in Northern India was the *Mofussilite*, originally published at Meerut, but afterwards at Agra and then at Ambala. After a lively existence for a few years in Simla the *Civil and Military Gazette* acquired and incorporated the *Mofussilite*, and in 1876 the office of the paper was transferred from Simla to Lahore, and the *Gazette* began to be published daily.

INDIAN PRESS LAW.

Before 1835 all printing of books and paper was subject to licence by the Governor-General in Council, and the licences were issued or refused at the discretion of Government. Act XI of 1835 repealed the old Regulations and merely required registration of the printer and made a few minor requirements. That Act was replaced in 1867 by the present Press and Registration of Books Act, and, except for an Act which was in force for one year during the Mutiny, there was no further legislation directly affecting the Press until 1878 when the Vernacular Press Act was passed. That Act was repealed during the Viceroyalty of Lord Ripon in 1882. From that date until 1907 Government made no attempt to interfere directly with the liberty of the Press, the growth of sedition being dealt with in other ways by the passing in 1898 of section 124A of the Penal Code in its present form, which had been originally enacted in 1870, and by the introduction into the Penal Code of section 153A and into the Criminal Procedure Code of section 108. There were a certain number of prosecutions under those sections up to 1907, but the dissemination of sedition through the Press continued. In 1908 the Newspaper (Incitement to Offences) Act was passed which dealt with papers inciting to murder or to acts of violence. This Act failed to have the desired effect.

The Indian Press Act, 1910, was a measure of wider scope, the main object of which was to ensure that the Indian press generally should be kept within the limits of legitimate discussion.

The Act deals, not only with incitements to murder and acts of violence, but also with other specified classes of published matter, including any words or signs tending to seduce soldiers or sailors from their allegiance or duty, to bring into hatred or contempt the British Government, any Native Prince, or any section of His Majesty's subjects in India, or to intimidate public servants or private individuals.

The different sections of the Act have in view (i) Control over presses and means of publication; (ii) control over publishers of newspapers; (iii) control over the importation into British India and the transmission by the post of objectionable matter; (iv) the suppression of seditious or objectionable newspapers; books, or other documents wherever found.

Repeal of Press Legislation.—By the autumn of 1917 the Government of India had begun to consider the desirability of modifying at least one section of the Press Act to which great exception had been taken on account of the wide powers that it gave. Finally, after more than once consulting Local Government, a Committee was appointed in February 1921 after a debate in the Legislative Assembly, to examine the Press and Registration of Books Act, 1867, and the Indian Press Act, 1910, and report what modifications were required in the existing law. That Committee made an unanimous report in July 1921, recommending:—

(1) The Press Act should be repealed.

(2) The Newspapers Incitements to Offences Act should be repealed.

(3) The Press and Registration of Books Act and the Post Office Act should be amended where necessary to meet the conclusion noted below: (*a*) The name of the editor should be inscribed on every issue of a newspaper and the editor should be subject to the same liabilities as the printer and publisher, as regards criminal and civil responsibilities; (*b*) any person registering under the Press and Registration of Books Act should be a major as defined by the Indian Majority Act; (*c*) local Governments should retain the power of confiscating openly seditious leaflets, subject to the owner of the press or any other person aggrieved being able to protest before a court and challenge the seizure of such document, in which case the local Government ordering the confiscation should be called upon to prove the seditious character of the documents. The powers conferred by Sections 13 to 15 of the Press Act should be retained. Customs and Postal officers being empowered to seize seditious literature within the meaning of Section 124A of the I. P. C. subject to review on the part of the local Government and challenge by any persons interested in the courts; (*e*) any person challenging the orders of Government should do so in the local High Court; (*f*) the term of imprisonment prescribed in Sections 12, 13, 14 and 15 of the Press and Registration of Books Act should be reduced to six months, (*g*) the provisions of Section 16 of the Press Act should be reproduced in the Press and Registration of Books Act.

Effect was given to these recommendations during the year 1922:

Press Association of India.—At the end of 1915 this Association was formed in Bombay. According to the articles of constitution "Its objects shall be to protect the press of the country by all lawful means from arbitrary laws and their administration, from all attempts of the Legislature to encroach on its liberty or of the executive authorities to interfere with the free exercise of their calling by journalists and press proprietors, and for all other purposes of mutual help and protection which may be deemed advisable from time to time." Members pay a minimum subscription of Rs. 10 annually. The affairs of the Association are managed by a Council.

Number of Printing Presses at Work and Number of Newspapers, Periodicals, and Books Published.

Province.	Printing Presses.	Newspapers.	Periodicals.	Books. In English or other European Languages.	Books. In Indian Languages (Vernacular and Classical) or in more than one Language.
Madras	(a)1,763	(a) 328	1,018	723	2,847
Bombay (d)	1,181	415	523	204	2,234
Bengal	1,248	208	314	811	3,092
United Provinces	785	202	248	337	3,025
Punjab	500	283	280	122	1,488
Burma	343	59	165	8	144
Bihar and Orissa	237	54	58	97	785
Central Provinces and Berar ..	(b) 192	(c) 74	43	10	182
Assam	69	24	25	1	63
North-West Frontier Province ..	28	8	3	4	4
Ajmer-Merwara (d)	32	18	9	19	83
Coorg	5	2	2	....	....
Delhi	137	33	72	17	127
Total, 1929-30 ..	6,520	1,708	2,760	2,353	14,084
Totals .. 1929-30 ..	6,385	1,693	3,057	2,335	13,935
1927-28 ..	5,919	1,525	2,954	2,332	14,815
1926-27 ..	5,724	1,485	3,627	2,147	15,246
1925-26 ..	5,362	1,378	3,089	2,117	14,276
1924-25 ..	5,312	1,401	3,146	2,302	14,728
1923-24 ..	4,909	1,363	2,888	2,237	13,802
1922-23 ..	4,509	1,282	2,559	1,951	12,804
1921-22 ..	4,083	1,094	2,252	1,856	11,807
1920-21 ..	3,795	1,017	2,297	1,690	10,105

(a) Relate to the Calendar year 1931.
(b) Includes 14 Presses which are reported either closed or not working.
(c) This includes 43 periodicals which are treated as newspapers as they contain public news or comments on public news.
(d) Figures relate to the Calendar year 1930.

Newspapers and News Agencies registered under the Press Rules and arranged alphabetically according to Station where they are published and situated.

Stations.	Title in full.	Day of going to Press.
Agra	Agra Akhbar	Wednesdays.
	Agra Daily Commercial Report ..	Daily.
	Daily Vyaparik Report	Daily.
	Ehsas	Every Thursday.
	Prem Pracharak	Thursdays.
	Sanadhyap Karak	On the 3rd and 18th of every month.
Ahmedabad	Ahmedabad and Bombay Market Daily Report	Daily, except Sundays.
	Ahmedabad Samachar	Daily.
	Associated Press of India	....
	Gujarati Punch	Saturdays.
	Gujarat Samachar	Daily.
	Navajivan	Fridays.
	Political Bhomiyo	Thursdays.
	Praja Bandhu	Saturdays.
	Sandesh	Daily.
	The Daily Business Report ..	Daily.
	Young India	Thursdays.
Ajmer	Agarwal Samachar	On Saturday.
	Arya Martand	Daily.
	Jain Jagat	12th and 17th of every month.
Akola, Berar	Praja Paksha	Saturdays.
Akyab	Arakan News	Tuesdays and Fridays.
Aligarh	Aligarh Institute Gazette ..	Wednesdays.
Allahabad	Abhyudaya	Fridays.
	Bharatwasi	On 1st and 15th of every month.
	Free Press of India	....
	Hindustan Review	On first of every month.
	Leader	Daily, except Mondays.
	The Star	Every Monday.
Allahabad Katra ..	Stri Dharam Shikshak	Monthly
Alleppey	Travancore Publicity Bureau ..	....
Amraoti	Udaya	Mondays.
Amritsar	Akali te Pardesi	Daily, except Sundays.
	Daily Beopar Samachar	Daily.
	Daily Musawat	Daily.
	Daily Sikh Sewak	Daily.
	Daily Vakil	....
	Free Press of India	....
	Punjab Press Bureau	....
	Qaumi Dard	Daily.
	States Press of India	....
	Tanzeem	Daily.
Amroha	Ittihad	Saturdays.
Asansol	Ratnakar	Sundays.

Stations.	Title in full.	Day of going to Press.
Bagalkot	Kannadiga	Thursdays.
	Navina Bharat	Tuesdays.
Bagerhat	Jagaran	Sundays.
Bangalore	Bangalore Mail	Daily, except Sundays.
	Daily Post	Daily.
	Kasim-ul-Akhbar	Mondays and Thursdays.
	Loka Hithaisi	Daily.
	Quick Silver Racing News	On 1st and 15th of every month
	Truth	Mondays and Thursdays.
	Veera Kesari	Daily, except Sundays.
Bangalore City	Evening Mail	Wednesdays and Thursdays.
	Navajeevana	Daily, except Sundays.
	New Mysore	On Saturdays.
	Prajamitra	Daily, except Sundays.
	Tai Nadu	Daily, except Sundays.
Barisal	Barisal	Every Monday.
	Barisal Hitaishi	Sundays.
Baroda	Shree Sayaji Vijaya	Thursdays.
Bassein, Burma	Bassein News	Tuesdays and Fridays.
	Zabumingala	Weekly.
Beawar	Tarun Rajasthan	Weekly.
	The Young Rajasthan	Every Wednesday.
Belgaum	Belgaum Samachar	Mondays.
	Karnatak Vritta	Every Tuesday.
	Samyukta Karnatak	Every Thursday.
Benares City	Aj	Daily.
	Awazal Khalk	Every Wednesday.
	Bharat Jiwan	Sundays.
	Brahman Maha Sammelan Pandit Patro	On Thursdays.
	Farz Hind	On Wednesdays.
	Hindi Kesari	Thursdays.
	Varnasrama	On Mondays and Fridays.
Berhampur, Ganjam	Bharati Patrika	Daily, except Sundays.
	Dainikasha	Daily.
	Nabeen	Every Friday.
Bezwada	Sunday News	Every Sunday.
Bhavnagar	Jain	Saturdays.
	Market News	Daily, except Sundays.
Bhiwani	Sandesh	Sundays.
Bijapur	Karnatak Vaibhav	Saturdays.
Bijnor	Daily Madina	Daily.
	District Gazette	On 1st and 15th of each month.
	Kamal	On 1st and 15th of each month.
	Mansoor	On 1st, 8th, 16th and 24th of each month.
	Nijat	Bi-Weekly.
	Risal Tapil	Monthly.

Stations.	Title in full.	Day of going to Press.
Bijnor—*contd.*	The Co-Operative Journal ..	Monthly.
	The Madina Newspaper	On 1st, 5th, 9th, 13th, 17th, 21st, 25th and 28th of every month.
	Tofai Hind	On 4th, 11th, 18th and 25th of each month.
	Vir	On 1st and 15th of each month.
Bombay	Bombay Chronicle	Daily.
	Bombay Samachar	Daily.
	Bombay Sentinel	Daily.
	Breul Co.'s Market Report ..	Daily, except Sundays.
	Catholic Examiner	Saturdays.
	Daily Bombay Commercial Report	On Wednesday and Sunday.
	Daily Commercial News	Daily.
	Daily Cotton Market Report ..	Daily, except Sundays.
	Daily Market Bulletin	Daily, on Week days.
	Dainik Vepar Samachar	Daily.
	Dnyana Prakash	Daily, except Mondays.
	East Indian Cotton Market Report	Every Friday.
	Evening News of India	Daily.
	Free Press Journal	Daily, except Mondays.
	Goa Mail	Saturdays.
	Gujarati	Saturdays.
	Gujarati Kesari	Wednesays.
	Hindusthan and Prajamitra ..	Daily.
	Illustrated Sunday News ..	Saturdays.
	Illustrated Weekly of India ..	Sundays.
	Indian Industries and Power ..	On the 15th, each month.
	Indian Racing News	On Thursdays and according to Mail week race fixtures.
	Indian Social Reformer	Saturdays.
	Indian States Journal	Every Friday.
	Indian Textile Journal	Monthly.
	Ismaili	Every Saturday.
	Jain Prakash	Every Saturday.
	Jam-e-Jamshed	Daily, except Sundays.
	Kaiser-i-Hind	Sundays.
	Khilafat Bulletin	Saturdays.
	Khilafat Daily	.....
	League of Nations (India Bureau) News Agency	.....
	Maheshwari	Thursdays.
	Memmon Sudharak	Every Thursday.
	Mercantile Report	Every alternate Sunday.
	Muslim Herald	Daily.
	Nawa Kal	Daily, except Mondays.
	Nusrat	Daily.
	O Anglo-Lusitano	Saturdays.
	Prabhat	Daily, except Wednesdays.
	Railway Times	Fridays.

Stations.	Title in full.	Day of going to Press.
Bombay—*contd.*	Reuters Commercial	....
	Sanj Vartaman	Daily, except Sundays.
	Share Market Daily Report	Daily.
	Shradhanand	Every Friday.
	Shri Lokmanya	Daily, except Mondays.
	Shri Venkateshwar Samachar	Fridays.
	Sun	Daily, except Mondays.
	Times of India	Daily.
Bowringpet	Kolar Gold Fields News	Tuesdays.
Budaon	Akhbar Zulqarnain	6th, 13th, 20th and 27th of every month.
Calangute (Goa)	A Voz do Povo	Saturdays.
Calcutta	Advance	Daily, except Mondays.
	Alkamal	Daily.
	Amrita Bazar Patrika	Daily.
	Ananda Bazar Patrika	Daily, except Sundays.
	Asrijadid	Daily.
	Bangabasi	Wednesdays.
	Basumat	Daily.
	Bhagavan Gandhi	Mondays.
	Bharata Mitra	Thursdays.
	Business World	Monthly.
	Capital	Thursdays.
	Collegian	Bi-monthly.
	Commerce	Wednesdays.
	Commercial News	On the 10th of each month.
	Dalmia's Weekly Review of the Calcutta Share Market	Every Saturday.
	Dowejadid	Daily.
	Englishman	Every Monday.
	Gandiya	Every Friday.
	Hindu Patriot	Daily, except Saturdays.
	Hindusthan	Daily, except Sundays.
	Hitabadi	Wednesdays.
	Indian Engineering	Thursdays.
	Indian Finance	Every Friday.
	Indian Mirror	Daily.
	Indian News Agency	.....
	Industry	Monthly.
	Inqilab-i-Zamana	Daily, except Sundays.
	Jain Gazette	Saturdays.
	Jugabarta	Every Monday.
	Liberty	Daily, except Sundays.
	Maheshwari	Every Monday.

Stations.	Title in full.	Day of going to Press.
Calcutta—*contd.*	Market Intelligence	Daily.
	Matwala	Every Saturday Morning.
	Mohammadi	Last day of every Bengalee month.
	Muslim Standard	Tri-weekly.
	Mussalman	Thursdays.
	Nayak	Daily.
	Planters' Journal and Agriculturist.	Saturdays.
	Prakash	Daily.
	Rayat Bhandu	Sundays.
	Reuter's Commercial, Financial and Shipping Service	....
	Sanjibani	Wednesdays.
	Samay	Wednesdays.
	Samyavadi	Daily.
	Statesman	Daily, except Mondays.
	Swatantra	Daily.
	Telegraph	.....
	The Handicap	Every Friday.
	The Herald	On Wednesday every month.
	The Indian and Eastern Motors....	Monthly.
	The Lokmanya	Daily.
	The Week	Every Thursday.
	United Press Syndicate	.....
	Vishwamitra	Daily.
	Vyapar	Daily.
	Young Men of India	Monthly.
	World Peace	Wednesdays.
Calicut	Alameen	On Saturdays.
	Kerala Sanchari	Wednesdays.
	Manorama	Tuesdays and Fridays.
	Mathrubhumi	On Mondays, Wednesdays Thursdays.
	Mitavadi	Weekly.
	West Coast Reformer	Sundays and Thursdays.
	West Coast Spectator	Wednesdays and Saturdays.
Cawnpore	Azad	Wednesdays.
	Daily Vartaman	....
	Pratap, Hindi Daily and Weekly Paper.	Saturdays.
	Reuter's Telegram Company, Limited.	.....
	The Daily Insaf	Daily, except Sundays.
	Zamana	25th day of every month.
Chandernagore	Probartak	Bi-monthly.
Chindwara	Lokmitra	Saturdays.
Chinsurah	Education Gazette	Tuesdays.
Chittagong	Daily Jyoti	Wednesdays.
	Panchjanya	Daily.
Cochin	Cochin Argus	Saturdays.
	Cochin News Agency	.....
	Malabar Herald	Saturdays.
	Sahodaran	Saturdays.

Stations.	Title in full.	Day of going to Press.
Cochin Mattancherry ..	Malabar Islam	.....
Cocanada	Ravi	Thursdays.
Coimbatore	Commercial News	Daily.
	Peoples Friend	Mondays.
Contai	Nihar	Mondays.
Cranganore	Dharma Kahalam	Every Saturday.
Cuttack	Indian Sunday School Journal ..	Monthly.
	Utkal Deepica	Fridays.
	Young Utkal	On Thursday.
Dacca	Dacca Gazette	Mondays.
	Dacca Prakash	Sundays.
	Janavani	Daily.
Dakor	Sadhu Sarwaswa	On 9th day of Hindu Fortnight.
Darjeeling	Darjeeling Times and Planters' Gazette.	Tuesdays.
Delhi	Alamsn	Daily.
	Alkhalil	On 3rd, 11th, 19th and 26th of every month.
	Arjun	Daily.
	Asia	Daily.
	Bhavishya Wani	On 25th of each month.
	Daily Hamdard	Daily, except Fridays.
	Daily Mahabir	Daily.
	Daily Nizam Gazette	Daily.
	Daily Waqt	Daily.
	Delhi Information Bureau ..	....
	General News Agency and Book Depot.	Daily.
	Hindu Sansar	Weekdays.
	Hindustan Times	Daily.
	Indian News Agency	.....
	Khabardar	Tuesdays.
	Millat Daily	Daily.
	National News Agency	.....
	National Call	Daily.
	Parik Prakash	Monthly.
	Rajasthan	Thursdays.
	Reuter's News Agency	....
	Riyasat	Thursdays.
	The Statesman	Daily.
	Swarajya	Daily.
	Tej	Daily.
	The Tagat	On 1st, 8th, 16th and 24th of every month.
	United India and Indian States ..	Every Friday.
	Watan	Daily.
	Weekly Herald	Every Thursday.
	Weekly Moballig	.....

Stations.	Title in full.	Day of going to press.
Deoria	Arun	On 1st of each month.
Dharwar	Karnatakavritta and Dhananjaya	Tuesdays.
	Raja Hansa	Daily.
	Vijayia	Daily.
Dhulia	Khandesh Vaibhav	Fridays.
	Prabodh	Saturdays.
Dibrugarh	Times of Assam	Fridays.
	Jagaran	Daily.
Gauhati	Assamiya	Saturdays.
Gaya	Bihar Advocate and Kayastha Messenger	Sundays.
Gorakhpur	Daret	Fridays.
	Gyanshakti	Saturdays.
	Hind Mitar	Saturdays.
	Jadava	13th and 15th of each month.
	Kalyan	1st of each month.
	Mashriq	Fridays.
	Motor Car	1st of each month.
	Swadesh	Saturdays.
	Tar	Daily.
Guntur	Deshabhimani	Daily.
Hapur	Vyapar	Daily and Bi-weekly.
Howrah	Bisva Duta	Daily.
Hubli (Bombay)	Taruna Karnatak	Daily.
Hyderabad, Deccan ..	Munshur	Daily.
	Musheer-i-Deccan	Daily.
	Rahbare Deccan	Daily, except Fridays.
	Reuter's Limited	....
	Sahifa-i-Rozana	Daily.
Hyderabad, Sind ..	Desh Mitra	Daily.
	Hindu	Daily.
	Jot	1st and 3rd Sunday of every month.
	Musafir	Saturdays.
	Nava Yuga	Daily, except Sundays.
	Navjivan	Every Saturday.
	Prakash	Daily, except Sundays.
	Prem Pracharak	Every Friday.
	Sind Hindu	Daily.
	Sindvasi	Daily.
	Swatantra	Every Tuesday

Stations.	Title in full.	Day of going to Press.
Indore	The Central India Times ..	On Tuesdays.
Indore City	Indore Dainik Vyapar Samachar.	Daily.
Jacobabad	Frontier Gazette	Saturdays.
Jalgaon (Khandesh) ..	Pragatik	Weekly.
Jammu, Tawi. ..	Ranbir	Sundays.
Jamnagar	Jamnagar Vepar Samachar ..	Daily.
Jaramoala	Daily Beopar Patar	Daily.
Jhansi	Free India	Fridays.
	Sahas	Sundays.
Jhansi City	Nyaya	Wednesdays.
Jorhat	Batori	....
Jubbulpore ..	Free Press of India	....
	India Sunday School Journal ..	Third Thursday of every month.
	Karmaveer	Fridays.
	Lokmat	Daily.
Karachi	Alwahid	Daily, except Sundays.
	Cotton Daily Market Report ..	Daily.
	Daily Commercial News	Daily.
	Daily Gazette	Daily.
	Evening News	Daily.
	Hitechhu	Daily.
	Karachi Commercial News Paper.	Daily.
	Kesari	Daily, except Sundays.
	Mauji	Daily.
	Morning Post of India	Daily.
	New Times	Daily.
	Parsi Sansar	Saturdays.
	Reuters Commercial, Financial and Shipping Service	....
	Rozana Biupar	Daily.
	Rozana Samachar	Daily.
	Sansar Samachar	Daily.
	Sind Herald	On Wednesdays.
	Sind Observer	Wednesdays and Saturdays.
	Sind Sudhar	Saturdays.
	Sind Vartman	Daily.
Karai Kudi ..	Dhana Vysia Ootran	Fridays.
	Kumaran	Wednesdays.
Khandwa	Karamveer	Saturdays.
	The Hindi Swarajya	Mondays.
Khulna	Khulna Basi	Thursdays.
Kolhapur City .. .	Vidyavilas	Fridays.

Stations.	Title in full.	Day of going to Press.
Kot Radha Kissen ..	The Weekly Naresh	Saturdays.
Kottayam	Malayala Manorama	Daily.
	Nazrani Deepika	Weekly.
	Powraprabha	Tuesdays and Fridays.
Kumta	Kanara News	Thursdays.
	Karnatak Leader	Daily.
Kurauli	Utkarsh	Last week of each month.
Lahore	Ahrar	Daily.
	Akhbar-i-Am	Daily.
	Bande Mataram	Daily, except Sundays.
	Civil and Military Gazette ..	Daily (Sundays excepted)
	Daily Hurriyat	Daily.
	Daily Karamvir	Daily, except Tuesdays.
	Daily Milap	....
	Daily Zamindar	....
	Himayat-i-Isl	On Wednesdays.
	Janmabhumi	Daily.
	Lahore News Agency	..
	Muslim Outlook	Daily.
	Phul	Thursdays.
	Pratap	Daily.
	Progressive Punjab	1st of every month.
	Rajasthan	Mondays.
	Rajput Gazette	1st, 8th, 16th and 24th of every month.
	Siyasat	Daily, except Sundays.
	Sunday Times	Sundays.
	The Eastern Times	Daily.
	The New World	On last day of every month.
	The People	Saturdays.
	Tribune	Daily, except Sundays.
	Vir Bharat	Daily, except Sundays.
	Watan	Thursdays.
	Weekly Azad	On every Monday.
Larkana	Aftab	On Saturdays.
	Kadria	On Saturdays.
	Khairkhah	Saturdays.
	Larkana Gazette	Fridays.
	Nawrose	On Mondays.
	The Azadi	Fridays.
Lucknow	Advocate	Wednesdays and Saturdays
	Aina	On Thursdays.
	Anand	Thursdays.
	Daily Hamdam	Daily.
	Haqiqat	Daily.
	Huque	Daily.
	Himmat	Daily, except Sundays & Holidays.
	Hindusthani	Bi-weekly.
	Indian Witness	Wednesdays.
	Kaukab-i-Hind	Wednesdays.
	Observer	On Thursdays.
	Pioneer	Daily, except Tuesdays.

Stations.	Title in full.	Day of going to Press.
Ludhiana	Matwala Weekly	On Mondays.
Lyalpur	Daily Commerce	Daily.
	Daily Market Report	Daily.
	The Daily Beopar Gazette ..	Daily.
	Weekly Tajarat	On Thursdays.
Madras	Ananda Bodhini	Every Wednesday.
	Catholic Leader	Wednesdays.
	Christian Patriot	Saturdays.
	Daily Express	Daily, except Sundays and Monday mornings.
	Daily News	Daily.
	Desabandhu	Every Saturday.
	Desabhakatan	Daily.
	Dinavartamani	Daily.
	Dravidan	Daily.
	Hindu	Daily.
	Hindu Nesan	Saturdays.
	India	Daily, except Sundays.
	Indian Express	Daily.
	Indian Railway Journal	15th of every month.
	Indian Review	Monthly.
	Janararthamani	Weekdays.
	Jarida-i-Rozgar	Saturdays.
	Justice	Daily.
	Law Times	Saturdays.
	Madras Mail	Daily.
	Muhammadan	Mondays and Thursdays.
	Mukhbir-i-Deccan	Wednesdays.
	Nyayadipika	Daily.
	New India	Daily.
	New Times	Daily.
	Patriot	Saturdays.
	Reuters Commercial and Shipping Service	....
	Scientific Press of India	....
	Standard Sporting News	Fridays.
	Swathanthara Sangu	Tuesdays and Fridays.
	Tamil Nadu	Saturdays.
	The All India Racing News ..	Fridays.
	The Daily Alma-E	Daily, except Fridays.
	The Original Vel Sporting News ..	Thursdays.
	The Venus Sporting News ..	Fridays.
Mandalay	Upper Burma Gazette	Daily.
Mangalore	Swadeshabhimani	Thursdays.
Margao (Goa) ..	A Terra	Wednesdays and Saturdays.
	Noticias	Mondays.
	Ultramar	Mondays and Fridays.
Mattancheri	Chakravarthi	Saturdays.

Stations.	Title in full.	Day of going to Press.
Mehar	Shamshir Islam	On Thursdays.
Meerut	Bhavishya Bani	Every Saturday.
	Roznama Qaum	Daily.
Mhow	Satyarth Patrika	Thursdays.
Mirpurkhas	Mirpurkhas Gazette	Wednesdays.
	Musalman	Every Saturday.
Mirpur City	Khichri Samachar	Saturdays.
Moulmein	Moulmein Advertiser	Daily.
Mount Road, Madras ..	Hindu	Daily, except Sundays
Mussoorie	Mussoorie Times	Thursdays.
Muttra	Jain Gazette	Mondays.
Muvattupuzha	Kerala Dheepika	Saturdays.
Muzaffarnagar	Weekly Sewak	Weekly.
Muzaffarpur	Loksangrah	Wednesdays.
Mymensingh	Charu Mihir	Tuesdays.
Mysore	Wealth of Mysore	Daily, except Sundays.
Nabadwip	Nadia Prakash	Daily.
Nagercoil	Travancore Times	Tuesdays.
Nagpur	Hitavada	Wednesdays.
	Indian Labour Journal	Saturdays.
	Maharashtra	Tuesdays.
	Swatantrya	Daily, except Mondays.
	Tarun Bharat	On Tuesdays.
	Young Patriot	Sundays.
Naini Tal	Associated Press of India ..	....
	Naini Tal Gazette	Wednesdays.
Nasik	Loksatta	Saturdays.
Nathiagali	Associated Press of India ..	....
Naushahro	Mata	On Wednesdays every Fortnight
	Shakti	Mondays.
Nawabshah ..	Nawabsha Gazette	On Wednesdays.
	Mukti	Monthly.
New Delhi	Free Press Bulletin	Daily.
	Free Press of India	....
	Statesman	Daily.
Nova Goa	Diario de Noite	Daily.
	Heraldo	Daily, except Mondays.
	O'Debate	Mondays.
	O'Heraldo	Daily, except Sundays and holidays.
Ootacamund ..	Associated Press of India	....
	South of India Observer ..	Daily issue, except Sundays.
	Nilgiri Times	Wednesdays.

Stations.	Title in full.	Day of going to Press.
Orai	Utsah	Thursdays.
Palamcottah	Varantha Varthamanam	Every Saturday.
Pandharpur	Pandhari Mitra	Sundays.
Pangsa	Kangal	.....
Panjim, Goa	O'Crente	Fridays.
Parur	Uttara Tharaka	Saturdays.
Patna	Associated Press of India	Saturdays.
	Behar Herald	Daily.
	Express	.....
	Free Press of India	On Mondays.
	Itechad	Daily.
	Mahaveer	On Saturdays.
	Patna Times	Saturdays.
	Searchlight	
Pen	Kolaba Samachar	Fridays.
Peshawar	Associated Press of India	.....
	Khyber Mail	On Sundays.
	Sarhad	Daily.
	The Frontier Advocate	On Mondays.
Poona	Deccan Herald	Daily.
	Dnyana Prakash	Daily, except Mondays.
	Harijan	Weekly.
	Kesari	Tuesdays and Fridays.
	Mahratta	Sundays.
	Poona Star	Daily.
	Servant of India	Wednesdays,
	Sakal	Daily, except Tuesdays.
	Sun	Every Saturday.
	War Cry	Monthly.
Poona City	Dinabandhu	Every Thursday.
	Satyagrahee	Bi-weekly.
	Satyaprakash	Daily.
	Servant of India	Weekly.
Quadian (*via* Batala)	Alfazal	Bi-weekly.
	Alhakam	Weekly.
	Alfarooq	Weekly
	Nur	Fortnightly.
	Review of Religions (in English.)	Monthly.
	Do. (in Urdu)	Monthly.
Quetta	Baluchistan Gazette	Wednesdays and Saturdays.
	Baluchistan Herald Daily Bulletin	Daily.
Quilon	Desabhimani	.....
	Malayala Rajyam	Daily.
	Malayali	Wednesdays and Saturdays.
Rajkot	East & West Trade Developer	Last day of every month.
	Kathiawar Times	Wednesdays and Sundays.
	Lohana Hitechhu	Wednesdays.
	Western India Press News Agency.	.....
Rampur (Kathiawar)	Saurashtra	Daily.
Ranchi	Associated Press of India	.....
Rangoon	Burma Exchange Gazette and Daily Advertiser.	Daily.
	Burma Sunday Times	Sundays.
	Chinese Daily News	.....

Stations.	Title in full.	Day of going to Press.
Rangoon—*contd*, ..	Free Burma	Daily.
	Free Press of India	....
	New Burma	Tri-weekly.
	New Light of Burma	Daily, except Mondays.
	Rangoon Daily News	Thursdays.
	Rangoon Evening Post	Week-days.
	Rangoon Gazette	Daily, except Mondays.
	Rangoon Mail	Saturdays.
	Rangoon Times	Daily, except Sundays.
	The Commercial News	Daily.
	The Sun	Daily, except Sundays.
Ratnagiri	Balvant	Tuesdays.
	Satya Shodhak	Sundays.
Rawalpindi	Frontier Mail	Daily, except Sundays & Holidays.
	Prabhat	Daily.
	Shihab	Bi-weekly.
Robertsonpet	Kolar Goldfield News	On Tuesdays.
Rohri	Sirat Mustakim	On 15th of each month
Satara	Shubha Suchaka	Fridays.
	Samarth	Every Sunday.
Satara City	Prakash	Wednesdays.
Secunderabad	Hyderabad Bulletin	Daily.
Shahjahanpur	Sarpunch	Daily.
Shikarpur Sind ..	Alhanif	Every Monday.
	Melap	Every Monday.
	Message of happiness	1st of each month.
	Qurbani	Daily.
	Shewak	Every Wednesday.
	Sidakat	Thursdays.
Shillong	International Times	On Saturdays.
Sholapur	Kalpataru	Sundays.
	Karmayogi	Thursdays.
	Sholapur Samachar	Tuesdays.
	The Jain Gazette	Tuesdays.
Silchar	Navajug	Monthly.
	Surma	Sundays.
Simla	Sunday Times (Simla Edition) ..	Mondays.
Srinagar Kashmir	Daily Vitasta	Daily.
Sukkur	Alhaq	On Saturdays.
	Alhizb	On Fridays.
	Dharamvir	Saturdays.
	Rajput	On 1st of every month.
	Sansar Chakar	On 1st and 15th of every month.
	Sind Samachar	Wednesdays and Saturdays.
	Sindhi	Saturdays.
	Sukkur Gazette	On Thursdays.

Stations.	Title in full.	Day of going to Press.
Surat	Daily Market Report	Daily.
	Deshbandhu	Daily, except Sundays.
	Deshi Mitra	Thursdays.
	Finance Circular	Daily.
	Gujarat	Daily, except Sundays.
	Gujrat Mittra and Gujarat Darpan	Saturdays.
	Investor Reports Daily Quotations	Daily, except Sundays.
	Jain Mitra	Wednesdays.
	Khandwala Circular	Daily.
	Praja Pokar	Wednesdays.
	Pratap	Every Friday.
	Samachar	Daily, except Mondays.
	Samisanj	Daily.
	Share Circular	Daily, except Mondays.
	Surat Akhbar	Sundays.
	The Hindu	Daily.
Sylhet	Janasakti	On every Tuesday.
	Paridarsaka	Wednesdays.
Tilhar	Tilhar Munphat	4th, 11th, 18th, and 25th of every month.
Tinnevelly	Kalpaka	Monthly.
Tirupur	Daily Bombay Telegraphic Cotton News	Daily, except Mondays.
	Daily Cotton Bulletin	Daily, except Mondays.
Tiruvalla	Nawabharathi	Tuesdays and Fridays.
Tohana (*via* Hissar) ..	The Market Report	On Mondays, Wednesdays and Thursdays.
Travancore	The Star of India	Every Thursday.
Trichinopoly ..	Chandamarutham	Daily, except Sundays.
	Wednesday Review	Wednesdays.
Trichur	Lokaprakasam	Mondays.
Trivandrum ..	Associated Press of India	....
	Malayalam Daily News	Daily.
	Reuter's Limited	....
	Samadarsi	Tuesdays, Thursdays and Saturdays.
	Travancore Press Service	....
	Trivandrum Daily News	Daily.
	The Link	Saturdays.
	Western Star	Tuesdays, Thursdays and Saturdays.
Tuticorin	Daily News	Daily.
	The Daily Cotton News	Daily.
	The Indo Foreign Market News ..	Daily.
Udipi	Satyagrahi	Thursdays.
Vizagapatam	Andhra Advocate	Fridays.
Wai	Vrittasar	Mondays.
Wardha	Maharashtra Dharma	Tuesdays.
	Rajasthan Kesari	Saturdays.
Yeotmal	Lokamat	Thursdays.

Banking.

An event of great importance in the history of Indian banking was the formation on the 27th January 1921 of the Imperial Bank of India by amalgamation of the three Presidency Banks of Bengal, Bombay and Madras.

The idea of a Central Banking establishment for British India was mooted as early as 1836, and was the subject of a minute by Mr. James Wilson, when Finance Member, in 1859. Again, in 1867 Mr. Dickson, the well-known Secretary of the Bank of Bengal, submitted detailed proposals for an amalgamation of the three Presidency Banks. On various later occasions the matter was brought forward without result and it was discussed by the Chamberlain Commission on Indian Finance and Currency in 1913. The present scheme which has come to fruition was however the result of a *rapprochement* on the part of the Banks themselves as a result of the experience gained during the war and the realisation of the desirability of strengthening and extending the Banking system in India.

The Presidency Banks:—The history of the Presidency Banks in their relationship with Government falls into three well-defined stages. Prior to 1862 the Presidency Banks had the right of note issue, but were directly controlled by Government and the scope of their business was restricted by their charters. The second period was from 1862 to 1876. In 1862 the Banks were deprived of the right of note issue, though by their agreements of that year they were authorised to transact the paper currency business as agents of Government. As compensation for the loss of their right of issue, they were given the use of the Government balances and the management of the treasury work at the Presidency towns and at their branches. The old statutory limitations on their business were at the same time greatly relaxed, though the Government's power of control remained unchanged. In 1866 the agreements were revised and the paper currency business was removed from their control and placed under the direct management of Government. The third period dates from the Presidency Banks Act of 1876 by which nearly all the most important limitations of the earlier period were reimposed. But, very briefly, the principal restrictions imposed by this Act prohibited the Banks from conducting foreign exchange business, from borrowing or receiving deposits payable out of India, and from lending for a longer period than six months, or upon mortgage or on the security of immovable property or upon promissory notes bearing less than two independent names or upon goods, unless the goods of the title to them were deposited with the Bank as security. At the same time Government abandoned direct interference in the management, ceasing to appoint official directors and disposing of their shares in the Banks. The Banks no longer enjoyed the full use of the Government balances. Reserve Treasuries were constituted at the Presidency towns into which the surplus revenues were drawn and the balances left at the disposal of the Banks were strictly limited.

This system continued with only minor modifications until 1920. During the war, however, the policy was deliberately adopted of reducing the amount of the balances held in the Reserve Treasuries and leaving much larger balances with the Headquarters of the Presidency Banks in order to assist the money market.

The Imperial Bank:—Under the Imperial Bank of India Act (XLVII of 1920), the control of the Bank is entrusted to a Central Boards of Governors with Local Boards at Calcutta, Bombay and Madras and such other places as the Central Board, with the previous sanction of the Governor-General in Council may determine. The Central Board of Governors consists of—

(*a*) Managing Governors not exceeding two in number, appointed by the Governor-General in Council on recommendation by the Central Board;
(*b*) the Presidents, Vice-Presidents and Secretaries of the Local Boards;
(*c*) the Controller of the Currency, or other officer nominated by the Governor-General in Council; and
(*d*) not more than four non-officials, nominated by the Governor-General in Council.

Representatives of any new Local Boards, which may be constituted, may be added at the discretion of the Central Board.

The Controller of the Currency and the Secretaries of the Local Boards are entitled to attend the meetings of the Central Board but not to vote under the agreement with Government. The Governor-General in Council is entitled to issue instructions to the Bank in respect of any matter which in his opinion vitally affects his financial policy or the safety of the Government balances, and if the Controller of the Currency or such other officer of Government as may be nominated by the Governor-General in Council to be a Governor of the Central Board shall give notice in writing to the Managing Governors that he considers that any action proposed to be taken by the Bank will be detrimental to the Government as affecting the matters aforesaid, such action shall not be taken without the approval in writing of the Governor-General in Council. Under the Imperial Bank of India Act provision was made for the increase of the capital of the Bank. The capital of the three Presidency Banks consisted of 3¾ crores of rupees in shares of Rs. 500 each, fully subscribed. The additional capital authorised was 7½ crores in shares of Rs. 500 each, of which Rs. 125 has been called up, making the present capital of the Bank Rs. 11¼ crores, of which Rs. 5,62,50,000 has been paid up. The Reserve Fund of the Bank is Rs. 5,22,50,000 and the Balance Sheet of 31st December 1933 showed the Government balance at Rs. 6,44,10,571, other deposits at Rs. 74,12,77,440 and Cash Rs. 18,59,75,840, with a percentage of Cash to liabilities of 22.83.

Class of Business:—The Imperial Bank of India Act follows the Presidency Banks Act of 1876 in defining absolutely the class of business

in which the Bank may engage, though the older limitations are modified in some minor points. It permits for the first time the constitution of a London Office and the borrowing of money in England for the purpose of the Bank's business upon the security of assets of the Bank, but not the opening of cash credits, keeping cash accounts or receiving deposits in London except from former customers of the Presidency Banks. The Act provides for an agreement between the Bank and the Secretary of State, and this agreement, which was signed on the 27th January 1921 and is for a period of ten years determinable thereafter by either party with one year's notice, provides, *inter alia*, for the following important matters:—

(1) All the general banking business of the Government of India is to be carried out by the Imperial Bank.

(2) The Bank will hold all the Treasury Balances at Headquarters and at its branches. This involves the abolition of the Reserve Treasury system.

(3) Within five years the Bank undertakes to open 100 new branches of which the Government of India may determine the location of one in four. The branches and agencies of the three Presidency Banks prior to the date of amalgamation numbered 69, including the Colombo branch of the Bank of Madras. The Bank of Bengal had no branches prior to the proposal to transfer Government business to the Bank in 1861-62 but no less than 18 branches were established before 1868.

(4) The management of the Public Debt will continue to be conducted by the Bank for specified remuneration.

The Directorate.

Managing Governors .. .. { Sir Osborne A. Smith, Kt., K.C.I.E. / W. Lamond, Esq.

Presidents, Vice-Presidents and Secretaries of the Local Boards.

CALCUTTA—
J. Reid, Kay, Esq. .. .. President.
Rai Bahadur Sir Badridas Goenka, Kt., C.I.E. .. .. .. Vice-President.
B. A. C. Neville, Esq. .. .. Secretary.

BOMBAY—
Sir Purshotamdas Thakurdas, Kt., C.I.E., M.B.E. .. .. President.
E. J. Bunbury, Esq., M.C. .. .. Vice-President.
J. G. Ridland, Esq. .. .. Secretary.

MADRAS—
S. V. Ramaswamy Mudaliar, Esq. .. .. President.
W. O. Wright, Esq., O.B.E., V.D. .. .. Vice-President.
R. A. Gray, Esq., M.C. .. .. Secretary.

CONTROLLER OF THE CURRENCY .. .. J. B. Kelly, Esq., (Offg.)

Nominated by Government.

The Hon'ble Sir Dinshaw E. Wacha, Kt., J.P., Bombay.
Sir Rajendra Nath Mookerjee, K.C.I.E., K.C.V.O., Calcutta.
The Hon'ble Rajah Sir S. R. M. Annamalai Chettiar, Kt., Madras.
Sirdar Bahadur Sir Sunder Singh Majithia, Kt., C.I.E., Amritsar.

MANAGER IN LONDON.
R. R. Birrell, Esq. (Ag.).

BRANCHES.

Burra Bazaar, Calcutta.
Clive Street, Calcutta.
Park Street, Calcutta.
Byculla, Bombay.
Mandvi, Bombay.
Sandhurst Road, Bombay.
Mount Road, Madras.

Abbottabad.
Abohar.
Adoni.
Agra.
Ahmedabad.
Ahmedabad City.
Ahmednagar.
Ajmer.
Akola.
Akyab.
Aligarh.
Allahabad.
Alleppey.
Ambala.
Ambala Cant.
Amraoti.
Amritsar.
Asansol.

Bangalore.
Bareilly.
Bassein.
Bellary.
Benares.
Berhampore (Ganjam)
Bezwada.
Bhagalpur.
Bhopal.
Broach.
Bulandshahr.

Calicut.
Cawnpore.
Chandpur.
Chapra.
Chittagong.
Cocanada.
Cochin
Coimbatore.
Colombo.
Cuddalore.
Cuddapah.
Cuttack.

Dacca.
Darbhanga.
Darjeeling.
Dehra Dun.
Delhi.
Dhanbad.
Dhulia.
Dibrugarh.

Ellore.
Erode.
Etawah.
Farrukhabad.
Ferozepore.
Fyzabad.

Gaya.
Godhra.
Gojra.
Gorakhpur.
Gujranwala.
Guntur.
Gwalior.
Hathras.
Howrah
Hubli.
Hyderabad (Deccan).
Hyderabad (Sind).

Indore.
Jaipur.
Jalgaon.
Jalpaiguri.
Jamshedpur.

Jhansi.
Jodhpur.
Jubbulpore.
Jullundur.
Karachi.
Kasur.
Katni.
Khamgaon.
Khandwa.
Kumbakonam.

Lahore.
Larkana.
Lucknow.
Ludhiana.
Lyallpur.

Madura.
Mandalay.
Mangalore.
Masulipatam.
Meerut.
Montgomery.
Moradabad.
Moulmein.
Multan.
Murree.
Mussoorie.

Muttra.
Muzaffarnagar.
Muzaffarpur.
Myingyan.
Mymensingh.

Nadiad.
Nagpur.
Naini Tal.
Nanded.

Nandyal.
Naraingunge.
Nasik.
Negapatam
Nellore.
New Delhi.
Nowshera.
Ootacamund.

Patna.
Peshawar.
Peshawar City.
Poona.
Poona City.
Porbandar
Purnea.

Quetta.

Raipur.
Rajahmundry
Rajkot.
Rampur.
Rangoon.
Rawalpindi.

Saharanpur.
Salem.
Sargodha.
Secunderabad.
Shillong.
Sholapur.
Sialkot.
Simla.
Sitapur.
Srinagar (Kashmir.
Sukkur.
Surat.

Tellicherry.
Tinnevelly.
Tirupur.
Trichinopoly.
Trichur.
Trivandrum.
Tuticorin.

Ujjain.

Vellore.
Vizagapatam.
Vizianagram.

Wardha.

Yeotmal.

In Schedule 1, Part 1, of the Act, the various descriptions of business which the Bank may transact are laid down, and in Part 2 it is expressly provided that the Bank shall not transact any kind of banking business other than that sanctioned in Part 1.

Briefly stated, the main classes of business sanctioned are:—

(1) Advancing money upon the security of:—

(*a*) Stocks, &c., in which a trustee is authorised by Act to invest trust moneys.

(*b*) Securities issued by State aided Railways, notified by the Governor-General-in-Council.

(*c*) Debentures, or other securities issued under Act, by, or on behalf of, a District Board.

(*d*) Goods, or documents of title thereto, deposited with, or assigned to the Bank.

(*e*) Accepted Bills of Exchange or Pro. Notes.

(*f*) Fully paid shares and debentures of Companies with limited liability or immovable property or documents of title relating thereto, as collateral security where the original security is one of those specified in *a*, *b*, *c*, *d* and, if authorised by the Central Board, in *e*.

(2) With the sanction of the Local Government, advancing money to Courts of Wards upon security of estates in their charge.

(3) Drawing, accepting, discounting, buying and selling bills of exchange and other negotiable securities payable in India and Ceylon, and, subject to the directions of the Governor-General-in-Council, the discounting, buying and selling of bills of exchange payable outside India for and from or to such Banks as may be approved.

(4) Investing the Banks' funds in the securities referred to in (1) *a*, *b*, *c*.

(5) Making Bank Post Bills and Letters of credit payable in India and Ceylon.

(6) Buying and selling gold and silver.

(7) Receiving deposits.

(8) Receiving securities for safe custody.

(9) Selling such properties as may come into the Bank's possession in satisfaction of claims.

(10) Transacting agency business on commission.

(11) Acting as Administrator, for winding up estates.

(12) Drawing bills of exchange and granting letters of credit payable out of India for the use of principles in connection with (11) and also for private constituents for *bona fide* personal needs.

(13) Buying, for the purpose of meeting such bills, &c., bills of exchange payable out of India at any usance not exceeding six months.

(14) Borrowing money in India.

(15) Borrowing money in England upon security of assets of the Bank, but not otherwise.

The principal restrictions placed on the business of the Bank in Part 2 are as follows:—

(1) It shall not make any loan or advance:—

(*a*) For a longer period than six months;

(*b*) upon the security of stock or shares of the Bank;

(*c*) save in the case of estates specified in Part 1 (Courts of Ward) upon mortgage or security of immovable property or documents of title thereof.

(2) The amount which may be advanced to any individual or partnership is limited.

(3) Discounts cannot be made or advances on personal security given, unless such discounts or advances carry with them the several responsibilities of at least two persons or firms unconnected with each other in general partnership.

The Balance Sheet of the Bank as at 31st December 1933 was as follows :—

Liabilities.	Rs. a. p.	Assets.	Rs. a. p.
Subscribed Capital ..	11,25,00,000 0 0	Government Securities ..	46,19,28,633 13 3
Capital Paid up	11,25,00,000 0 0	Other authorised Securities under the Act	83,67,693 4 8
Reserve	5,62,50,000 0 0	Ways and Means Advances to the Government of India	1,50,00,000 0 0
Public Deposits	5,22,50,000 0 0	Loans	4,16,07,999 5 11
Other Deposits	6,44,10,571 3 10	Cash Credits	15,29,47,893 5 4
Loans against Securities per contra	74,12,77,440 14 4	Inland Bills discounted and purchased	2,00,51,475 7 8
	....	Foreign Bills discounted and purchased	2,56,966 13 6
Loans from the Government of India under Section 20 of the Paper Currency Act, against Inland Bills discounted and purchased per contra	....	Bullion	....
	....	Dead Stock	2,53,94,606 9 9
Contingent Liabilities ..	....	Liability of Constituents for Contingent Liabilities per contra	....
Sundries	88,16,596 2 10	Sundries	97,73,596 14 5
		Balances with other Banks.	16,99,901 13 7
		Cash	73,70,28,767 8 1
			18,59,75,840 12 11
Rupees ..	92,30,04,608 5 0	Rupees ..	92,30,04,608 5 0

The above Balance Sheet includes—

	£ s. d.
Deposits in London	927,003 17 4
Advances and Investments in London	1,333,920 5 1
Cash and Balances at other Banks in London	130,850 5 2

Government Deposits.

The following statement shows the Government deposits with each Bank at various periods during the last 40 years or so :—

In Lakhs of rupees.

—	Bank of Bengal.	Bank of Bombay.	Bank of Madras.	Total.	—	Bank of Bengal.	Bank of Bombay.	Bank of Madras.	Total.
30th June									
1881 ..	230	61	53	344	1913 ..	247	167	68	482
1886 ..	329	82	39	450	1914 ..	290	197	93	580
1891 ..	332	97	53	482	1915 ..	263	187	102	552
1896 ..	225	88	57	370	1916 ..	336	263	115	714
1901 ..	187	90	63	340	1917 ..	1338	716	209	2263
1906 ..	186	93	46	325	1918 ..	664	549	213	1426
1911 ..	198	129	77	404	1919 ..	346	298	142	786
1912 ..	210	155	75	440	1920 ..	801	663	170	1634
					26th Jan. 1921.	364	206	138	708

	Imperial Bank.
30th June 1921	2,220
,, 1922	1,672
,, 1923	1,256
,, 1924	2,208
,, 1925	2,252
,, 1926	3,254
,, 1927	1,004
,, 1928	796
,, 1929	2,074
,, 1930	1,391
,, 1931	1,596
,, 1932	1,902
,, 1933	582

Government Deposits.

The proportions which Government deposits have borne from time to time to the total Capital Reserve and deposit of the three Banks are shown below :—

In Lakhs of Rupees.

—	1 Capital.	2 Reserve.	3 Government deposits.	4 Other deposits.	Proportion of Government deposits to 1, 2, 3 & 4.
1st December 1901	360	158	340	1463	14·3 per cent.
1906	360	213	307	2745	8·3 ,,
1907	360	279	335	2811	8·8 ,,
1908	360	294	325	2861	8·4 ,,
1909	360	309	307	3265	7·4 ,,
1910	360	318	339	3234	9·7 ,,
1911	360	331	438	3419	9·6 ,,
1912	375	340	426	3578	9·0 ,,
1913	375	361	587	3644	11·8 ,,
1914	375	370	561	4002	10·5 ,,
1915	375	386	487	3860	9·5 ,,
1916	375	369	520	4470	9·0 ,,
1917	375	358	771	6771	9·3 ,,
1918	375	363	864	5097	12·9 ,,
1919	375	340	772	7226	8·8 ,,
1920	375	355	901	7725	9 6 ,,
30th June (Imperial Bank).					
1921	547	375	2220	7016	21·8 ,,
1922	562	371	1672	6336	18·6 ,,
1923	562	411	1256	7047	13·5 ,,
1924	562	435	2208	7062	20·2 ,,
1925	562	457	2252	7588	20·7 ,,
1926	562	477	3254	7530	27·4 ,,
1927	562	492	1004	7317	10·6 ,,
1928	562	507	796	7331	8·6 ,,
1929	562	517	2074	7233	19·9 ,,
1930	562	527	1391	7003	14·6 ,,
1931	562	537	1596	6615	17·1 ,,
1932	562	542	1908	6149	20·8 ,,
1933	562	520	582	7423	6·4 ,,

Recent Progress.

The following statements show the progress made by the three Banks prior to their amalgamation into the Imperial Bank :—

In Lakhs of Rupees.

BANK OF BENGAL.

—	Capital.	Reserve.	Govt. deposits.	Other deposits.	Cash.	Investments.	Dividend for year.
31st December 1900	200	103	155	582	243	136	11 per cent.
1905	200	140	167	1204	396	181	12 ,,
1906	200	150	160	1505	528	149	12 ,,
1907	200	157	187	1573	460	279	12 ,,
1908	200	165	178	1575	507	349	13 ,,
1909	200	170	168	1760	615	411	14 ,,
1910	200	175	198	1609	514	368	14 ,,
1911	200	180	270	1677	729	321	14 ,,
1912	200	185	234	1711	665	310	14 ,,
1913	200	191	301	1824	840	319	14 ,,
1914	200	200	287	2160	1169	621	16 ,,
1915	200	*204	265	1978	785	793	16 ,,
1916	200	*213	274	2143	772	768	16 ,,
1917	200	†221	448	2934	1482	773	17 ,,
1918	200	‡189	584	2892	894	779	17 ,,
1919	200	‡200	405	3254	997	864	17 ,,
1920	200	‡210	434	3398	1221	910	19½ ,,

* Includes Rs. 63 lakhs as a reserve for depreciation of investments.
† ,, 67 ,, ,, ,,
‡ ,, 25 ,, ,, ,,

BANK OF BOMBAY.

	Capital.	Reserve.	Govt. deposits.	Other deposits.	Cash.	Investments.	Dividend for year.
00	100	70	87	432	129	89	11 per cent.
05	100	87	92	676	259	158	12 ,,
06	100	92	101	832	354	177	12 ,,
07	100	96	112	821	324	164	13 ,,
08	100	101	94	832	377	149	13 ,,
09	100	103	120	1035	415	163	13 ,,
10	100	105	152	1053	436	149	14 ,,
11	100	106	107	1104	463	208	14 ,,
12	100	106	117	1124	315	210	14 ,,
13	100	106	200	1015	477	232	14 ,,
14	100	110	183	1081	646	202	15 ,,
15	100	100	136	1079	423	276	15 ,,
16	100	90	142	1367	667	312	15 ,,
17	100	92	235	2817	1398	744	17½ ,,
18	100	101	177	1749	542	353	18½ ,,
19	100	110	262	2756	928	315	19¾ ,,
20	100	120	349	2748	876	298	22 ,,

BANK OF MADRAS.

..	60	22	35	260	82	67	8 per cent.
..	60	30	41	344	140	71	10 ,,
..	60	32	54	355	151	81	10 ,,
..	60	36	35	416	162	84	10 ,,
..	60	40	52	447	153	84	11 ,,
..	60	44	49	500	141	79	12 ,,
..	60	48	72	567	184	85	12 ,,
..	60	52	59	625	165	104	12 ,,
..	75	70	75	743	196	113	12 ,,
..	75	73	86	805	219	117	12 ,,
..	75	76	91	761	267	134	12 ,,
..	75	65	86	803	256	184	12 ,,
..	75	55	104	960	286	161	12 ,,
..	75	50	87	1020	496	94	12 ,,
..	75	50	102	954	271	139	12 ,,
..	75	45	104	1215	436	175	12 ,,
..	75	45	118	1579	505	211	18 ,,

IMPERIAL BANK.

..	547	371	2220	7016	3433	1652	16 per cent.
..	562	411	1672	6336	3395	900	16 ,,
..	562	435	1256	7047	2913	925	16 ,,
..	562	457	2208	7662	2195	1175	16 ,,
..	562	477	2252	7588	3582	1413	16 ,,
..	562	492	3254	7530	4503	2188	16 ,,
..	562	507	1004	7317	2283	2050	16 ,,
..	562	517	796	7331	1377	2535	16 ,,
..	562	527	2074	7233	3041	2409	16 ,,
..	562	537	1391	7003	1696	2969	16 ,,
..	562	542	1596	6615	1717	3077	14 ,,
..	562	515	1908	6149	2201	2979	12 ,,
..	562	520	582	7423	2308	3973	12 ,,

to Establish the Reserve Bank

A Bill to establish a Reserve Bank s an essential preliminary to the r of the scheme of Reforms to give dern Government has been passed gislative Assembly and Council of ceived the assent of the Governor- larch 6th, 1834. The proposals embo- Bill are given below :—

shall be constituted for the pur- ting over the management of the n the Governor-General in Council ing on the business of banking in with the provisions of the Act,

The original share capital of the Bank shall be five crores of rupees divided into shares of Rs. 100 each, which shall be fully paid-up ; the maximum number of votes any one shareholder shall have is 10, every five shares carrying the right of one vote. The number of share registers shall be fixed at five to be maintained at Bombay, Calcutta, Delhi, Madras and Rangoon and the nominal value of the shares assigned to each centre has been fixed at Rs. 140 lacs for Bombay, Rs. 145 lacs for Calcutta, Rs. 115 lacs for Delhi, Rs. 70 lacs for Madras and Rs. 30 lacs for Rangoon.

Management.—The general superintendence and direction of the affairs and business of the Bank will be entrusted to a Central Board of Directors which shall exercised all powers and do all acts and things which may be exercised and done by the Bank. The Board shall be composed of :—

(*a*) A Governor and two Deputy Governors to be appointed by the Governor-General in Council after consideration of the recommendations made by the Board.

(*b*) Four Directors to be nominated by the Governor-General in Council.

(*c*) Eight Directors to be elected on behalf of the shareholders on the various registers.

(*d*) One Government official to be nominated by the Governor-General in Council.

The Governor and Deputy Governors shall be the executive heads, and shall hold office for such term not exceeding five years as the Governor-General in Council may fix when appointing them, and shall be eligible for re-appointment. A Local Board shall be constituted for each of the five areas.

Business which the Bank may transact.—The Bank shall be authorised to carry on and transact the following commercial business, *viz* :—The accepting of money on deposit without interest ; the purchase, sale and rediscount of bills of exchange and promissory notes with certain restrictions ; the maing of loans and advances, repayable on demand but not exceeding 90 days, against the security of stocks, funds and securities (other than immovable property) against gold coin or bullion or documents of title to the same and such bills of exchange and promissory notes as are eligible for purchase or rediscount by the Bank ; the purchase from and sale to scheduled Banks of sterling in amounts of not less than the equivalent of Rs. 1 lacs ; the making of advances to the Governor-General in Council and to Local Governments repayable in each case not later than three months from the date of making the advance ; the purchase and sale of Government securities of the United Kingdom maturing within ten years from the date of purchase ; the purchase and sale of securities of the Government of India or of a Local Government of any maturity or of a local authority in British India or of certain States in India which may be specified.

The Bank shall act as Agent for the Secretary of State in Council, the Governor-General in Council or any Local Government or State in India for the purchase and sale of gold and silver ; for the purchase, sale, transfer and custody of bills of exchange, securities or shares ; for the collection of the proceeds, whether principal, interest or dividends, of any securities or shares ; for the remittance of such proceeds by bill of exchange payable either in India or elsewhere, and for the management of public debt.

Right to issue Bank Notes.—The Bank shall have the sole right to issue bank notes in British India and at the commencement shall issue currency notes of the Government of India supplied to it by the Governor-General in Council and on and from the date of such transfer the Governor-General in Council shall not issue any currency notes. The issue of bank notes shall be conducted by the Bank in an Issue Department which shall be separated and kept wholly distinct from the Banking Department.

In addition to the note issue obligation the Bank shall undertake to accept monies for account of the Secretary of State in Council, the Governor-General in Council and of Local Governments and shall carry out their exchange, remittance and other banking operations including the management of the public debt on such conditions as may be agreed upon.

Obligation to Sell or Buy Sterling.—The Bank shall sell to or buy from any person who makes a demand in that behalf at its office in Bombay, Calcutta, Delhi, Madras or Rangoon, sterling for immediate delivery in London at a rate not lower than 1sh. 5 49-64d. and not higher than 1sh. 6 3-16d. respectively ; provided that no person shall be entitled to demand to buy or sell an amount of sterling less than ten thousand pounds. Every Scheduled bank shall maintain with the Reserve Bank a balance of not less than 5 per cent. of their demand and 2 per cent. of their time liabilities.

Agreement with the Imperial Bank.—The Bank shall enter into an agreement with the Imperial Bank of India which shall be subject to the approval of the Governor-General in Council and will remain in force for 15 years and thereafter until five years' notice on either side. Provisions to be contained in the agreement between the Reserve Bank of India and the Imperial Bank of India are :—

The Imperial Bank of India shall be the sole agent of the Reserve Bank of India at all places in British India where there is a branch of the Imperial Bank of India which was in existence at the commencement of the Reserve Bank of India Act and where there is no branch of the Banking Department of the Reserve Bank of India.

In consideration of the performance of the Agency duties, the Reserve Bank of India shall pay the Imperial Bank of India as remuneration a sum which shall be for the first ten years during which this agreement is in force a commission calculated at 1/16 per cent. on the first 250 crores and 1·32 per cent. on the remainder of the total of the receipts and disbursements dealt with annually on account of Government. As for the remaining five years the remuneration to be paid to the Imperial Bank shall be determined on the basis of the actual cost to the Imperial Bank of India as ascertained by expert accounting investigation.

In consideration of the maintenance by the Imperial Bank of India of branches not less in number than those existing at the commencement of the Reserve Bank of India Act, the Reserve Bank of India shall until the expiry of 15 years, make to the Imperial Bank the following payments :—

(*a*) during the first five years of this agreement Rs. 9,00,000 per annum ; (*b*) during the next five years of the agreement Rs. 6,00,000 per annum ; and (*c*) during the next five years of the agreement Rs. 4,00,000 per annum.

Allocation of Surplus.—The Governor-General in Council shall transfer to the Bank rupee securities of the value of Rs. five crores to be allocated by the Bank to Reserve Fund.

After making the necessary and usual provisions out of profits, a cumulative dividend at such rate not exceeding five per cent. per annum on the share capital as the Governor-General in Council may fix at the time of the issue of the shares shall be paid and the surplus shall be allocated to the payment of an additional dividend to the shareholders calculated on the scales prescribed in the Act and the balance of the surplus shall be paid to the Governor-General in Council.

Provided that so long as the Reserve Fund is less than the share capital, not less than fifty lacs of rupees of the surplus or the whole of the surplus if less than that amount shall be allocated to the Reserve Fund.

Publication of the Bank Rate.—The Bank shall make public from time to time the standard rate at which it is prepared to buy or re-discount bills of exchange or other commercial paper eligible for purchase under the Act.

The Bank will publish the accounts of both the Issue and Banking Departments weekly in the *Gazette of India*.

The Bank shall create an Agricultural Credit Department.

The full text of the Reserve Bank Act is reproduced elsewhere in the year Book.

THE EXCHANGE BANKS.

The Banks carrying on Exchange business in India are merely branch agencies of Banks having their head offices in London, on the continent, or in the Far East and the United States. Originally their business was confined almost exclusively to the financing of the external trade of India; but in recent years most of them, while continuing to finance this part of India's trade, have also taken an active part in the financing of the internal portion also at the places where their branches are situated.

At one time the Banks carried on their operations in India almost entirely with money borrowed elsewhere, principally in London—the home offices of the Banks attracting deposits for use in India by offering rates of interest much higher than the English Banks were able to quote. Within recent years however it has been discovered that it is possible to attract deposits in India on quite as favourable terms as can be done in London and a very large proportion of the financing done by the Exchange Banks is now carried through by means of money actually borrowed in India. No information is available as to how far *each* Bank has secured deposits in India, but the following statement published by the Director-General of Statistics in India shows how rapidly such deposits have grown in the aggregate within recent years.

TOTAL DEPOSITS OF ALL EXCHANGE BANKS SECURED IN INDIA.
In Lakhs of Rupees.

1900	..
1905	..
1910	..
1911	..
1912	..
1913	..
1914	..
1915	..
1916	..
1917	..
1918	..
1919	..
1920	..
1921	..
1922	..
1923	..
1924	..
1925	..
1926	..
1927	..
1928	..
1929	..
1930	..
1931	..

1050
1704
2479
2816
2953
3103
3014
3354
3803
5337
6185
7435
7480
7519
7338
6844
7063
7054
7154
6886
7113
6665
6811
6747

Exchange Banks' Investments.

Turning now to the question of the investment of the Banks' resources, so far as it concerns India, this to a great extent consists of the purchase of bills drawn against imports and exports to and from India.

The financing of the import trade originated and is carried through however for the most part by Branches outside India, the Indian Branches' share in the business consisting principally in collecting the amount of the bills at maturity and in furnishing their other branches with information as to the means and standing of the drawees of the bills, and it is as regards the export business that the Indian Branches are more immediately concerned. The Exchange Banks have practically a monopoly of the export finance in India and in view of the dimensions of the trade which has to be dealt with the Banks would under ordinary circumstances require to utilise a very large proportion of their resources in carrying through the business. They are able however by a system of rediscount in London to limit the employment of their own resources to a comparatively small figure in relation to the business they actually put through. No definite information can be secured as to the extent to which rediscounting in London is carried on but the following figures appearing in the balance sheets dated 31st December 1932 of the undernoted Banks will give some idea of this.

LIABILITY ON BILLS OF EXCHANGE RE-DISCOUNTED AND STILL CURRENT.

	£.
Chartered Bank of India, Australia and China	2,110,000
Eastern Bank, Ltd.	325,000
Hongkong and Shanghai Banking Corporation	2,165,000
Mercantile Bank of India, Ltd. ..	1,081,000
National Bank of India, Ltd. ..	3,213,000
P. & O. Banking Corporation, Ltd.	1,301,000
	10,195,000

The above figures do not of course relate to re-discounts of Indian bills alone, as the Banks operate in other parts of the world also, but it may safely be inferred that bills drawn in India form a very large proportion of the whole

The bills against exports are largely drawn at three months' sight and may either be "clean" or be accompanied by the documents relating to the goods in respect of which they are drawn. Most of them are drawn on well-known firms at home or against credits opened by Banks or financial houses in England and bearing as they do an Exchange Bank endorsement they are readily taken up by the discount houses and Banks in London. Any bills purchased in India are sent home by the first possible Mail so that presuming they are rediscounted as soon as they reach London the Exchange Banks are able to secure the return of their money in about 16 or 17 days instead of having to wait for three months which would be the case if they were unable to rediscount. It must not be assumed however that all bills are rediscounted as soon as they reach London as at times it suits the Banks to hold up the bills in anticipation of a fall in the London discount rate while on occasions also the Banks prefer to hold the bills on their own account as an investment until maturity.

The Banks place themselves in funds in India for the purpose of purchasing export bills in a variety of ways of which the following are the principal:—

(1) Proceeds of import bills as they mature

(2) Sale of drafts and telegraphic transfers payable in London and elsewhere out of India.

(3) Purchase of Council Bills and Telegraphic Transfers payable in India from the Secretary of State.

(4) Imports of bar gold and silver bullion.

(5) Imports of sovereigns from London, Egypt or Australia.

The remaining business transacted by the Banks in India is of the usual nature and need not be given in detail.

An interesting event in Indian Banking history is the recent entry in the Banking field here of one of the English "Big Five." This has been brought about by the acquisition of the business of Cox & Co., by Lloyds Bank.

The following is a statement of the position of the various Exchange Banks carrying on business in India as at 31st December 1931:—

In Thousands of £.

Name.	Capital.	Reserve.	Deposits.	Cash and Investments.
Bank of Taiwan, Ltd.	772	138	15,094	6,176
Chartered Bank of India, Australia and China	3,000	3,000	43,632	26,079
Comptoir National D'Escompte de Paris.	4,705	5,128	107,098	18,303
Eastern Bank, Ltd.	1,000	500	6,007	5,696
Hongkong and Shanghai Banking Corporation	1,250	7,125	58,227	30,817
Imperial Bank of Persia	650	710	2,730	4,605
Lloyds Bank, Ltd.	15,810	8,000	382,102	241,245
Mercantile Bank of India, Ltd.	1,050	1,075	13,034	8,093
Mitsui Bank, Ltd.	3,529	3,164	40,997	22,693
National Bank of India, Ltd.	2,000	2,200	30,113	18,138
National City Bank of New York	37,200	22,800	389,813	255,880
Netherlands Trading Society	9,700	2,426	40,005	21,908
Netherlands India Commercial Bank ..	6,666	3,114	12,171	10,023
P. & O. Banking Corporation, Ltd. ..	2,594	180	7,071	9,371
Yokohama Specie Bank, Ltd.	5,882	7,132	35,214	25,811

JOINT STOCK BANKS.

Previous to 1906 there were few Banks of this description operating in India, and such as were then in existence were of comparatively small importance and had their business confined to a very restricted area. The rapid development of this class of Bank, which has been so marked a feature in Banking within recent years, really had its origin in Bombay and set in with the establishment of the Bank of India and the Indian Specie Bank in 1906. After that time there was a perfect stream of new flotations, and although many of the new Companies confined themselves to legitimate banking business, on the other hand a very large number engaged in other businesses in addition and can hardly be properly classed as Banks.

These Banks made very great strides during the first few years of their existence, but it was generally suspected in well informed circles that the business of many of the Banks was of a very speculative and unsafe character and it was a matter of no great surprise to many people when it became known that some of the Banks were in difficulties.

The first important failure to take place was that of the People's Bank of India and the loss of confidence caused by the failure of that Bank resulted in a very large number of other failures, the principal being that of the Indian Specie Bank.

Since those events of ten years ago confidence has been largely restored. But in April 1923 the Alliance Bank of Simla suspended payment and is now in voluntary liquidation. The effect of the failure of this old established Bank might have been disastrous but for the prompt action of the Imperial Bank which dealt with the situation in close association with the Government of India. The Imperial Bank undertook to pay the depositors of the Alliance Bank 50 per cent. of the amounts due to them. A panic was averted and a critical period was passed through with little difficulty.

During 1923 the Tata Industrial Bank, which was established in 1918, was merged in the Central Bank of India.

The following shows the position of the better known existing Banks as it appears in the latest available Balance Sheets :—

In Lakhs of Rupees.

Name.	Capital.	Reserve.	Deposits.	Cash and Investments.
Allahabad Bank, Ltd., affiliated to P. & O. Banking Corporation Ltd.	35	44	1,081	706
Bank of Baroda, Ltd.	30	21	539	411
Bank of India, Ltd.	100	100	1,449	1,070
Bank of Mysore, Ltd.	20	20	193	93
Central Bank of India, Ltd.	168	70	2,222	1,686
Indian Bank, Ltd. (Madras)	12	15	172	22
Punjab National Bank, Ltd.	31	17	455	201
Union Bank of India, Ltd.	39	7	58	68

Growth of Joint Stock Banks.

The following figures appearing in the Report of the Director-General of Statistics shew the growth of the Capital, Reserve and Deposits of the principal Joint Stock Banks registered in India :—

In Lakhs of rupees.

	Capital.	*Reserve.*	*Deposits.*
1875	14	2	27
1880	18	3	63
1885	18	5	94
1890	33	17	270
1895	63	31	566
1900	82	45	807
1906	133	56	1155
1907	229	63	1490
1908	239	69	1626
1909	266	87	2049
1910	275	100	2565
1911	285	126	2529
1912	291	134	2725
1913	231	132	2259
1914	251	141	1710
1915	281	156	1787
1916	287	173	2471
1917	303	162	3117
1918	436	165	4059
1919	539	224	5899
1920	837	255	7114
1921	938	300	7689
1922	802	261	6163
1923	689	284	4442
1924	690	380	5250
1925	673	386	5449
1926	676	408	5958
1927	688	419	6084
1928	674	434	6285
1929	786	366	6272
1930	744	440	6321
1931	777	426	6223

LONDON OFFICES, AGENTS OR CORRESPONDENTS OF BANKS AND FIRMS (DOING BANKING BUSINESS) IN INDIA.

Name of Bank.	London Office—Agents or Correspondents.	Address.
Imperial Bank of India	London Office	25, Old Broad Street, E. C. 2.
Other Banks & Kindred Firms.		
Allahabad Bank	National Provincial Bank ..	2, Princess Street, E. C. 2.
	P. & O. Banking Corpn.	117-122, Leadenhall Street, E. C. 3.
Bank of India	Westminster Bank	Bartholomew Lane, E. C. 2.
Central Bank of India	Barclay's Bank	168, Fenchurch Street, E. C. 3.
	Midland Bank	5, Threadneedle Street, E. C. 2.
Grindlay & Co.	London Office	54, Parliament Street, S.W. 1.
Karnani Industrial Bank ..	Barclay's Bank	168, Fenchurch Street, E. C. 3.
Punjab National Bank	Midland Bank	5, Threadneedle St., E.C.2.
Simla Banking & Industrial Co.	Ditto	Ditto.
Union Bank of India	Westminster Bank	Bartholomew Lane, E.C.2.
Exchange Banks.		
American Express Co., (Inc.) ..	London Office	79, Bishopsgate, E. C. 2.
Banco Nacional Ultramarino ..	Anglo-Portuguese Colonial and Overseas Bank.	9, Bishopsgate, E. C. 2.
Bank of Taiwan	London Office	Gresham House, 40-41, Old Broad Street, E. C. 2.
Chartered Bank of India, Australia and China.	Ditto	38, Bishopsgate, E. C. 2.
Comptoir National d'Escompte de Paris.	Ditto	8-13, King William Street, E.C. 4.
Eastern Bank	Ditto	2-3, Crosby Sq., E. C. 3.
Hongkong & Shanghai Banking Corporation.	Ditto	9, Gracechurch St., E.C.3.
Imperial Bank of Persia	Ditto	33-36, King William Street, E. C. 4.
Lloyds Bank	Ditto	71, Lombard Street, E.C. 3.
Mercantile Bank of India ..	Ditto	15, Gracechurch St., E.C.3.
Mitsui Bank, Ltd.	Ditto	100, Old Broad St., E.C. 2.
National Bank of India	Ditto	26, Bishopsgate, E. C. 2.
National City Bank of New York	Ditto	36, Bishopsgate, E. C. 2.
Nederlandsche Handel-Maatschappij.	National Provincial Bank ..	2, Princess Street, E. C. 2.
Nederlandsche Indische Handelsbank.	London Representative	Stone House, Bishopsgate, E. C. 2.
P. & O. Banking Corporation ..	London Office	117-122, Leadenhall Street, E. C. 3.
Thomas Cook & Son	Ditto	Berkeley Street, Piccadilly.
Yokohama Specie Bank	Ditto	7, Bishopsgate, E. C. 2.

INDIAN PRIVATE BANKERS AND SHROFFS.

Indian private Bankers and Shroffs flourished in India long before Joint Stock Banks were ever thought of, and it seems likely that they will continue to thrive for some very considerable time to come. The use of the word "Shroff" is usually associated with a person who charges usurious rates of interest to impecunious people, but this is hardly fair to the people known as "shroffs" in banking circles, as there is no doubt that the latter are of very real service to the business community and of very great assistance to Banks in India. Under present conditions the Banks in India can never hope to be able to get into sufficiently close touch with the affairs of the vast trading community in India to enable them to grant accommodation to more than a few of these traders direct and it is in his capacity as middleman that the shroff proves of such great service. In this capacity also he brings a very considerable volume of business within the scope of the Presidency Banks Act, and enables the Presidency Banks to give accommodation which, without his assistance, the Banks would not be permitted to give. The shroff's position as an intermediary between the trading community and the Banks usually arises in something after the following manner. A shopkeeper in the bazaar, with limited means of his own, finds that, after using all his own money, he still requires say Rs. 25,000 to stock his shop suitably. He thereupon approaches the shroff, and the latter after very careful inquiries as to the shopkeeper's position grants the accommodation, if he is satisfied that the business is safe. The business, as a rule, is arranged through a hoondee broker, and in the case referred to the latter may probably approach about ten shroffs and secure accommodation from them to the extent of Rs. 2,500 each. A hoondee usually drawn at a currency of about 2 months is almost invariably taken by the shroffs in respect of such advances.

A stage is reached however when the demands on the shroffs are greater than they are able to meet out of their own money, and it is at this point that the assistance of the Banks is called into requisition. The shroffs do this by taking a number of the bills they already hold to the Banks for discount under their endorsement, and the Banks accept such bills freely to an extent determined in each case by the standing of the shroff and the strength of the drawers. The extent to which any one shroff may grant accommodation in the bazaar is therefore dependent on two factors, *viz.*, (1) the limit which he himself may think it advisable to place on his transactions, and (2) the extent to which the Banks are prepared to discount bills bearing his endorsement. The shroffs keep in very close touch with all the traders to whom they grant accommodation, and past experience has shewn that the class of business above referred to is one of the safest the Banks can engage in.

The rates charged by the shroffs are usually based on the rates at which they in turn can discount the bills with the Banks and necessarily vary according to the standing of the borrower and with the season of the year. Generally speaking, however, a charge of two annas per cent. per mensem above the Bank's rate of discount, or 1½% is a fair average rate charged in Bombay to a first class borrower. Rates in Calcutta and Madras are on a slightly higher scale due in a great measure to the fact that the competition among the shroffs for business is not so keen in these places as it is in Bombay.

The shroffs who engage in the class of business above described are principally Marwaries and Multanis having their Head Offices for the most part in Bikaner and Shikarpur, respectively, the business elsewhere than at the Head Offices being carried on by "Moonims" who have very wide powers.

It is not known to what extent native bankers and shroffs receive deposits and engage in exchange business throughout India, but there is no doubt that this is done to a very considerable extent.

THE BANK RATE.

Formerly each Presidency Bank fixed its own Bank Rate, and the rates were not uniform. Now the Imperial Bank fixes the rate for the whole of India. The rate fixed represents the rate charged by the Banks on demand loans against Government securities only and advances on other securities or discounts are granted as a rule at a slightly higher rate. Ordinarily such advances or discounts are granted at from one-half to one per cent. over the official rate; but this does not always apply and in the monsoon months, when the Bank rate is sometimes nominal, it often happens that such accommodation is granted at the official rate or even less.

The following statement shows the average Bank Rate since the Imperial Bank was constituted:—

Year.	1st Half-year.	2nd Half-year.	Yearly average.
1922	7·132	4·510	5·821
1923	7·419	4·5	5·959
1924	8·05	5·315	6·682
1925	6·585	4·701	5·643
1926	5·651	4·	4·825
1927	6·508	4·956	5·732
1928	6·945	5·456	6·2
1929	6·878	5·788	6·333
1930	6·508	5·277	5·892
1931	6·735	7·353	7·044
1932	6·022	4·033	5·027
1933	3·627	3·5	3·563

BANKERS' CLEARING HOUSES.

The principal Clearing Houses in India are those of Calcutta; Bombay, Madras, Rangoon, Colombo and Karachi, and of these the first two are by far the most important. The members at these places consist of the Imperial Bank, most of the Exchange Banks and English Banking Agency firms, and a few of the better known of the local Joint Stock Banks. No Bank is entitled to claim to be a member as of right and any application for admission to a Clearing must be proposed and seconded by two members and be subject thereafter to ballot by the existing members.

The duties of settling Bank are undertaken by the Imperial Bank at each of the places mentioned and a representative of each member attends at the office of that Bank on each business day at the time fixed to deliver all cheques he may have negotiated on other members and to receive in exchange all cheques drawn on him negotiated by the latter. After all the cheques have been received and delivered the representative of each Bank advises the settling Bank of the difference between his total receipts and deliveries and the settling Bank thereafter strikes a final balance to satisfy itself that the totals of the debtor balances agrees with the total of the creditor balances. The debtor Banks thereafter arrange to pay the amounts due by them to the settling Bank during the course of the day and the latter in turn arranges to pay on receipt of those amounts the balances due to the creditor Banks. In practice however all the members keep Bank accounts with the settling Bank so that the final balances are settled by cheques and book entries thus doing away with the necessity for cash in any form.

The figures for the Clearing Houses in India above referred to are given below:—

Total amount of Cheques Cleared Annually.

In lakhs of Rupees.

	Calcutta.	Bombay.	Madras.	Rangoon.	Colombo.	Karachi.	Total.
1901	Not available	6511	1338	Not available	..	178	8027
1902	..	7013	1295	..	..	268	8576
1903	..	8762	1464	..	..	340	10566
1904	..	9492	1536	..	..	365	11393
1905	..	10927	1560	..	..	324	12811
1906	..	10912	1583	..	..	400	12895
1907	22444	12645	1548	..	..	530	37167
1908	21281	12585	1754	..	..	643	33263
1909	19776	14375	1948	..	..	702	36801
1910	22238	16652	2117	4765	..	755	46527
1911	25763	17605	2083	5399	..	762	51612
1912	28831	20831	1152	6043	..	1159	58016
1913	33133	21890	2340	6198	..	1219	64780
1914	28031	17696	2127	4989	..	1315	54158
1915	32266	16462	1887	4069	..	1352	56036
1916	48017	24051	2495	4853	..	1503	80919
1917	47193	33655	2339	4966	..	2028	90181
1918	74397	53362	2528	6927	..	2429	139643
1919	90241	76250	3004	8837	..	2266	180598
1920	153388	126353	7500	10779	..	3120	301140
1921	91672	89788	3847	11875	..	3579	200761
1922	94426	86683	4279	12220	9681	3231	210523
1923	89148	75015	4722	11094	11940	4064	195983
1924	92249	65250	5546	11555	13134	4515	192249
1925	101833	51944	5716	12493	14978	4119	191083
1926	95944	42066	5688	12511	16033	3166	175408
1927	102392	39826	5629	12609	15997	3057	179510
1928	108819	54308	6540	12035	15446	2945	200093
1929	99765	79968	5877	12160	15429	2718	215917
1930	89313	71205	5218	11483	12093	2550	191862
1931	75627	63982	4461	8156	8852	2319	163397
1932	74650	64637	4722	7595	7456	2519	161579
1933	82368	64552	5159	5807	7220	2563	167669

TABLE OF WAGES, INCOME, &c.

Showing the amount for one or more days at the rates of 1 to 16 Rupees per Month of 31 Days.

Rupees.	1		2		3		4		5		6		7		8		9		10		11		12		13		14		15		16	
Days.	Rs.	a. p.	Rs.	a. p.	Rs.	a. p.	Rs.	a. p.	Rs.	a. p.	Rs.	a. p.	Rs.	a. p.	Rs.	a. p.	Rs.	a. p.	Rs.	a. p.	Rs.	a. p.	Rs.	a. p.	Rs.	a. p.	Rs.	a. p.	Rs.	a. p.	Rs.	a. p.
1	0	0	0	1	0	2	0	3	0	4	0	5	0	6	0	7	0	8	0	9	0	10	0	11	0	12	0	13	0	14	0	15	0	16
2	0	0	0	2	0	4	0	6	0	8	0	10	0	12	0	14	0	16	0	18	0	20	0	22	0	24	0	26	0	28	0	30	0	32
3	0	0	0	3	0	6	0	9	0	12	0	15	0	18	0	21	0	24	0	27	0	30	0	33	0	36	0	39	0	42	0	45	0	48
4	0	0	0	4	0	8	1	0	1	4	1	8	2	0	2	4	2	8	3	0	3	4	3	8	4	0	4	4	4	8	5	0	5	4
5	0	0	0	5	0	10	0	15	1	4	1	9	2	2	2	7	3	0	3	5	4	0	4	5	4	10	5	3	5	8	6	1	6	6
6	0	0	0	6	0	12	1	2	1	8	2	2	2	8	3	3	3	9	4	4	4	10	5	4	5	10	6	4	6	10	7	4	7	9
7	0	0	0	7	0	14	1	4	1	11	2	5	2	12	3	5	4	0	4	7	5	2	5	9	6	4	7	0	7	11	8	6	9	1
8	0	0	0	8	0	16	1	5	2	0	2	8	3	4	4	0	4	8	5	0	5	8	6	0	6	8	7	4	8	0	8	8	9	4
9	0	0	0	9	0	1	0	2	0	3	0	4	0	5	0	6	0	7	0	8	0	9	0	10	0	11	0	12	0	13	0	14	0	15
10	0	0	0	10	0	2	0	4	0	6	0	8	0	10	0	12	0	14	0	16	0	18	0	20	0	22	0	24	0	26	0	28	0	30
11	0	0	0	11	0	2	0	5	0	7	0	9	0	12	0	14	0	16	0	18	0	21	0	23	0	25	0	27	0	30	0	32	0	34
12	0	0	0	12	0	3	0	6	0	9	0	12	0	15	0	18	0	21	0	24	0	27	0	30	0	33	0	36	0	39	0	42	0	45
13	0	0	0	13	0	3	0	7	0	10	0	13	0	16	0	19	0	22	0	25	0	28	0	31	0	34	0	37	0	40	0	43	0	46
14	0	0	0	14	0	3	0	7	0	10	0	14	0	17	0	21	0	24	0	28	0	31	0	34	0	38	0	41	0	44	0	48	0	51
15	0	0	0	15	0	3	0	8	0	11	0	15	0	18	0	22	0	25	0	29	0	32	0	36	0	39	0	43	0	46	0	50	0	53
16	0	0	0	16	0	4	0	8	1	0	1	4	1	8	2	0	2	4	2	8	3	0	3	4	3	8	4	0	4	4	4	8	5	0
17	0	0	0	17	0	4	0	8	1	1	1	5	1	9	2	2	2	6	2	10	3	3	3	7	3	11	4	4	4	8	5	1	5	5
18	0	0	0	18	0	4	0	9	1	2	1	6	1	11	2	4	2	9	3	1	3	6	3	11	4	4	4	9	5	2	5	7	6	0
19	0	0	0	19	0	4	0	9	1	3	1	7	1	12	2	5	2	10	3	2	3	7	4	0	4	5	5	0	5	5	6	0	6	10
20	0	0	0	20	0	5	0	10	1	4	1	8	2	0	2	6	3	0	3	6	4	0	4	6	5	0	5	6	6	0	6	12	7	0
21	0	0	0	21	0	5	0	10	1	4	1	9	2	3	2	8	3	1	3	7	4	1	4	7	5	1	5	7	6	1	6	13	7	1
22	0	0	0	22	0	5	0	11	1	5	1	10	2	4	2	9	3	2	3	8	4	2	4	8	5	2	5	8	6	2	6	14	7	2
23	0	0	0	23	0	5	0	11	1	5	1	10	2	5	3	0	3	3	3	9	4	3	4	9	5	3	5	9	6	3	6	15	7	3
24	0	0	0	24	0	6	0	12	1	6	1	11	2	6	3	1	3	4	3	10	4	4	4	10	5	4	5	10	6	4	6	16	7	4
25	0	0	0	25	0	6	0	12	1	7	1	12	2	7	3	2	3	5	3	11	4	5	4	11	5	5	5	11	6	5	6	17	7	5
26	0	0	0	26	0	6	0	13	1	7	1	13	2	8	3	3	3	6	3	12	4	6	4	12	5	6	5	12	6	6	6	18	7	6
27	0	0	0	27	0	6	0	13	1	8	1	13	2	9	3	4	3	7	3	13	4	7	4	13	5	7	5	13	6	7	6	19	7	7
28	0	0	0	28	0	7	0	14	1	8	1	14	2	10	3	5	3	8	3	14	4	8	4	14	5	8	5	14	6	8	6	20	7	8
29	0	0	0	29	0	7	0	14	1	9	1	14	2	11	3	6	3	9	3	15	4	9	4	15	5	9	5	15	6	9	6	21	7	9
30	0	0	0	30	0	7	0	15	1	9	1	15	2	12	3	7	3	10	3	16	4	10	4	16	5	10	5	16	6	10	6	22	7	10
31	1	0	0	31	0	8	0	15	1	10	1	15	2	13	3	8	3	11	3	17	4	11	4	17	5	11	5	17	6	11	6	23	7	11

The Railways.

The history of Indian Railways very closely reflects the financial vicissitudes of the country. Not for some time after the establishment of Railways in England was their construction in India contemplated, and then to test their applicability to Eastern conditions three experimental lines were sanctioned in 1845. These were from Calcutta to Raniganj (120 miles), the East Indian Railway; Bombay to Kalyan (33 miles), Great Indian Peninsula Railway; and Madras to Arkonam (39 miles), Madras Railway. Indian Railway building on a serious scale dates from Lord Dalhousie's great minute of 1853, wherein, after dwelling upon the great social, political and commercial advantages of connecting the chief cities by rail, he suggested a great scheme of trunk lines linking the Presidencies with each other and the inland regions with the principal ports. This reasoning commended itself to the Directors of the East India Company, and it was powerfully reinforced when, during the Mutiny, the barriers imposed on free communication were severely felt. As there was no private capital in India available for railway construction, English Companies, the interest on whose capital was guaranteed by the State, were formed for the purpose. By the end of 1859 contracts had been entered into with eight companies for the construction of 5,000 miles of line, involving a guaranteed capital of £52 millions. These companies were (1) the East Indian; (2) the Great Indian Peninsula; (3) the Madras; (4) the Bombay, Baroda and Central India; (5) the Eastern Bengal; (6) the Indian Branch, later the Oudh and Rohilkund State Railway and now part of the East Indian Railway; (7) the Sind, Punjab and Delhi, now merged in the North Western State Railway; (8) the Great Southern of India, now the South Indian Railway. The scheme laid the foundations of the Indian Railway system as it exists to-day.

Early Disappointments.

The main principle in the formation of these companies was a Government guarantee on their capital, for this was the only condition on which investors would come forward. This guarantee was five per cent. coupled with the free grant of all the land required; in return the companies were required to share the surplus profits with the Government, after the guaranteed interest had been met; the interest charges were calculated at 22*d.* to the rupee; the Railways were to be sold to Government on fixed terms at the close of twenty-five years and the Government were to exercise close control over expenditure and working. The early results were disappointing. Whilst the Railways greatly increased the efficiency of the administration, the mobility of the troops, the trade of the country, and the movement of the population, they failed to make profits sufficient to meet the guaranteed interest. Some critics attributed this to the unnecessarily high standard of construction adopted, and to the engineers' ignorance of local conditions; the result was that by 1869 the deficit on the Railway budget was Rs. 166½ lakhs. Seeking for some more economical method of construction; the Government secured sanction to the building of lines by direct State Agency, and funds were allotted for the purpose, the metre-gauge being adopted for cheapness. Funds soon lapsed and the money available had to be diverted to converting the Sind and Punjab lines from metre to broad-gauge for strategic reasons. Government had therefore again to resort to the system of guarantee, and the Indian Midland (1882-85), since absorbed by the Great Indian Peninsula; the Bengal-Nagpur (1883-87); the Southern Mahratta (1882); and the Assam Bengal (1891) were constructed under guarantees, but on easier terms than the first companies. Their total length was over 4,000 miles.

Famine and Frontiers.

In 1879, embarrassed by famine and by the fall of the exchange value of the rupee, Government again endeavoured to enlist unaided private enterprise. Four companies were promoted:—the Nilgiri, the Delhi-Umballa-Kalka, the Bengal Central, and the Bengal North-Western. The first became bankrupt, the second and third received guarantees, and the Tirhut Railway had to be leased to the fourth. A step of even greater importance was taken when Native States were invited to undertake construction in their own territories, and the Nizam's Government guaranteed the interest on 330 miles of line in the State of Hyderabad. This was the first of the large system of Native State Railways. In the first period up to 1870, 4,255 miles were opened, of which all save 45 were on the broad-gauge; during the next ten years there were opened 4,239, making the total 8,494 (on the broad-gauge 6,562, the metre 1,865, and narrow 67). Then ensued a period of financial ease. It was broken by the fall in exchange and the costly lines built on the frontier. The Penjdeh incident, which brought Great Britain and Russia to the verge of war, necessitated the connection of our outposts at Quetta and Chaman with the main trunk lines. The sections through the desolate Harnai and Bolan Passes were enormously costly; it is said that they might have been ballasted with rupees; the long tunnel under the Khojak Pass added largely to this necessary, but unprofitable, outlay.

Rebate Terms Established.

This induced the fourth period—the system of rebates. Instead of a gold subsidy, companies were offered a rebate on the gross earnings of the traffic interchanged with the main line, so that the dividend might rise to four per cent. but the rebate was limited to 20 per cent. of the gross earnings. Under these conditions, there were promoted the Ahmedabad-Prantej, the South Behar, and the Southern Punjab, although only in the case of the first were the terms strictly adhered to. The Barsi Light Railway, on the two feet six inches gauge, entered the field without any guarantee, and with rolling stock designed to illustrate the carrying power of this gauge. The rebates terms being found unattractive in view of the competition of 4 per cent. trustee stocks; they were revised in 1896 to provide for an

absolute guarantee of 3 per cent. with a share of surplus profits, or rebate up to the full extent of the main line's net earnings in supplement of their own net earnings, the total being limited to 3½ per cent. on the capital outlay. Under these terms, a considerable number of feeder line companies was promoted, though in none were the conditions arbitrarily exacted. As these terms did not at first attain their purpose, they were further revised, and in lieu was substituted an increase in the rate of guarantee from 3 to 3½ per cent. and of rebate from 3½ to 5 per cent. with equal division of surplus profits over 5 per cent. in both cases. At last, the requirements of the market were met, and there was for a time a mild boom in feeder railway construction and the stock of all the sound companies promoted stood at a substantial premium. Conditions changed after the war and the Acworth Committee so far from approving of this system, considered that the aim of the Government should be to reduce by amalgamation the number of existing companies and that it should only be in cases where the State cannot or will not provide adequate funds that private enterprise in this direction should be encouraged.

The existing Branch Line Companies have ceased for some time to raise additional capital for capital requirements. They have either obtained overdrafts from various Banks for this purpose at heavy rates of interest or issued debentures at special rates of interest (usually about 7 per cent.) or in several cases asked for money to be advanced to them by the Railway Board. So far, therefore, from reducing the amount that the Government of India have to raise in the open market, they were increasing the amount. For the above reasons, the Government of India have abolished this system and are now prepared themselves to find the capital required for the construction of extensions or branches to existing main line systems. They have also announced their readiness to consider the question of constructing branch or feeder lines which were not expected to be remunerative from the point of view of railway earnings upon a guarantee against loss from a Local Government or local authority which might desire to have such lines constructed for purely local reasons or on account of administrative advantages likely to accrue in particular areas. This proposal was put forward as affording a suitable method of reconciling the interests of the Central and the Local Governments and of providing for local bodies and for Local Governments a method of securing the construction of railways which may be required for purely local reasons and which, while not likely to prove remunerative on purely railway earnings, are likely to give such benefits to Local Governments and local bodies as will more than repay the amounts paid under the guarantee. Some such arrangements have already been made with Local Governments in Madras, Punjab Burma and Bombay.

Railway Profits begin.

Meantime a much more important change was in progress. The gradual economic development of the country vastly increased the traffic, both passenger and goods. The falling in of the original contracts allowed Government to renew them on more favourable terms. The development of irrigation in the Punjab and Sind transformed the North-Western State Railway. Owing to the burden of maintaining the unprofitable Frontier lines, this was the Cinderella Railway in India—the scapegoat of the critics who protested against the unwisdom of constructing railways from borrowed capital. But with the completion of the Chenab and Jhelum Canals, the North-Western became one of the great grain lines of the world, choked with traffic at certain seasons of the year and making a large profit for the State. In 1900 the railways for the first time showed a small gain to the State. In succeeding years the net receipts grew rapidly. In the four years ended 1907-08 they averaged close upon £2 millions a year. In the following year there was a relapse. Bad harvests in India, accompanied by the monetary panic caused by the American financial crisis, led to a great falling off in receipts just when working expenses were rising, owing to the general increase in prices. Instead of a profit, there was a deficit of £1,240,000 in the railway accounts for 1908-09. But in the following year there was a reversion to a profit, and the net Railway gain has steadily increased. For the year ended March 1919 this gain amounted to £10,573,000. Although in a country like India, where the finances are mainly dependent upon the character of the monsoon, the railway revenue must fluctuate, there was no reason to anticipate a further deficit, but the net railway gain decreased to £3,767,000 in 1920-21 and there was an actual loss of £6,182,000 in 1921-22. As a result of the steps taken by the Railway Board, however, on the report of the Acworth Committee in 1921, this loss was changed into a gain of £813,000 in 1922-23.

The results in succeeding years will be seen from the following statements :—

—	Contribution to General Revenues.	Railway Reserve Fund.	Total Gain.
	£	£	£
1923–24 ..	..	..	4,437,712
1924–25 ..	4,941,387	4,635,985	9,577,372
1925–26 ..	4,135,644	2,854,936	6,990,580
1926–27 ..	4,486,045	1,108,433	5,594,478
1927–28 ..	4,707,239	3,460,000	8,167,239
1928–29 ..	3,933,834	1,937,895	5,871,729
1929–30 ..	4,588,950	1,561,650	3,027,300
1930–31 ..	4,301,775	8,192,625	3,890,850
1931–32 ..	4,020,150	—	6,900,000
1932–33 ..	*		

* The contribution to General Revenues due for the year 1932-33 amounts to Rs. 523 lakhs or 13 lakhs less than in 1931-32. The payment of the contribution has been held in abeyance until the return of prosperous years.

Rupees have been converted into £ at the average rate of exchange for the year.

In 1932-33 the gross receipts amounted to 84½ crores or 2 crores less than in the previous year. Working expenses, including the usual appropriation for depreciation amounted to 61½ crores—about 1½ crore less than in the

previous year. The net receipt of 23 crores, or 1 crore less than in 1931-32 were insufficient to meet the interest charges. The deficit of 10 crores was, as in the previous year, borrowed from accumulated balances of the Depreciation Fund.

Contracts Revised.

One factor which helped to improve the financial position was the revision of the original contracts under which the guaranteed lines were constructed. The five per cent. dividend guaranteed at 22*d.* per rupee, and the half-yearly settlements made these companies a drain on the State at a time when their stock was at a high premium. The first contract to fall in was the East Indian, the great line connecting Calcutta with Delhi and the Northern provinces. When the contract lapsed, the Government exercised their right of purchasing the line, paying the purchase-money in the form of terminable annuities, derived from revenue, carrying with them a sinking fund for the redemption of capital. The railway thus became a State line: but it was released to the Company which actually works it. Under these new conditions the East Indian Company brought to the State in the ten years ended 1909 after meeting all charges, including the payments on account of the terminable annuity by means of which the purchase of the line was made, and interest of all capital outlay subsequent to the date on purchase, a clear profit of nearly ten millions. At the end of seventy-four years from 1880, when the annuity expires, the Government will come into receipt of a clear yearly income of upwards of £2,700,000, equivalent to the creation of a capital of sixty to seventy millions sterling. No other railway shows results quite equal to the East Indian, because, in addition to serving a rich country by an easy line, it possesses its own collieries and enjoys cheap coal. But with allowance for these factors, all the other guaranteed companies which have been acquired under similar conditions as their contracts expired, have proportionately swelled the revenue and assets of the State. It is difficult to estimate the amount which must be added to the capital debt of the Indian railways in order to counterbalance the loss during the period when the revenue did not meet the interest charges. According to one estimate it should be £50 millions. But even if that figure be taken, Government have a magnificent asset in their railway property.

Improving Open Lines.

These changes induced a corresponding change in Indian Railway policy. Up to 1900 the great work had been the provision of trunk lines. But with the completion of the Nagda-Muttra line, providing an alternative broad-gauge route from Bombay to Delhi through Eastern Rajputana, the trunk system was virtually complete. A direct broad-gauge route from Bombay to Sind is needed, but the poor commercial prospects of the line and the opposition of the Rao of Cutch to any through line in his territories, has for some time kept this scheme in the background. The possibilities however of this construction being undertaken have improved considerably recently and a detailed survey is being carried out. There does not exist any through rail connection between India and Burma, although several routes have been surveyed: the mountainous character of the region to be traversed, and the easy means of communication with Burma by sea, rob this scheme of any living importance. Further survey work was undertaken between 1914 and 1920, the three routes to be surveyed being the coast route, the Manipur route, and the Hukong valley route. The metre-gauge systems of Northern and Southern India will also probably one day be connected and Karachi given direct broad-gauge connection with Delhi, a project that has been investigated more than once but cannot at present be financially justified. These works are, however, subordinate to the necessity for bringing the open lines up to their traffic requirements and providing them with feeders. The sudden increase in the trade of India found the main lines totally unprepared. Costly works were necessary to double lines, improve the equipment, provide new and better yards and terminal facilities and to increase the rolling stock. Consequently the demands on the open lines altogether overshadowed the provision of new lines. Even then the railway budget was found totally inadequate for the purpose, and a small Committee sat in London, under the chairmanship of Lord Inchcape, to consider ways and means. This Committee found that the amount which could be remuneratively spent on railway construction in India was limited only by the capacity of the money market. They fixed the annual allotment at £12,000,000 a year. Even this reduced sum could not always be provided.

During 1932-33 the principal open line improvements consisted in:—

Doubling of the Ruparani Bridge on the B. N. Railway.

Erection of new spans on the Kotri Bridge over the Indus, N. W. Railway.

Replacement of girders on the Jumna Bridge, Delhi.

Rebuilding of the Mahanadi Bridge on the Katni Branch, B. N. Railway.

Building the new double track Bridge over the Nerbadda near Broach, B. B. & C. I. Railway.

Shoranur-Cochin Railway conversion, S. I. Railway.

Government Control and Re-organisation of Railway Board.

As the original contracts carried a definite Government guarantee of interest, it was necessary for Government to exercise strong supervision and control over the expenditure during construction, and over management and expenditure after the lines were open for traffic. For these purposes a staff of Consulting Engineers was formed, and a whole system of checks and counterchecks established, leading up to the Railway Branch of the Public Works Department of the Government of India. As traffic developed, the Indian Railways outgrew this dry nursing, and when the original contracts expired, and the interests of Government and the Companies synchronised, it became not only vexatious but unnecessary. Accordingly in 1901-02 Mr. Thomas Robertson was deputed by the Secretary of State to examine the whole

question of the organization and working of the Indian Railways, and he recommended that the existing system should be replaced by a Railway Board, consisting of a Chairman and two members with a Secretary. The Board was formally constituted in March 1905. The Board was made subordinate to the Government of India in which it was represented by the Department of Commerce and Industry. It prepared the railway programme of expenditure and considered the greater questions of policy and economy affecting all the lines. Its administrative duties included the construction of new lines by State agency, the carrying out of new works on open lines, the improvement of railway management with regard both to economy and public convenience, the arrangements for through traffic, the settlement of disputes between lines, the control and promotion of the staff on State lines, and the general supervision over the working and expenditure of the Company's lines. Certain minor changes have taken place from time to time since the constitution of the Railway Board. In 1908, to meet the complaint that the Board was subjected to excessive control by the Department of Commerce and Industry, the powers of the Chairman were increased and he was given the status of a Secretary to Government with the right of independent access to the Viceroy; he usually sat in the Imperial Legislative Council as the representative of the Railway interest. In 1912 in consequence of complaints of the excessive interference of the Board with the Companies, an informal mission was undertaken by Lord Inchcape to reconcile differences. Various changes were introduced during the years 1912-1920 such as the modification of the rule that the President and members of the Railway Board should all be men of large experience in the working of railways due to the importance of financial and commercial considerations in connection with the control of Indian Railway policy. This decision was, however, revised in 1920 and an additional appointment of Financial Adviser to the Railway Board created instead. The question of the most suitable organization was further fully examined by the Acworth Committee in 1921 and a revised organization which is described later was introduced from 1st April 1924.

Some of the difficulties involved in the constitution of a controlling authority for the railways of India may be realized from a study of the "Notes on the Relation of the Government to Railways in India" printed as an appendix to Volume I of the Annual Report by the Railway Board on Indian Railways. These notes bring out the great diversity of conditions prevailing which involve the Railway Department in the exercise of the functions of—

(*a*) the directly controlling authority of the State-worked systems aggregating 18,499 miles in on the 31st March 1929,

(*b*) the representative of the predominant owning partner in systems aggregating 29,451 miles,

(*c*) the guarantor of many of the smaller companies, and

(*d*) the statutory authority over all railways in India.

Moreover in all questions relating to railways or extra municipal tramways in which Provincial Governments are concerned, the Railway Department is called upon to watch the interests of the Central Government and is frequently asked to advise the Local Governments. Its duties do not end there. The future development of railways depends largely on the Government of India and the Railway Department is therefore called upon to plan out schemes of development, to investigate and survey new lines and to arrange for financing their construction. The evolution of a satisfactory authority for the administration of these varied functions has proved extremely difficult and the question was one of those referred to the Railway Committee (1920-21) presided over by Sir William Acworth who recommended the early appointment of a Chief Commissioner of Railways whose first duty should be to prepare a definite scheme for the reorganization of the Railway Department and Mr. C. D. M. Hindley, formerly Agent of the East Indian Railway and Chairman of the Calcutta Port Trust, was appointed Chief Commissioner on November 1st, 1922.

The principal constitutional change involved in this appointment is that the Chief Commissioner who takes the place of the President of the Railway Board is solely responsible—under the Government of India—for arriving at decisions on technical matters and for advising the Government of India on matters of railway policy and is not, as was the President, subject to be out-voted and over-ruled by his colleagues on the Board. The detailed re-organization of the Railway Board in accordance with the Chief Commissioner's proposals required careful consideration but one of the most important of his recommendations namely the appointment of a Financial Commissioner was considered of particular urgency and the Secretary of State's sanction was therefore obtained to the appointment with effect from 1st April 1923. While in the person of the Chief Engineer the Railway Board has always had available the technical advice of a senior Civil Engineer in Mechanical Engineering questions it has had to depend on outside assistance. The disadvantages of this arrangement have become increasingly evident and it was therefore decided with effect from November 1st, 1922, to create the new appointment of Chief Mechanical Engineer with the Railway Board.

The reorganization carried out in 1924 had for one of its principal objects the relief of the Chief Commissioner and the Members from all but important work so as to enable them to devote their attention to larger questions of railway policy and to enable them to keep in touch with Local Governments, railway administrations and public bodies by touring to a greater extent than they had been able to do in the past.

This object was effected by the following new ports which in some cases supplemented the existing ones and in other cases replaced them. Directors of Civil Engineering, Mechanical Engineering, Traffic, Establishment and Finance and seven Deputy Directors working under them.

The necessity of some central organisation to co-ordinate the publicity work carried out on railways and to undertake on its own the many forms of railways publicity which can be best

organised by one central body led to the inauguration of the Central Publicity Bureau under a Chief Publicity Officer in 1927. The success which has attended the work of this Bureau led to its being made permanent from January 1st, 1929. The work undertaken is described later.

The growing importance of Labour questions necessitated the organisation of a new branch in the Railway Board's office and to the appointment in 1929 of a third member whose main duties are connected with the satisfactory solution of labour problems and the improvements of the conditions of service of the staff generally and of the lower paid employees in particular.

Under the Railway Board's policy of progressive standardisation, a Central Standardisation Office was established under a Chief Controller of Standardisation to provide the means whereby such standardisation would be progressively effected in accordance with changing conditions and as the result of practical experience. The Technical Officer under the Railway Board was transferred to this office as a Deputy Controller.

The present superior staff under the Railway Board, therefore consisted of 5 Directors, 5 Deputy Directors, a Secretary and an Assistant Secretary in addition to the Controller of Railway Accounts and his officers, to the Central Publicity Officer and the Officers in the Central Publicity Bureau and to the Chief Controller and the officers in the Central Standardisation Office.

The question of transferring the supervision of railway accounts of State Railways from the Finance Department to the Railway Board was under consideration for some time and in accordance with a resolution adopted, by the Legislative Assembly in September 1925, a start was made with the transfer of the supervision of railway accounts on the East Indian Railway. At the same time a separate Audit Staff was appointed reporting directly to the Auditor-General. As it was found that the separation of Audit from Accounts led to greater efficiency, a similar organisation was introduced on other State-managed railways during 1929. The supervision of Accounts Officers was placed under a Controller of Railway Accounts reporting to the Financial Commissioner of Railways and that of Audit Officers under a Director of Railway Audit reporting to the Auditor-General. These two duties were previously combined under the Accountant-General, Railways, reporting to the Auditor-General. The Chief Accounts Officers on railways are now under the Agent but have certain powers of direct reference to the Financial Commissioner of Railways.

Management.

The Railways managed by Companies have Boards of Directors in London and are represented in India by an Agent. Some of the Company-managed railways are still on a departmental basis with a Traffic Manager, Chief Engineer, Locomotive and Carriage and Wagon Superintendent, Controller of Stores and Chief Auditor, while others have separated the Transportation and Commercial duties of the Traffic Manager and combined the supervision of Locomotive running with Transportation. State-managed lines have generally adopted the divisional organisation.

Clearing Accounts Office.

A Clearing Accounts Office, with a Statutory Audit Office attached thereto, was opened in December 1926 to take over work relating to the check and apportionment of traffic interchanged between State-managed Railways. The work of the different railways was gradually transferred to this office, the North Western Railway being taken over first on the 1st January 1927, the East Indian Railway following on the 1st April, the Eastern Bengal Railway on the 1st January 1928, and the Great Indian Peninsula Railway later.

At the request of the Bombay, Baroda and Central India Railway an exhaustive experiment was conducted to check the accuracy of the results obtained by the revised procedure, and as the experiment was completely successful, the Board of Directors of the Bombay, Baroda & Central India Railway have also agreed to the transfer of the check and apportionment of their foreign traffic to the Clearing Accounts Office.

During 1927-28 demonstrations explaining the Clearing Accounts Office procedure were given to the representatives of the Press as well as to the representatives of the various railways who visited the office to study the new procedure. An important demonstration was given to the representatives of the Southern Railways at Madras who were so impressed with the superiority of the new procedure that they unanimously recommended to their Home Boards the transfer of the work of check and apportionment of earnings from interchanged traffic to the Clearing Account Office, and it was hoped to open a branch Clearing Accounts Office at Madras at an early date to deal with such traffic but owing to certain later developments in connection with experiments now in operation of through rate registers and of decentralisation of Traffic Accounts Work, no definite decision has yet been arrived at.

The Railway Conference.

In order to facilitate the adjustment of domestic questions, the Railway Conference was instituted in 1876. This Conference was consolidated into a permanent body in 1903 under the title of the Indian Railway Conference Association. It is under the direct control of the railways, it elects a President from amongst the members, and has done much useful work.

The Indian Gauges.

The standard gauge for India is five feet six inches. When construction was started the broad-gauge school was strong, and it was thought advisable to have a broad-gauge in order to resist the influence of cyclones. But in 1870, when the State system was adopted it was decided to find a more economical gauge, for the open lines had cost £17,000 a mile. After much deliberation, the metre-gauge of 3 feet 3⅜ inches was adopted, because at that time the idea of adopting the metric system for India was in the air. The original intention was to make the metre-gauge lines provisional; they were to be converted into broad-gauge as soon as the traffic justified it; consequently

they were built very light. But the traffic expanded with surprising rapidity, and it was found cheaper to improve the carrying power of the metre-gauge lines than to convert them to the broad-gauge. So, except in the Indus Valley, where the strategic situation demanded an unbroken gauge, the metre-gauge lines were improved and they became a permanent feature in the railway system. Now there is a great metre-gauge system north of the Ganges connected with the Rajputana lines and Kathiawar and another system in Southern India embracing the Southern Maratha and the South India Systems. These are not yet connected, but the necessary link from Khandwa by way of the Nizam's Hyderabad-Godaveri Railway, cannot be long delayed. All the Burma lines are on the metre-guage. Certain feeder and hill railways have been constructed on the 2'-6" and 2'-0" gauges and since the opening of the Barsi Light Railway which showed the possible capacity of the 2'-6" gauge, there has been a tendency to construct feeder lines on this rather than on the metre-gauge.

State versus Company Management.—The relative advantages and disadvantages of State and Company management of the railways owned by Government which comprise the great bulk of the railway mileage in India have been the subject of discussion in official circles and the public press for many years. In India the question is complicated by the fact that the more important companies have not in recent years been the owners of the railways which they manage and the headquarters of their Boards are in London. The subject was one, perhaps the most important, of the terms of reference of the Acworth Railway Committee. That Committee was unfortunately, unable to make a unanimous recommendation on this point, their members being equally divided in favour of State management and Company management. They were however, unanimous in recommending that the present system of management by Boards of Directors in London should not be extended beyond the terms of the existing contracts and this recommendation has met with general public acceptance. During the year 1922-23, the question was again referred to certain Local Governments and public bodies and opinions collected and discussed. The approaching termination of the East Indian Railway contract on 31st December 1924 and of that of the Great Indian Peninsula Railway on 30th June 1925 rendered an early decision on this question imperative. When the question was debated in the Legislative Assembly in February 1923, the non-official Indian Members were almost unanimously in favour of State management and indeed were able to carry a resolution recommending the placing of the East Indian Railway and the Great Indian Peninsula Railway under State management at the close of their present contracts. The Government of India, however, expressed themselves as being so convinced by the almost universal failure of this method in other countries that they proposed, while accepting the necessity for taking over the managment of the East Indian Railway and the Great Indian Peninsula Railway to continue their efforts to devise a satisfactory form of Company domiciled in India to take these railways over eventually on a basis of real Company management. There have been certain definite advantages during a transition period in having a central authority with necessary powers to co-ordinate the work on railways and that the results have been satisfactory are borne out by the fact that Indian railways have contributed 4¾ million pounds to General Revenues during 1927-28 and nearly 4 million pounds during 1928-29 in addition to paying in 3¼ million and 1¾ million pounds respectively during these two years to the Railway Reserve Fund. The future organisation will, however, need careful organisation. Experience in other countries has shown that difficulties arise in a Government fully responsible to the Legislature or under any constitution which imposed on the Railway Department the necessary restrictions which must apply as between ordinary departments of the State. The solution found in other countries such as Germany, Canada, Belgium, Austria and elswhere, where State ownership has thrown on the State the obligation to manage its own railways, has been to create by a statute an authority charged with the management of the State Railway property with statutory prescription of the objects to be aimed at in such management and statutory division of railway profits between the State and the Railway Authority. This authority may take the form of a company as in Canada and in Germany or follow the simpler lines of a statutory commission. On 1st January 1925 the East Indian Railway was amalgamated with the Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway and brought under direct State Management while on 1st July 1925 the Great Indian Peninsular Railway followed suit. The Naini-Jubbulpore Section of the East Indian Railway was transferred to the Great Indian Peninsula Railway on 1st October 1925.

On January 1st 1929 the contract with the Burma Railways Company was terminated and the management taken over by the State. The purchase of this railway has entailed the payment to the Burma Railways Company of the sum of three millions sterling being the share capital originally contributed by the Company. The financial effort of taking over the line is estimated to be an increase of about half a crore of rupees in the net annual revenue to Government.

The purchase of the Southern Punjab Railway of an aggregate length of about 927 miles worked by the North Western Railway was effected on the 1st January 1930. It is estimated that the financial result of the purchase which cost approximately Rs. 703 lakhs will be a gain to Government of about Rs. 47 lakhs a year.

At the end of 1929-30 the Nizam's Guaranteed State Railways system which was the property of the company, was acquired and its management taken over by His Exalted Highness the Nizam's Government and is now known as His Exalted Highness the Nizam's State Railway.

Separation of the Railway from the General Finances.—The question of the separation of the railway from the general finances was under consideration for some time and as a result of the recommendations of the Acworth Committee in 1921, the question was further examined by the Railway Finance Committee and the Legislative Assembly but it was decided to postpone a definite decision for the present.

The question was examined afresh in connection with the recommendation of the Retrenchment Committee in 1923, that the railways in India should be so worked as to yield an average return of at least 5½ per cent. on the capital at charge and it was decided that a suitable time had arrived when this separation could be carried out. A resolution was accordingly introduced in the Assembly on the 3rd March 1924, recommending to the Governor-General in Council:—"that in order to relieve the general budget from the violent fluctuations caused by the incorporation therein of the railway estimates and to enable the railway to carry out a continuous railway policy based on the necessity of making a definite return over a period of years to the State on the Capital expended on railways:—

(1) The railway finances shall be separated from the general finances of the country and the general revenues shall receive a definite annual contribution from railways which shall be the first charge on railway earnings.

(2) The contribution shall be a sum equal to five-sixths of 1 per cent. on the capital at charge of the railways (excluding capital contributed by Companies and Indian States and Capital expenditure on strategic Railways) at the end of the penultimate financial year *plus* one-fifth of any surplus profits remaining after payment of this fixed return, subject to the condition that if any year railway revenues are insufficient to provide the percentage of five-sixths of 1 per cent. on the capital at charges surplus profits in the next or subsequent years, will not be deemed to have accrued for purposes of division until such deficiency has been made good. From the contribution so fixed will be deducted the loss in working, and the interest on capital expenditure on strategic lines.

(3) Any surplus profits that exist after payment of these charges shall be available for the Railway administration to be utilised in—

(*a*) forming reserves for,

(*i*) equalising dividends, that is to say, of securing the payment of the percentage contribution to the general revenues in lean years,

(*ii*) depreciation,

(*iii*) writing down and writing off capital,

(*b*) the improvement of services rendered to the public,

(*c*) the reduction of rates.

(4) The railway administration shall be entitled, subject to such conditions as may be described by the Government of India, to borrow temporarily from capital or from the reserves for the purpose of meeting expenditure for which there is no provision or insufficient provision in the revenue budget subject to the obligation to make repayment of borrowings out of the revenue budgets of subsequent years.

(5) In accordance with present practice the figures of gross receipts and expenditure of railways will be included in the Budget Statement. The proposed expenditure will, as at present, be placed before the Legislative Assembly in the form of a demand for grants and on a separate day or days among the days allotted for the discussion of the demands for grants the Member in charge of the Railways will make a general statement on railway accounts and working. Any reductions in the demand for grants for railways resulting from the votes of the Legislative Assembly will not ensure to general revenues, *i.e.*, will not have the effect of increasing the fixed contribution for the year.

(6) The Railway Department will place the estimate of railway expenditure before the Central Advisory Council on some date prior to the date for the discussion of the demand for grants for railways."

This resolution was examined by the Standing Finance Committee in September and was introduced with certain modifications. The final resolution agreed to by the Assembly on September 20th, 1924, and accepted by Government differed from the original resolution in that the yearly contribution had been placed at 1 per cent. instead of 5/6th per cent. on the capital at charge and if the surplus remaining after this payment to General Revenues should exceed 3 crores, only ⅔rd of the excess over 3 crores were to be transferred to the Railway Reserve and the remaining ⅓rd was to accrue to General Revenues. At the same time a Standing Finance Committee for Railways was to be constituted to examine the estimate of railways expenditure and the demand for grants, the programme revenue expenditure being shown under a depreciation fund. This committee was to consist of one nominated official member of the Legislative Assembly as Chairman and 11 members elected by the Legislative Assembly from that body. This would be in addition to the Central Advisory Council which will include the Members of the Standing Finance Committee and certain other official and non-official members from the Legislative Assembly and Council of State. These arrangements were to be subject to periodic revision but to be provisionally tried for at least 3 years. They would, however, only hold good as long as the E. I. Railway and the G. I. P. Railway and existing State Managed Railways remain under State-management and if any contract for the transfer of any of the above to Company management was concluded against the advice of the Assembly, the Assembly would be at liberty to terminate the arrangements in this resolution.

The Assembly in an addendum recommended that the railway services and the Railway Board should be rapidly Indianised and that the stores for the State Managed Railways should be purchased through the organisation of the Indian Stores Department.

The period has now arrived for this separation to be reconsidered and revised but due to the economic depression the matter has been held in abeyance.

Re-organisation problems.—The growing complexity of railway administration in India and the evolution of new methods of controlling traffic have given a stimulus to the efforts of various railways to revise their organisations. The general direction in which this re-organisation is being considered is that of consolidation into one department of the operating or transportation work of the railway, including the provision of power. This system which is commonly known as the divisional system, was first adopted on the Great Indian Peninsula Railway during 1922-23.

The Pope Committee.

During 1932-33 a Committee under the Chairmanship of Mr. Pope, General Executive Assistant to the President of the L. M. S. Railway was formed to investigate and inaugurate a detailed analysis of every important activity of railway operation. In addition to the specific recommendation that "job analysis" should be initiated on all railways, the following recommendations were made:—

(*i*) The better use of Locomotives.
(*ii*) The better use of Railway land.
(*iii*) Additional research and experiments.
(*iv*) Improved Workshop practice.
(*v*) More careful listing of surplus track, equipment and accommodation.
(*vi*) Possibility of reducing hot axles.

Rates Advisory Committee.

The Rates Advisory Committee was constituted in 1926 to investigate and make recommendations to Government on the following subjects:—

(1) Complaints of undue preference;
(2) Complaints that rates are unreasonable in themselves;
(3) Complaints or disputes in respect of terminals;
(4) The reasonableness or otherwise of any conditions as to the packing of articles specially liable to damage in transit or liable to cause damage to other merchandise;
(5) Complaints in respect of conditions as to packing attached to a rate;
(6) Complaints that Railways do not fulfil their obligations to provide reasonable facilities under Section 42 (3) of the Indian Railways Act.

1932-33 five cases were referred for investigation and report.

Inauguration of the Main Line Electric Service, G. I. P. Railway.

The inauguration of the electrified main line section of the G. I. P. Railway from Kalyan to Poona took place on the 5th November 1929, and constituted the first entirely main line of track to be electrified in India. This scheme involved the elimination of the Bhore Ghat Reversing Station. The problem of eliminating the Reversing Station had been seriously considered on several occasions in the past but it was not until 1923, when electrification had been definitely decided upon, that final survey operations became imperative.

Apart from the location of the realignment which called for the adoption of methods unusual in ordinary survey practice, the works involved in the construction of this double line broad-gauge section of railway were of considerable magnitude, chiefly in the form of heavy tunnel construction.

There are three tunnels in all aggregating 4,598 feet or ·87 of a mile. The longest of these is 3,100 feet built throughout on a curve of the sharpest radius which occurs in these ghats. Allowing for curvature and the considerably increased spacing of tracks necessitated by the adoption of the latest standard dimensions, a tunnel section of 34 feet 6 inches wide and 24 feet 6 inches high was decided upon. This is considered to be the largest tunnel section in the world.

The steam trains to Poona took approximately 6 hours for the journey and it is anticipated that with electric traction this timing will be now reduced to approximately 3 hours.

With the opening of the electrified section between Kalyan and Igatpuri in October 1930, it is believed that the G. I. P. Railway has the greatest length of electrified main line in the British Empire and the entire scheme will be one of the most important main line electrifications in the world.

Publicity.

The year 1929-30 marked a very considerable advance in the Publicity activities of the Indian railways. The Central Publicity Bureau of the Railway Board was inaugurated on 1st April 1927, a Chief Publicity Officer was appointed and provided with an Assistant and a small clerical staff. The office was located in Victoria Terminus, Bombay, it being felt that, to commence with, Bombay's position as the main port of arrival in India, closer touch could be kept with travellers and furthermore, Bombay presented certain distinct advantages from the point of view of printing facilities, etc.

For 1928 however the office was moved to Delhi as being more central and in closer touch with the Railway Board. Among some of the principal lines upon which it was decided to concentrate attention were:—

Cinema film production and display;
Poster production and display;
Pamphlet production and display;
Publication of an *Indian State Railways Magazine*;
Demonstration Trains;
Upper and Lower class special excursion trains;
Press propaganda in India;
Press propaganda in Europe, America and other parts of the world;
Reciprocal publicity with the leading railways of the world.

Shortly after the inauguration of the Central Publicity Bureau, the need was felt for a representative in England to give information and advice to potential travellers and to handle enquiries arising out of the advertising campaign which it was decided to carry out. A Publicity Officer was appointed and temporary offices secured in London in which an Indian State Railways Bureau was opened. It was soon found that separate permanent offices were required and these have now been obtained in 57, Haymarket, London, where sufficient accommodation is available to deal adequately with the many visitors who come there. With the opening of 'India House' a Branch Office has also been provided there, and this will deal more particularly with enquiries concerning Goods rates, but general enquiries can also be answered there. In order to obtain an adequate share of the American tourist traffic, an Office has also been opened in New York and a Resident Manager appointed there. This office was at first temporarily in accommodation kindly provided by the Canadian Pacific Railway in their General Offices at 342, Madison Avenue, New York, but now has its own commodious office in an excellent site at Delhi House, 38, East 57th Street, New York.

Owing to the financial stringency it was decided in 1931 to cut down the Bureau and

to bring it directly under the Railway Bureau. The work carried out remains, however, unchanged except in scope and the film department was definitely closed down.

The Branch office in India House was also closed and the total staff in the London Bureau reduced from 3 officers to 2 officers.

The year 1932-33 necessitated a greater concentrated and co-ordinated efforts in order to maintain tourist traffic from abroad than any previous year on record. Experiments were also carried out in India with a view to postering 3rd class traffic, especial pilgrim traffic. These experiments proved successful and it is hoped will be enlarged upon in the future.

Capital Expenditure.—The outlay during the year 1928-29 was Rs. 27·53 crores, of which Rs. 25·41 crores represented expenditure incurred on State-owned lines.

Considerable progress has been made with the programme of new construction. Close on 1,300 miles of new railway were opened for traffic during 1928-29, and at the close of the year there were some 2,100 miles under construction.

Trade review.—The earnings of railways are dependent on the general prosperity of the country which in the case of India is most easily measured by the agricultural position and the returns of foreign trade.

The Universal Trade Depression continued to be felt with greater intensity in India during the year 1932-33, resulting in a decline in exports of Rs. 25 crores or 15 per cent. as compared with 1931-32. The imports however showed an improvement of Rs. 7 crores or 5 per cent. The total value of exports from British India during the year 1932-33, amounted to Rs. 136 crores and that of imports to Rs. 133 crores. The decline in export traffic was one of the main factors contributing to the decline in railway earnings as compared with 1931-32. The outstanding feature on the export side was a further slumps in the raw, cotton due to the comparatively high prices of the Indian Staples. Despatches fell from Rs. 23 crores to Rs. 20 crores. Twist and yarn from Rs. 128 lakhs to Rs. 79 lakhs. Shipments of Indian Cotton Piecegoods from Rs. 3.24 crores to Rs. 2.09 crores. Raw jute from Rs. 11.19 crores to Rs. 9.73 crores. Rice from Rs. 18.14 crores to Rs. 14.46 crores. Food grains from Rs. 20.37 crores to Rs. 16.08 crores. The improvements in imports came principally from a demand for foreign textiles and represented an additional revenue of Rs. 12 crores. Passenger earnings fell from Rs. 31.35 crores in 1931-32 to Rs. 31.34 crores in 1932-33, showing a slight drop only of 0.03 per cent. 3.6 million less passengers were carried by class I railways in 1932-33. Goods earnings decreased by Rs. 1.89 crores, chiefly under oil seeds, grain, pulses and other grains, wheat, rice, kerosene and sugar.

The tonnage of and earnings from the main commodities on Class I Railways during the last two years are shown in the table below :—

Commodities.	1931-32.		1932-33.	
	Handled on Home Line.	Earnings.	Handled on Home Line.	Earnings.
	Tons.	Rs.	Tons.	Rs.
1. Fuel	24,866,300	8,83,20,800	23,823,100	8,90,32,800
2. Materials and stores on Revenue Account	14,387,800	2,30,83,000	13,512,600	2,36,28,000
3. Wheat	2,262,800	2,16,06,800	1,836,500	1,83,94,300
4. Rice	5,312,300	3,70,50,900	4,726,800	3,47,32,800
5. Gram and pulse and other grains	3,989,400	3,58,09,200	3,655,700	3,08,96,700
6. Marble and stone	2,642,400	70,39,700	2,616,300	71,27,700
7. Metallic ores	2,218,000	58,07,400	1,841,400	44,68,100
8. Salt	2,326,300	1,92,85,300	2,185,800	1,85,87,800
9. Sugar	1,080,000	1,50,61,800	1,057,700	1,29,47,200
10. Wood, unwrought	1,501,600	70,17,100	1,676,300	78,79,400
11. Oil seeds	3,503,100	3,52,12,800	3,021,300	2,87,90,400
12. Cotton, raw, unmanufactured	1,933,900	4,75,55,700	2,189,000	5,19,27,500
13. Jute, raw	1,101,100	98,92,700	1,287,400	1,12,06,200
14. Fodder	1,036,800	50,42,200	1,100,800	54,44,800
15. Fruits and vegetables	1,809,900	1,11,05,000	2,250,000	1,15,07,900
16. Iron and steel wrought	1,704,300	1,81,38,600	1,836,000	1,99,62,900
17. Kerosene and Petrol	1,671,400	2,55,14,400	1,346,200	2,17,32,000
18. Gur, Jagree, Molasses, &c.	1,421,000	1,26,66,700	1,504,900	1,38,97,900
19. Tobacco	442,100	67,83,400	461,100	72,69,500
20. Provisions	1,865,100	2,82,77,300	1,828,500	2,76,36,800
21. Military Traffic	400,300	27,23,800	484,900	30,56,400
22. Railway materials	6,081,100	72,46,900	4,996,700	51,58,300
23. Live stock	200,300	51,82,300	202,500	52,23,200
24. Other commodities	10,305,400	9,23,92,300	9,914,300	9,03,43,400
25. Manures	185,200	9,16,300	227,200	10,69,400

Open Mileage.—The total route mileage on March 31st, 1933, was made up of—

Broad-gauge..	.. ..	21,131·06 miles.
Metre-gauge..	.. ..	17,652·97 ,,
Narrow-gauge	.. ..	4,176·85 ,,

Under the classification adopted for statistical purposes, this mileage is divided between the three classes of railways as follows:—

Class I	.. .. ..	34,893·56 miles.
Class II	.. .. ..	3,248·82 ,,
Class III	.. .. ..	1,145·60 ,,

During the year 1932-33, 305·92 miles of new lines were opened for public traffic. Of this mileage, 264·11 miles belong to Class I.

Class I Railways.	Number of seats in passenger carriages.			
	1st.	2nd.	Inter.	Third.
5′-6″ ..	25,214	45,200	67,556	676,433
3′-3⅜″ ..	10,993	14,762	12,653	379,338

Financial Results of Working.—The total gross earnings of all railways in India during the year 1932-33 amounted to Rs. 86·65 crores as compared with 87·83 crores in 1931-32. These figures, however, include railways owned by Indian States and companies for which the Government of India has no direct financial responsibility. The figures of receipts and expenditure for railways with which the Government are directly concerned are as follows :—

(Based on actuals of penultimate year 1930-31.)

(Figures in thousands.)

		Rs.	Rs.
1.	1 per cent. on capital of Rs. 7,35,94,90 at charge—commercial lines—to end of 1930-31		7,35,95
2. (i)	Receipts (1930-31)—		
	Gross traffic receipts—commercial lines	93,62,17	
	Subsidized companies—share of surplus profits	20,36	
	Interest on depreciation and reserve fund balances and dividends on investments in branch lines and miscellaneous receipts ..	1,47,78	
	Total Receipts ..		95,30,31
(ii)	Charges (1930-31)—		
	Working expenses—commercial lines	65,26,89	
	Indian States and railway companies' share of surplus profits ..	1,16,30	
	Land and subsidy	5,90	
	Interest—		
	On capital at charge—commercial lines	29,87,05	
	On capital contributed by Indian States and companies ..	1,37,59	
	Miscellaneous railway expenditure	61,99	
	Contribution at 1 per cent. on capital at charge—commercial lines	7,35,95	
	Total Charges ..		1,05,71,67
(iii)	Deficit		10,41,36
(iv)	Contribution of 1/5th of surplus		..
3.	Total contribution from railway revenues 1 *plus* 2 (iv)		7,35,95
	Deduct—Loss on strategic lines—		
	(i) Interest on capital	1,46,91	
	(ii) Miscellaneous railway expenditure	69	
	(iii) Loss in working..	65,77	
4.	Net payment due from railway to general revenues in 1932-33 ..		2,13,37
			5,22,58

After meeting all interest and annuity charges Government therefore received a net profit of 4·04 crores on the capital at charge of the State *minus* the net receipts, that is the gross receipts *minus* the working expenses, have in recent years given the following returns:—

	Per cent.
1913–14	5·01
1923–24	5·24
1924–25	5·85
1925–26	5·31
1926–27	4·95
1927–28	5.30
1928–29	5·22
1929–30	4·65
1930–31	*Nil*
1931–32	*Nil*

Up-to-date figures of the results of working of other countries are not available, but the following table compares the latest available figures of average receipts per ton mile of those countries which have published statistics of working later than 1919:—

	Receipts * per ton mile. Pies.
United States of America 1929 ..	5·70
United Kingdom 1929	15·15
Japan 1927-28	7·26
Switzerland 1928	20·25
South Australia 1928-29	17·25
Canadian Railways 1929	5·75
India 1929-30	6·14

In the case of receipts per passenger mile the figures for United States of America and India are as follows:—

United States of America 1929. 14·78 pies
India 1929-30 .. .. .. 3·28 „

while in England the present standard fare charged per mile third class is 18 pies.

From the above it will be seen that railway transportation of freight in India is one of the cheapest in the world and still more so for passenger traffic.

An examination of the latest available figures of operating ratios of foreign countries brings out results not unfavourable to Indian Railways.

	Year.	Operating Ratio
United States of America	1930	74 per cent.
France	1925	84·15 „ „
English Railways	1928	79·40 „ „
South African Railways	1928–29	77·80 „ „
Argentine Railways	1927	71·05 „ „
Canadian Railways	1929	81·21 „ „
India	1913–14	51·79 „ „
	1925–26	62·69 „ „
	1926–27	62·04 „ „
	1927–28	61·39 „ „
	1928–29	62·77 „ „
	1929–30	65·02 „ „
	1931 32	71.08 „ „
	1932–33	71.61 „ „

Output of Railway owned Collieries.—The output of railway owned collieries during 1929-30 was 3,184,206 tons out of a total of 6,773,559 tons consumed on class I Railways.

For 1930-31 the output was 2,926,812 tons for a total of 6,629,014 tons.

For 1931-32 the figures are 2,484,891 tons for a total of 5,759,398 tons.

Number of Staff.—The total number of employees on Indian Railways at the end of the year 1932-33 was 710,271 was compared with 731,979 at the end of 1931-32. The increase in route mileage during the same period was 812 miles. The following table shows the number of employees by communities on 31st March 1930, 1931 and 1932:—

	Europeans.	Statutory Indians.					
		Hindus.	Muhammadans.	Anglo-Indians.	Sikhs.	Indian Christians.	Other Classes.*
31st March 1930	4,981	579,040	182,349	14,647	....	....	36,716
31st March 1931	4,799	553,851	172,321	14,350	....	....	35,809
31st March 1932	4,532	520,575	157,876	13,570	8,767	14,398	12,261
31st March 1933	4,297	504,082	152,875	13,048	8,591	15,574	11,804

* These include Sikhs and Indian Christians not shown separately

Indianisation.—The various Railway Companies managing State and other Railway lines have followed the lead given by Government and accepted the recommendation of the Lee Commission that the extension of existing training facilities should be pressed forward as expeditiously as possible in order that recruitment in India may be advanced as soon as practicable up to 75 per cent. of the total num of vacancies in the Superior Services of Railway concerned.

Fatalities and Injuries.—During the y 1931-32 the number of persons killed decrea by 292 as compared with the previous ye the number of passengers killed decreased 82 and of passengers injured by 125.

The following table shows the numbers killed and injured separately under passenge railway servants and others for 1932-33 as compared with 1931-32 :—

	Killed.		Injured.	
	1931-32.	1932-33.	1931-32.	1932-33.
A.—Passengers.				
In accidents to trains, rolling-stock, permanent-way, etc.	8	6	93	61
In accidents caused by movements of trains and railway vehicles exclusive of train accidents ..	245	215	808	761
In accidents on Railway premises in which the movement of trains, vehicles, etc., was not concerned	2	10	11	21
B.—Railway Servants.				
In accidents to trains, rolling-stock, permanent way, etc.	16	8	157	79
In accidents caused by movements of trains and railway vehicles exclusive of train accidents ..	201	184	1,819	1,789
In accidents on Railway premises in which the movement of trains, vehicles, etc., was not concerned	43	24	5,467	5,922
C.—Other than passengers and railway servants.				
In accidents to trains, rolling-stock, permanent-way, etc.	32	41	62	103
In accidents caused by movements of trains and railway vehicles exclusive of train accidents ..	2,322	2,225	736	698
In accidents on Railway premises in which the movements of trains, vehicles, etc., was not concerned	19	44	47	75
Total ..	2,888	2,757	9,200	9,509

Of the total number of 2,888 persons killed 1,863 were trespassers on the line and 394 committed suicide.

Local Advisory Committees.—In the Annual Reports by the Railway Board on the working of Indian Railways, references are made each year to the work that is being done by Local Advisory Committees on railways in bringing to the notice of their respective railways administrations matters affecting the general public in their capacity as users of the railway. These committees have been established and are functioning on all Class I Railways, except His Exalted Highness the Nizam's State Railways and the Jodhpur Railway. During 1929-30, the Barsi Light Railway constituted an Advisory Committee for that line.

These committees constitute a valuable link between railways and their clientele.

The following is a list of some of the more important matters discussed :—

Improvements in coaching stock; Provision of cold storage compartments; Provision of Indian dining cars; Reduction of rates and fares; Arrangements for dealing with traffic at festivals; Reservation of seats in intermediate class carriages; Supply of drinkng water to passengers; Sleeping accommodation for passengers; Provision of bathing cabins at stations; Despatch ordinary of goods; Portage charge over railway bridges; Overcrowding in lower class carriages; Provision of waiting rooms for ladies; Combustion of culverts of permanent openings for flood waters; Electrification of railway stations; Provision of over bridges; Remodelling of stations; Mileage of coupons.

THE CHIEF RAILWAYS IN INDIA.

The Assam-Bengal Railway, which is constructed on the metre-gauge, starts from Chittagong and runs through Surma Valley across the North Cachar Hills into Assam. It is worked under a limited guarantee by a company.

Mileage open	.. ..	11,31·43
Capital at charge	..	Rs. 23,58,50,000
Net earnings	..	Rs. 42,01,000
Earnings per cent.	.. ..	1·80

Bengal and North-Western.

The Bengal and North-Western Railway was constructed on the metre-gauge system by a company without any Government assistance other than free land and was opened to traffic in 1885. The system was begun in 1874 as the Tirhut State Railway. In 1890 this line was leased by Government to the Bengal and North-Western Railway. Since then extensive additions have been made in both sections. It is connected with the Rajputana metre-gauge system at Cawnpore and with the Eastern Bengal State Railway at Khatihar and the East Indian Railway at Benares and Mokameh Ghat.

Mileage open	.. ..	1269·67

Bengal-Nagpur.

The Bengal-Nagpur Railway was commenced as a metre-gauge from Nagpur to Chhatisgarh in the Central Provinces in 1887. A company was formed under a guarantee which took over the line, converted it to the broad-gauge and extended it to Howrah, Cuttack and Katni. In 1901 a part of the East Coast State Railway from Cuttack to Vizagapatam was transferred to it and in the same year sanction was given for an extension to the coal-fields and for a connection with the Branch of the East Indian Railway at Hariharpur.

Mileage open	..	2413·55
Capital at charge	..	Rs. 76,99,05,000
Net earnings	..	Rs. 1,83,25,000
Earnings per cent.	..	2·37

Bombay Baroda.

The Bombay, Baroda and Central India Railway is one of the original guaranteed railways. It was commenced from Surat *via* Baroda to Ahmedabad, but was subsequently extended to Bombay. The original contract was terminable in 1880, but the period was extended to 1905; and then renewed under revised conditions. In 1885 the Rajputana-Malwa metre-gauge system of State railways was leased to the Company and has since been incorporated in it. On the opening of the Nagda-Muttra, giving broad-gauge connection through Eastern Rajputana with Delhi the working was entrusted to this Company. On the acquisition of the Company in April 1907 the purchase price was fixed at £11,685,581.

Mileage open	.. ..	1035·50
Capital at charge	..	Rs. 73,74,51,000
Net earnings	..	Rs. 4,26,67,000
Earnings per cent.	.. ..	5·78

Burma Railways.

The Burma Railway is an isolated line, and although various routes have been surveyed there is little prospect of its being connected with the Railway system of India in the near future. In reply to a question in the Imperial Legislative Council in 1919, Sir Arthur Anderson said:—"During 1914-15 extensive survey operations were carried out to ascertain the best alignment for a railway connection along the coast route between Chittagong and certain stations on the Burma Railways south of Mandalay. A rival route *via* the Hukong Valley between the northern section of the Assam-Bengal Railway and the section of the Burma Railways north of Mandalay was to have been surveyed during the following year but was postponed because of the war. It is now proposed to commence this survey during the coming cold weather, and on its completion, Government will have sufficient information to enable them to decide which route shall be adopted. Thus no arrangements for the construction of a line have yet been made nor has any concession been granted, but it is probable that the line selected will be built at the cost of Government and worked by one or other of the main lines which it will connect. It was commenced as a State Railway and transferred in 1896 to a Company under a guarantee. From January 1st, 1929, its working has been taken over by the State.

Mileage open	.. ..	2,057
Capital at charge	..	Rs. 35,05,52,000
Net earnings	..	Rs. 75,13,000
Earnings per cent.	.. ..	2·15

Eastern Bengal.

The Eastern Bengal State Railway was promoted under the original form of guarantee and was constructed on the broad-gauge. The first portion of the line running to Calcutta over the Ganges was opened in 1862. In 1874 sanction was granted for the construction on the metre-gauge of the Northern Bengal State Railway, which ran from the north bank of the Ganges to the foot of the Himalayas on the way to Darjeeling. These two portions of the line were amalgamated in 1884 into one State Railway.

Mileage open	.. ..	843·17
Capital at charge	..	Rs. 51,61,71,000
Net earnings	..	Rs. 76,30,000
Earnings per cent.	.. ..	1·48

East Indian.

The East Indian Railway is one of the three railways sanctioned for construction as experimental lines under the old form of guarantee. The first section from Howrah to Pandua was opened in 1854 and at the time of the Mutiny ran as far as Raniganj. It gives the only direct access to the port of Calcutta from Northern India and is consequently fed by all the large railway systems connected with it. In 1880 the Government purchased the line, paying the share-holder by annuities, but leased it again to the company to work under a contract which was terminable in 1919.

The contract was not terminated until January 1st, 1925, when the State took over the management. From July 1st, 1925, the Oudh & Rohilkhund railway was amalgamated with it.

Mileage open	.. ..	4219·83
Capital at charge	..	Rs. 1,47,58,58,000
Net earnings	..	Rs. 6,04,26,000
Earnings per cent.	.. ..	4·09

Great Indian Peninsula.

The Great Indian Peninsula Railway is the earliest line undertaken in India. It was promoted by a Company under a guarantee of 5 per cent. and the first section from Bombay to Thana was open for traffic in 1853. Sanction was given for the extension of this line *via* Poona to Raichur, where it connects with the Madras Railway, and to Jubbulpore where it meets the East Indian Railway. The feature of the line is the passage of the Western Ghats, these sections being 15¾ miles on the Bhore Ghat and 9¼ miles on the Thul Ghat which rise 1,131 and 972 feet. In 1900, the contract with the Government terminated and under an arrangement with the Indian Midland Railway that line was amalgamated and leased to a Company to work.

The contract was terminated on June 30th, 1925, when the State took over the management.

Mileage open	.. ..	3165·68
Capital at charge	.. Rs.	1,17,17,50,000
Net earnings	.. Rs.	2,89,65,000
Earnings per cent.	.. ..	2·47

Madras and Southern Mahratta Railway.

The Madras Railway was the third of the original railways constructed as experimental lines under the old form of guarantee. It was projected to run in a north-westerly direction in connection with the Great Indian Peninsula Railway and in a south-westerly direction to Calicut. On the expiry of the contract in 1907 the line was amalgamated with the Southern Mahratta Railway Company, a system on the metre-gauge built to meet the famine conditions in the Southern Mahratta Country and released to a large Company called the Madras and Southern Mahratta Railway Company.

Mileage open	.. ..	1118·80
Capital at charge	.. Rs.	53,14,31,000
Net earnings	.. Rs.	2,95,40,000
Earnings per cent.	.. ..	5·56

The North-Western.

The North-Western State Railway began its existence at the Sind-Punjab-Delhi Railway, which was promoted by a Company under the original form of guarantee and extended to Delhi, Multan and Lahore and from Karachi to Kotri. The interval between Kotri and Multan was unbridged and the railway traffic was exchanged by a ferry service. In 1871-72 sanction was given for the connection of this by the Indus Valley State Railways and at the same time the Punjab Northern State Railway from Lahore towards Peshawar was begun. In 1886 the Sind-Punjab-Delhi Railway was acquired by the State and amalgamated with these two railways under the name of the North-Western State Railway. It is the longest railway in India under one administration.

Mileage open	.. ..	5552·68
Capital at charge	.. Rs.	1,13,33,56,000
Net earnings	.. Rs.	3,02,06,000
Earnings per cent.	.. ..	2,66

Oudh and Rohilkhand.

Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway was another of the lines constructed under the original form of guarantee. It began from the north bank of the Ganges running through Rohilkhand as far as Saharanpur where it joins the North-Western State Railway. It was not until 1887 that the bridge over the Ganges was completed and connected with the East Indian Railway. To effect a connection between the metre-gauge systems to the North and those to the South of the Ganges, a third rail was laid between Bhuriwal and Cawnpore. The Company's contract expired in 1889 when the Railway was purchased by the State and has since been worked as a State Railway.

The working of this railway was amalgamated with that of the East Indian Railway from 1st July 1925.

The South Indian.

The South Indian Railway was one of the original guaranteed railways. It was begun by the Great Southern India Railway Company as a broad-gauge line; but was converted after the seventies to the metre-gauge. This line has been extended and now serves the whole of the Southern India, south of the south-west line of the Madras Railway. Between Tuticorin and Ceylon a ferry service was formerly maintained, but a new and more direct route to Ceylon *via* Rameshwaram was opened at the beginning of 1914. As the original contract ended in 1907, a new contract was entered upon with the Company on the 1st of January 1908.

Mileage open	.. ..	599·03
Capital at charge	.. Rs.	44,95,13,000
Net earnings	.. Rs.	2,39,89,000
Earnings per cent.	.. ..	5·34

The Indian States.

The principal Indian State Railways are the Nizam's, constructed by a company under a guarantee from the Hyderabad State; the Kathiawar system of railways, constructed by subscriptions, among the several Chiefs in Kathiawar; the Jodhpur and Bikaner Railways, constructed by the Jodhpur and Bikaner Chiefs; the system of railways in the Punjab, constructed by the Patiala, Jind, Maler Kotla, and Kashmir Chiefs; and the railways in Mysore, constructed by the Mysore State.

At the end of the financial year 1929-30 a total of 1257.57 miles of new lines was under construction, distributed as follows:—

	Miles.
5′-6″ gauge	730.77
3′-3¾″ gauge	457.51
2′-6″ gauge	69.29

During 1929-30 sanction was accorded to the construction of new lines totalling 227.77 miles.

	Miles.
5′-6″ gauge	93.00
3′-3¾″ gauge	115.17
2′-6″ gauge	19.00

INDIA AND CEYLON.

The possibility of connecting India and Ceylon by a railway across the bank of sand extending the whole way from Rameswaram to Mannar has been reported on from time to time, and since 1895 various schemes having been suggested.

The South Indian Railway having been extended to Dhanushkodi, the southernmost point of Rameswaram Island, and the Ceylon Government Railway to Talaimannar, on Mannar Island, two points distant from each other about 21 miles across a narrow and shallow strait, the possibility of connecting these two terminal stations by a railway constructed on a solid embankment raised on the sand bank known as "Adam's Bridge," to supersede the ferry steamer service which has been established between these two points, is one of the schemes that has been investigated.

In 1913, a detailed survey was made by the South Indian Railway Company, and the project contemplates the construction of a causeway from Dhanushkodi Point on the Indian side to Talaimannar Point on the Ceylon side, a length of 20·05 miles of which 7·19 will be upon the dry land of the various lands, and 12·86 will be in water. The sections on dry land will consist of low banks of sand pitched with coral and present no difficulty. The section through the sea will be carried on a causeway which it is proposed to construct in the following way. A double row of reinforced concrete piles, pitched at 10 feet centres and having their inner faces 14 feet apart, will first be driven into the sand. These piles will then be braced together longitudinally with light concrete arches and chains and transversely with concrete ties, struts and chains. Behind the piles slabs of reinforced concrete will be slipped into position, the bottom slabs being sunk well into the sand of the sea bottom. Lastly, the space enclosed by the slabs will be filled in with sand.

The top of the concrete work will be carried to six feet above high water level, and the rails will be laid at that level. The sinking of the piles and slabs will be done by means of water jets. This causeway, it is expected, will cause the suspended sand brought up by the currents, to settle on either side bringing about rapid accretion and eventually making one big island of Rameswaram island and Mannar island.

Indo-Burma Connection.

The raids of the Emden in the Bay of Bengal in 1914, and the temporary interruption of communications between India and Burma, stimulated the demand for a direct railway connection between India and Burma. Government accepted the position and appointed Mr. Richards, M. Inst. C.E., to be the engineer-in-charge of the surveys to determine the best route for a railway from India to Burma. The coast route appears to be the best one but at present would not be remunerative. This would start from Chittagong, which is the terminus and headquarters of the Assam-Bengal Railway and a seaport for the produce of Assam. The route runs southwards through the Chittagong district, a land of fertile rice fields intersected by big rivers and tidal creeks and it crosses the Indo-Burma frontier, 94 miles from the town of Chittagong. For about 160 miles further it chiefly runs through the fertile rice lands of Arrakan and crosses all the big tidal rivers of the Akyab delta. These include the Kalidan river which drains 4,700 miles of country and even at a distance of about 30 miles from its mouth is more than half a mile wide. About 260 miles from Chittagong the railway would run into the region of mangrove swamps which fringe the seacoast north and south of the harbour of Kaukkphu stretching out into the mangrove swamps like ribs from the backbone. Innumerable spurs of the Arrakan Yoma have to be crossed. Yoma is a mountain ridge which extends from Cape Negrais northwards until it loses itself in a mass of tangled hills east of Akyab and Chittagong. At its southern end the height of the ridge is insignificant but it has peaks as high as 4,000 feet before it reaches the altitude of Sandway and further north it rises much higher. It is a formidable obstacle to railway communication between India and Burma. This route is estimated to cost about £7,000,000 and would have to be supplemented by branch lines to Akyab where there is at present a considerable rice traffic and the cost of this would have to be added to the £7,000,000 already referred to.

The other routes examined have been the Hukong Valley route and the Manipur route which were surveyed by the late Mr. R. A. Way many years ago. The Manipur route was estimated to cost about £5,000,000 as it has to cross three main ranges of hills with summit levels of 2,650, 3,600 and 8,900 feet long. Altogether there would be about four miles of tunnelling through the three main ridges and through other hills and more than 100 miles of expensive undulating railway with grades as steep as 1 in 50 and 11,000 feet of aggregate rise and fall. The Hukong valley route is only about 284 miles long and it presents fewer engineering difficulties than either the Coast or the Manipur route. One hundred and fifty miles of this route lie in open country capable of cultivation though at present it is only very thinly populated. Only one range of hills has to be crossed and this can be negotiated with a summit tunnel 5,000 feet long at a height of 2,500 feet. There are less than fifty miles of very heavy work and only about 4,500ft. aggregate of rise and fall. The Hukong Valley route although cheaper than the Manipur route is not a practical financial proposition and both may be ruled out of consideration.

Main results of working of all Indian Railways treated as one system.

—	Particulars.		1925-26.	1926-27.	1927-28.	1928-29.	1929-30.	1930-31.	1931-32.	1932-33.
1	Mileage open at close of the year ..	Miles	38,579	39,049	39,712	40,950	41,724	42,280	42,813	42,961
2	Total Capital outlay, including ferries and suspense, on open lines (in thousands of rupees)	Rs.	7,54,31,52	7,88,66,66	8,22,86,25	8,31,39,30	8,56,74,62	8,69,80,77	8,76,34,25	8,77, 5,11
3	Gross earnings (in thousands of rupees)	,,	1,13,39,21	1,12,35,66	1,18,26,19	1,18,86,82	1,16,08,14	1,05,57,04	97,20,56	96,20,56
4	Gross earnings per mean mile worked	,,	29,355	28,540	29,486	29,029	27,670	25,084	22,655	22,202
5	Gross earnings per mean mile worked per week	,,	565	549	567	557	532	483	433	426
6	Gross earnings per train-mile	,,	6·99	6·58	6·55	6·38	6·08	·61	5·81	5·88
7	Total working expenses (in thousands of rupees)	,,	71,09,05	69,70,08	72,60,06	74,61,94	75,48,61	74,23,43	69,09,11	68,89,62
8	Working expenses per mean mile worked	Per week	....	....	....	....	....	....	299	291
9	Working expenses per train-mile	Rs.	4·38	4·08	4·00	3·95	3·99	3·92	4·01	4·01
10	Percentage of working expenses to gross earnings	Per cent.	62·69	62·04	61·39	62·77	65·02	69·66	71·08	71·61
11	Net earnings (in thousands of rupees)	Rs.	42,30,16	42,65,58	45,66,13	44,24,88	40,59,53	32,33,57	28,11,45	27,30,94
12	Net earnings per mile open	,,	10,951	10,883	11,483	11,077	9,493	75,43	70,26	70,65
13	Net earnings per train-mile	,,	2·61	2·50	2·55	2·41	2·09	1·68	1·80	1·87
14	Percentage of net earnings on total capital outlay (item 2)	Per cent.	5·61	5·41	5·56	5·32	4·74	3,72	3·21	3.11
15	Passenger train-miles (in thousands).	Train-miles.	69,541	74,967	79,599	83,594	89,881	90,012	Stm. 8,681 Eltc. 1,580	80,368 1,592

* Represents figure of capital at charge.

Main results of working of all Indian Railways treated as one system—*contd.*

—	Particulars.	1925–26.	1926–27.	1927–28.	1928–29.	1929–30.	1930–31.	1931–32.	1932–33.
16	Goods train-miles (in thousands) Train-Miles	57,411	57,328	59,874	† 61,436	60,295	Steam	48,294	44,980
17	Mixed train-miles (in thousands).. ,,	30,836	29,717	30,684	† 30,878	31,952	Electric Steam	558 30.014	530 31.574
18	Total, including miscellaneous train-miles (in thousands) .. ,,	162,258	170,720	179,658	† 185,459	190,140	Electric Steam	*Nil* 165 195	*Nil* 161,444
19	Unit-mileage of passengers (in thousands) .. .. Unit-miles	20,331,752	20,366,250	21,704,687	22,097,136	23,053,000	Electric	2,172 20,488,226	2,173 18,056,818	17,606,454
20	Freight ton-mileage of goods (in thousands) .. .. Ton-miles	19,900,018	20,374,679	21,902,222	21,889,177	21,524,637	20,406,477	18,346,765	17,202,541
21	Average miles a ton of goods was carried .. .. Miles	249·2	237·4	43·9	241·0	246·4	24·47	246	244
22	Average rate charged for carrying a ton of goods one mile .. Pies	6·22	6·12	6·08	6·24	6·14	6·06	6·15	6·35
	Average miles a passenger was carried.								
23	1st class .. .. Miles	107·7	117·1	131·4	138·8	153·7	164.4	183·1	191·5
24	2nd class .. .. ,,	38·6	42·0	48·1	48·4	49·9	52·5	60	60·8
25	Intermediate class.. .. .. .. ,,	45·8	45·4	243·9	42·8	42·4	40·9	45·3	47·7
26	3rd class .. .. ,,	33·4	33·7	34·2	35·1	35·8	35·0	35	34·4
27	Total .. .. ,,	33·9	33·1	34·8	35·6	36·3	35·6	35·7	35·1
	Average rate charged per passenger per mile.								
28	1st class .. .. Pies	20·8	19·1	17·0	17·0	16·2	16·4	17·2	18·2
29	2nd class .. .. ,,	9·51	8·60	7·84	7·94	7·73	7·70	8.28	8·82
30	Intermediate class.. .. .. .. ,,	4·92	4·58	4·27	4·18	4·02	4·10	4·22	4·26
31	3rd class .. .. ,,	3·47	3·35	3·25	3·10	3.02	3·01	3·13	3·21
32	Total .. .. ,,	3·73	3·59	3·47	3·32	3·21	3·21	3·33	3·42

* Based on tons originating. † Based on passengers originating, Season and vendors' tickets are included under separate classes.

Mileage of Railway Lines in India open for Traffic at end of year.

Railways.	1923-24.	1924-25.	1925-26.	1926-27.	1927-28.	1928-29.	1929-30.	1930-31.	1932-33.
STATE LINES.									
Aden	29	29	29	29	29	29	§§ 29	..	..
Alnavar Dandeli (Provincial)*	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19
Alon-Y. E. U.	27	27	27	49	49	† ..	† ..	..	..
Anuppur-Manendragarh	..	..	..	..	..	30	40	53	..
Assam-Bengal *	874	874	874	874	913	1,010	1,104	1,131	1,131
Bangalore-Harihar *	210	210	210	210	210	210	210	210	210
Bengal-Nagpur*	1,998	2,013	2,059	2,201	2,201	2,147	2,287	2,418	2,413
Bezwada Extension*	21	21	21	21	21	21	21	21	21
Bombay, Baroda & Central India*	2,863	2,893	2,899	2,890	2,882	2,912	2,958	1,035	1,035
Broach-Jambusar *	30	30	30	30	30	‡..	‡..	..	..
Burma	1,530	1,530	1,537	1,590	1,592	1,931	2,046	2,057	2,057
Cawnpore-Burhwal (*a*)	80	80	83	83	83	83	83	(*c*)82	82
Dera Ismail Khan Tank Decauville	..	..	42	42	42	§ ..	..	..	..
Dhone-Kurnool*	32	32	32	32	32	36	36	36	36
East Indian	2,481	2,485	3,751	3,795	3,817	3,990	4,026	4,157	4,219
Eastern Bengal	1,622	1,616	1,604	1,611	1,637	1,743	1,793	845	843
Satpura *	217	627	627	627	625	625	625	625	625
Great Indian Peninsula	2,616	2,672	(*b*)3,914	(*b*) 3,194	(*b*) 3,194	(*b*) 3,216	(*b*)3,239	3,163	2,165
Jodhpur-Hyderabad**(British Section)	124	124	124	124	124	174	174	174	174
Jorhat Provincial	32	32	32	32	32	32	32	34	34
Kalka-Simla	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	59	59
Kangra Valley	..	..	..	..	..	103	103	102	102
Zhob Valley	46	46	46	46	85	174	174	173	173

* Worked by a Company. ** Worked by Indian State.

(*a*) Includes 16·79 miles of mixed (5'-6" and 3'-3⅜") gauge line between Burhwal and Barabanki and also 2·18 miles of the O. & R. Railway metre-gauge line at Benares.

(*b*) Includes Agra-Delhi Chord, Baran-Kotah, Bhopal-Itarsi (a part of this line is owned by the Bhopal Durbar) and Cawnpore-Banda Railway.

† Included under Burma. ‡ Included under Bombay. Baroda and Central India. § Closed for traffic from 1st October 1928.

§§ Closed for traffic from 1st August 1929.

(*c*) Including the mixed gauge line referred to in the note marked with † above and also 2·18 miles of E. I. Railway metre-gauge line at Benares.

Mileage of Railway Lines in India open for Traffic at end of year—*contd.*

Railways.	1923-24.	1924-25.	1925-26.	1926-27.	1927-28.	1928-29.	1929-30.	1930-31.	1932-33.
STATE LINES—*contd.*									
Kohat-Thal	62	62	62	62	62	62	62	61	61
Kolar Gold-fields*	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	107	9
Lucknow-Bareilly*	316	313	312	312	312	312	312	312	312
Madras and Southern Mahratta *	2,560	2,560	2,560	2,560	2,584	2,672	2,780	1,118	1,118
Morappur-Hosur *	73	73	73	73	73	73	73	72	73
Moulmein-ye ‡	27	70	89	89	† ..	‡	..	..	..
Nilgiri*	29	29	29	29	29	29	29	28	28
North Western	4,075	4,075	4,101	4,432	4,535	4,638	5,517	§5,693	5,552
Palanpur-Deesa*	17	17	17	17	17	17	17	..	..
Purulia-Ranchi*	115	115	115	117	117	117	117	116	116
Pyinmana-Taungdwingyi ‡	10	67	67	67	92	†..	‡	..	..
Raipur-Dhamtari *	57	57	57	57	57	57	57	56	56
South Indian*	1,317	1,317	1,317	1,353	1,508	1,738	1,923	599	590
Southern Shan States ‡	87	87	86	86	86	†..	‡	..	..
Travancore British section	50	50	50	50	50	50	50	50	50
Tirhoot*	813	815	808	809	807	810	806	..	802
Tirupattur-Krishnagiri*	25	25	25	25	25	25	25	25	25
Trans Indus (Kalabagh-Bannu)	162	102	162	162	162	162	159	157	157
Tumsar-Tirodi Light *	47	47	47	47	47	47	19	18	18
ASSISTED COMPANIES.									
Ahmedabad-Parantij	89	89	89	89	89	89	89	88	88
Ahmadpur-Katwa	32	32	32	32	32	32	32	35	35

* Worked by a Company.
Worked by Company up to 31st December 1928 and taken over by State from 1st January 1929 and included under Burma.
§ Includes 51·95 miles of Mirjawa-Duzdap section worked by the N. W. Rly. at the cost of the Military Department.

Mileage of Railway Lines in India open for Traffic at end of year—*contd.*

Railways.	1923-24	1924-25	1925-26.	1926-27	1927-28.	1928-29.	1929-30.	1930-31.	1932-33
ASSISTED COMPANIES—*contd.*									
Amritsar-Patti	54	54	54	54	54	54	54	54	54
Arrah-Sasaram Light	65	65	65	65	65	65	65	70	70
Bankura-Damodar River	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	67	67
Baraset-Basirhat Light	52	52	52	52	52	52	52	57	57
Barsi Light	117	118	118	118	203	203	203	224	224
Bengal and North-Western	1,250	1,251	1,270	1,270	1,270	1,269	1,270	1,270	1,270
Bengal Dooars	157	157	157	156	156	156	156	41	41
Bezwada-Masulipatam *	52	52	52	52	52	52	52	51	51
Bukhtiarpur-Bihar Light	33	33	33	33	33	33	33	35	35
Burdwan Katwa	32	32	32	32	32	32	32	36	36
Champaner-Shivrajpur Pani Light *	31	31	31	31	31	31	31	30	30
Chaparmukh-Silghat *	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	50	50
Darjeeling-Himalayan	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	61	61
" " Extension	95	95	95	95	95	95	95	100	100
Daeghara-Jamalpurgunj *									
Dehri-Rohtas Light	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	9	9
Dhond-Baramati †	24	24	24	24	26	26	26	33	33
Dibru-Sadiya	27	27	27	27	27	27	27	27	27
Ellichpur-Yeotmal†	86	86	86	86	86	86	86	114	114
Futwah-Islampur	118	118	118	118	118	118	118	117	117
Godhra-Lunavada *	27	27	27	27	27	27	27	28	28
Hardwar-Dehra †	25	25	25	25	25	25	25	25	25
Howrah-Amta Light	32	32	32	32	32	32	32	32	32
Howrah-Sheakhala Light	44	44	44	44	44	44	44	50	50
Jacobabad-Kashmor †	20	20	20	20	20	20	20	21	21
	77	77	77	77	77	77	77	76	76

* Worked by a Company.

† Worked by State Railway.

Mileage of Railway Lines in India open for Traffic at end of year—*contd.*

Railways.	1923-24.	1924-25.	1925-26.	1926-27.	1927-28	1928-29.	1929-30.	1930-31.	1932-33.
ASSISTED COMPANIES—*contd.*									
Jamnagar and Dwarka	66	66	66	66	66	66	66	69	69
Jessore-Jhenidah	37	37	37	37	37	37	37	38	38
Jullundar Doab	133	133	133	133	133	133	†	..	..
Jullundur-Mukerian §§	45	45	45	45	45	45	45	41	44
Kalighat Falta	26	26	26	26	26	26	26	32	32
Katakhal-Lalabazar *	24	23	23	23	23	23	23	23	23
Khulna Bagerhat §§	20	20	20	20	20	20	20	19	19
Larkana-Jacobabad §§	53	53	53	53	53	53	53	53	53
Mandra-Bhaun §§	46	46	46	46	46	46	46	46	46
Matheran Light §§	13	13	13	13	13	13	13	13	13
Mayurbhanj (*a*)	71	71	71	71	71	71	71	70	70
Mirpur Khas-Jhudo	50	50	50	50	50	§	..	..	..
Mirpur Khas-Khadro (*c*)*	50	50	50	50	50	50	50	49	49
Mymensing-Bhairab Bazar	101	101	101	101	101	101	101	100	100
Nadiad-Kapadvanj *	28	28	28	28	28	28	28	28	28
Pachora-Jamner §§	35	35	35	35	35	35	35	34	34
Phagwara-Rahon §§	45	45	45	45	45	46	46	45	45
Podanur Pollachi *	25	25	25	25	25	25	25	25	25
Pulgaon-Arvi §§	22	22	22	22	22	22	22	21	21
Rohilkund and Kumaon	259	259	259	259	259	259	259	258	258
Sara-Sirajganj §§	53	53	53	53	53	51	50	49	49
Shahdara (Delhi) Saharanpur Light	93	93	93	93	93	93	93	101	101
Shahdara Narowal	..	..	..	..	..	..	48	48	48
Sialkot Narowal §§	38	38	38	38	39	39	39	38	38
South Behar §§	79	79	79	79	79	79	79	75	75
Southern Punjab (*b*)	581	581	581	581	581	581	†	..	..
Suramangalam-Salem *	4	4	4	4	4	‡	‡	..	..

* Worked by a Company. † Purchased by the State and amalgamated with the North Western Railway.
(*a*) Shown under "Indian State Lines" Up to 1919-20. (*b*) Includes Ludhiana Extension. (*c*) Worked by Indian States.
‡ This has been purchased by the State and amalgamated with the South Indian Railway.
§ Amalgamated with the Jodhpur Hyderabad. §§ Worked by State Railway.

Mileage of Railway Lines in India open for Traffic at end of year—*contd.*

Railways.	1923-24.	1924-25.	1925-26.	1926-27.	1927-28.	1928-29.	1929-30.	1931-32.	1932-33.
ASSISTED COMPANIES—*concld.*									
Sutlej Valley	127	127	213	213	213	213	†	..	..
Tanjore District Board*	131	131	131	131	131	131	‡	..	..
Tapti Valley *	156	156	156	156	156	156	156	155	155
Tenali–Repalli *	21	21	21	21	21	21	21	21	21
Tezpur-Balipara	20	20	20	20	20	20	20	21	21
Tinnevelly-Tiruchendur *	38	38	38	38	38	38	38	38	38
UNASSISTED COMPANIES.									
Bengal Provincial	33	33	33	33	33	33	33	35	35
Jagadhri Light	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
Kulasekarapatnam Light	25	25	25	25	25	27	27	27	27
Ledo and Tikak Margherita Colliery	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	30	28
Trivellore Light	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
INDIAN STATE LINES.									
Kazipet Balharshah	47	58	58	58	93	146	146	145	145
Bahawalnagar-Cholistan	..	..	..	..	..	63	63	151	151
Bangalore-Chik Ballapur Light	39	39	39	39	39	39	39	107	107
Bhavnagar State	283	283	284	284	297	307	307	356	357

* Worked by a Company.

† Purchased by the State and amalgamated with the North Western Railway.
‡ Amalgamated with the South Indian Railway.

Mileage of Railway Lines in India open for Traffic at end of year—*contd.*

Railways.	1923-24.	1924-25.	1925-26.	1926-27.	1927-28.	1928-29.	1929-30.	1930-31.	1931-32.	1932-33.
INDIAN STATE LINES—*contd.*										
Bhopal-Ujjain§	113	113	113	113	113	113	113	113	113	113
Bikaner	526	568	569	604	619	699	759	759	875	875
Bina-Goona-Baran§	147	147	147	147	147	147	147	147	147	147
Bodeli-Chota Udaipur	23	23	23	23	23	23	23	23	25	25
Cooch-Behar §	33	33	33	33	33	33	33	33	33	33
Cutch	37	37	37	37	37	52	52	52	76	76
Dholpur State	36	36	36	36	36	36	55	55	61	61
Dhrangadra	40	54	54	54	54	54	40	40	40	40
Gaekwar's Baroda State	..	316	316	316	318	318	318	333	388	388
Gaekwar's Mehsana*	231	230	230	230	230	230	256	256	256	254
Gondal	106	106	106	106	106	106	106	106	121	123
Gwalior Light †	250	250	252	253	253	253	253	253	325	322
Hindupur (Yeswantpur Mysore Frontier)	51	51	51	51	52	52	52	52	51	51
Hingoli Branch*	50	50	50	50	50	50	50	50	50	50
Hyderabad-Godavari Valley*	391	386	386	386	386	386	386	386	385	385
Jaipur State*	139	156	179	179	181	181	181	181	181	181
Jammu and Kashmir §	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	16	16
Jamnagar	54	54	54	54	54	54	54	54	66	66
Jetalsar-Rajkot	46	46	46	46	46	46	46	46	54	55
Jind-Panipat §	26	26	26	26	26	26	26	26	25	25
Jodhpur	609	609	609	618	618	618	693	727	752	751
Junagad State	141	148	148	148	148	148	148	148	167	187
Khanpur-Chachran §	22	22	22	22	22	22	22	22	21	21
Karipalli-Kothagudam	..	..	..	..	25	25	25	25	24	24
Khijadiya-Dhari †	37	37	37	37	37	37	37	37	41	41
Kolar District	64	64	64	64	64	64	64	64	107	107
Kolhapur*	29	29	29	29	29	29	29	29	29	29
Ludhana-Dhuri-Jakhal §	79	79	79	79	79	79	79	79	79	79

* Worked by a Company. § Worked by State Railway Agency. † Worked by Indian State.

Mileage of Railway Lines in India open for Traffic at end of year—*concld.*

Railways.	1922-23.	1923-24.	1924-25.	1925-26.	1926-27.	1927-28.	1928-29.	1929-30.	1930 31.	1932 33.
INDIAN STATE LINES—*concld.*										
Mohari-Barauli	15	15	15	15	15	15	†	†	..	..
Morvi	93	93	90	90	102	102	102	102	116	116
Mysore	204	263	263	263	285	285	287	287	354	354
Prabhani Purli	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	39	39	..
Tarikare-Narasimharajapura Light	27	27	27	27	27	27	27	27	29	29
Nagda-Ujjain*	33	33	33	35	35	35	35	35	34	34
Nizam's Guaranteed State (*b*)	330	330	330	330	330	330	330	330	330	330
Okhamandal *										
Parlakimedi Light*	37	37	37	37	37	37	37	37	42	42
Petlad-Cambay*	25	25	25	25	25	25	25	40	56	56
Piplod Devgad Baria	34	34	34	34	34	34	34	34	12	..
Pipar Bilara Light	..	..	..	..	..	..	10	3	9	9
Porbandar State	25	25	25	25	25	25	**	**	..	..
Rajpipla*	41	41	41	41	41	41	41	41	49	40
Rajpura-Bhatinda §	39	39	39	39	39	39	39	39	58	58
Sangli*	108	108	108	109	109	109	109	109	107	107
Secunderabad–British Frontier	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	4	4
Sirhind-Rupar §	117	117	117	145	145	145	143	148	148	148
Shoranur-Cochin*	..	..	..	..	..	..	31	31	30	30
Travancore (Indian Section)	64	65	65	65	65	65	65	65	64	64
Udaipur-Chitorgarh	96	96	96	96	96	96	96	96	98	98
Vikarabad Bidar	67	67	67	67	67	67	67	67	123	150
FOREIGN LINES.	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	57	56	166
Peralam-Karaikkal*	15	15	15	15	15	15	15	15	14	14
Pondicherry*	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	8	7	7
West of India Portuguese*	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51	51
Grand Total ..	37,618	38,039	38,270	38,579	39,049	39,712	40,950	..	..	..

* Worked by a Company.

** Included with Jodhpur Railway.

§ Worked by State Railway Agency.

† Included with Dholpur State.

(*b*) Although shown under Indian State Lines this is a Company's Line guaranteed by an Indian State.

Mines and Minerals.

Total value of Minerals for which returns of Production are available for the years 1931 and 1932.

——	1931 (£1 = Rs. 13.5).	1932 (£1 = Rs. 13.3).	Increase.	Decrease.	Variation per cent.
	£	£	£	£	
Coal	6,125,804	5,120,045	..	1,005,759	—16.4
Petroleum	4,380,389	3,818,875	..	561,514	—12.8
Gold	1,540,885	1,906,123	365,238	..	+23.7
Salt	1,010,441	898,754	..	111,687	—11.1
Lead and lead-ore (*a*) ..	939,906	820,109	..	911,797	—12.7
Building materials ..	851,741	685,877	..	165,864	—19.5
Silver	387,351	471,557	84,206	..	+21.7
Tin-ore	259,806	339,097	79,291	..	+30.5
Copper-ore and matte ..	407,181	338,675	..	68,506	—16.8
Iron-ore	308,055	294,720	..	13,335	— 4.3
Mica (*c*)	307,316	251,800	..	55,516	—18.1
Manganese-ore (*b*) ..	726,954	140,022	..	586,932	—80.7
Zinc concentrates	127,669	113,481	..	14,188	—11.1
Saltpetre (*c*)	73,414	92,272	18,858	..	+25.7
Nickel-speiss	49,924	77,269	27,345	..	+54.8
Ilmenite	41,991	58,134	16,143	..	+38.4
Tungsten-ore	65,309	52,921	..	12,388	—18.9
Jadeite (*c*)	26,094	28,359	2,265	..	+8.7
Chromite	23,335	20,727	..	2,608	—11.2
Clays	25,615	19,451	..	6,164	—24.1
Refractory materials ..	5,108	10,100	4,992	..	+97.7
Steatite	9,001	9,736	735	..	+8.2
Gypsum	7,254	7,125	..	129	—1.8
Antimonial lead	14,781	6,627	..	8,154	—55.2
Monazite	890	6,147	5,257	..	+590.7
Magnesite	2,026	5,470	3,444	..	+169.9
Diamonds	2,569	5,428	2,859	..	+111.3
Zircon	7,972	3,805	..	4,167	—52.3
Fuller's earth	2,542	3,405	863	..	+33.9
Ochre	1,918	2,489	571	..	+29.7
Barytes	3,200	2,209	..	991	—30.9
Asbestos	5	677	672	..	..
Beryl	..	397	397	..	..
Felspar	247	330	83	..	+33.6
Amber	..	146	146	..	..
Apatite	79	81	2	..	+2.5
Soda	31	33	2	..	+6.4
Garnet (*d*)	..	28	28	..	..
Bismuth	6	4	..	2	—33 3
Ruby, sapphire and spinel.	3,175	..	..	3,175	..
Serpentine	6	..	..	6	..
Columbite	4	..	..	4	..
TOTAL ..	17,739,994	15,612,505	613,397	2,740,886	—12.0
			—2,127,489		

(*a*) Excludes antimonial lead. (*b*) Export f.o.b. values. (*c*) Export values.
(*d*) Estimated.

The feature which stands out most prominently in a survey of the mineral industries of India is the fact that until recent years little has been done to develop those minerals which are essential to modern metallurgical and chemical industries, while most striking progress has been made in opening out deposits from which products are obtained suitable for export, or for consumption in the country by what may conveniently be called direct processes. In this respect India of to-day stands in contrast to the India of a century ago. The European chemist armed with cheap supplies of sulphuric acid and alkali, and aided by low sea freights and increased facilities for internal distribution by the spreading network of railways has been enabled to stamp out, in all but remote localities, the once flourishing native manufactures of alum, the various alkaline compounds, blue vitriol, copperas, copper, lead, steel and iron, and seriously to curtail the export trade in nitre and borax. The reaction against that invasion is of recent date. The high quality of the native-made iron; the early anticipation of the processes now employed in Europe for the manufacture of high-class steels, and the artistic products in copper and brass gave the country a prominent position in the ancient metallurgical world, while as a chief source of nitre India held a position of peculiar political importance until, less than forty years ago, the chemical manufacturer of Europe found among his by-products, cheaper and more effective compounds for the manufacture of explosives.

With the spread of railways, the development of manufactures connected with jute, cotton and paper, and the gradually extended use of electricity the demand for metallurgical and chemical products in India has steadily grown. Before long the stage must be reached at which the variety and quantity of products required, but now imported, will satisfy the conditions necessary for the local production of those which can be economically manufactured only for the supply of groups of industries.

COAL.

Most of the coal raised in India comes from the Bengal and Bihar and Orissa—Gondwana coal-fields. Outside Bengal and Bihar and Orissa the most important mines are those at Singareni in Hyderabad, and in Central Provinces but there are a number of smaller mines which have been worked at one time or another.

Provincial production of Coal during the years 1931 *and* 1932.

Province.	1931.	1932.	Increase.	Decrease.
	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.
Assam	275,021	210,035	..	64,986
Baluchistan	16,554	18,928	2,374	..
Bengal	5,810,184	5,782,603	..	27,581
Bihar and Orissa	13,532,794	11,847,216	..	1,685,578
Central India	226,928	240,488	13,560	..
Central Provinces	1,004,391	1,163,096	158,705	..
Hyderabad	757,575	781,121	23,546	..
Punjab	54,840	72,857	18,017	..
Rajputana	38,148	37,043	..	1,105
TOTAL ..	21,716,435	20,153,387	216,202	1,779,250

Value of Coal produced in India during the years 1931 *and* 1932.

	1931.			1932.		
	Value (£1=Rs. 13.5).		Value per ton.	Value (£1=Rs. 13.3).		Value per ton.
	Rs.	£	Rs. a. p.	Rs.	£	Rs. a. p.
Assam	31,02,094	229,785	11 4 5	22,70,039	170,680	10 12 11
Baluchistan ..	1,34,296	9,948	8 1 9	1,49,385	11,232	7 14 3
Bengal	2,21,68,189	1,642,088	3 13 1	1,88,07,330	1,414,085	3 4 0
Bihar and Orissa ..	4,87,78,145	3,613,196	3 9 8	3,78,23,891	2,843,901	3 3 1
Central India ..	9,70,329	71,876	4 4 5	10,06,944	75,710	4 3 0
Central Provinces ..	40,68,974	3,01,405	4 0 10	44,41,896	333,977	3 13 1
Hyderabad (*a*) ..	30,61,779	2,26,708	4 0 8	30,63,495	230,338	3 14 9
Punjab	2,65,067	19,635	4 13 4	3,83,155	28,809	5 4 2
Rajputana	1,49,491	11,073	3 14 8	1,50,469	11,313	4 1 0
Total ..	8,26,98,364	6,125,804	..	6,80,96,604	5,120,045	..
Average ..	..	..	3 12 11	..	..	3 6 1

(*a*) Estimated.

In reversal of 1930 and 1931, the *export statistics for coal* during 1932 show an increase, amounting to about 78,500 tons. Exports to Hongkong increased greatly from 89,127 tons in 1931 to 218,638 tons in 1932. As the exports to Ceylon fell from 281,684 tons in 1931 to 190,237 tons in 1932, Hongkong, for the first time, became the leading importer of Indian coal. Exports to the Straits Settlements (including Labuan) decreased by some 16,000 tons, whilst those to the Philippine Islands and Guam showed an increase of about 7,000 tons. The United Kingdom took 32,699 tons against 10,785 tons in the previous year and other countries absorbed about 28,000 tons more. The export of coke decreased by 332 tons. *Imports of coal and coke.* showed during 1932 another substantial fall, namely from 88,035 tons in 1931 to 47,544 tons in 1932; 13,912 tons of the latter consisted of coke. This fall is due mainly to a decrease of some 30,000 tons from South Africa, and of 9,000 tons from the United Kingdom. The average surplus of exports over imports during the years 1926 to 1932 was, in fact, greater than the surplus during the pre-war quinquennium.

The average number of persons employed in the coal fields during the year showed a smaller decrease (4.4 per cent.) than the decrease in production (7.2 per cent.). The average output per person employed, therefore, showed a decrease to 121.7 tons in contrast with the advances up to 1930, which have been 110.5 tons for 1925, rising to 113.1 tons for 1926, 122.3 tons for 1927, 125.5 tons for 1928, 130.4 tons for 1929, and 129.1 tons for 1930, with a decrease to 125.4 tons in 1931. Except for the last five years, however the figure for the year under review is still higher than those previously recorded; these higher figures are due, partly to an increased use of mechanical coal-cutters, and partly to concentration of work. During the past few years a large number of collieries have been shut down and the labour absorbed in the remainder; this concentration permits of a proportional reduction of the supervising staff, resulting in a larger tonnage per head. There was a decrease in the number of deaths by accident from 196 in 1931 to 164; the latter figure is much better than the annual average for the quinquennium 1919-1923, which was 274, and also below the annual average for the quinquennium 1924-1928, which was 218. The death rate was 1.0 per thousand persons employed in 1932, a little less than the figure for the previous year (1.1); the average figure for the period 1919-1923 was 1.36, and for the period 1924-1928 was 1.16.

IRON ORE.

Bengal and Bihar and Orissa are the only provinces in India in which iron ore is mined for smelting by European methods. Iron smelting, however, was at one time a widespread industry in India and there is hardly a district away from the great alluvial tracts of the Indus, Ganges and Brahmaputra in which slag heaps are not found. The primitive iron smelter finds on difficulty in obtaining sufficient supplies of ore from deposit that no European Ironmaster would regard as worth his serious consideration.

Early attempts to introduce European processes for the manufacture of pig-iron and steel were recorded in 1830 in the South Arcot District. Since that date various other attempts have been made but none proved a success before that now in operation near Barakar in Bengal. The site of the **Barakar Iron-Works** was originally chosen on account of the proximity of both coal and ore supplies. The outcrop of iron stone shales between the coal-bearing Barakar and Raniganj stages stretches east and west

from the works, and for many years the clay ironstone nodules obtainable from this formation formed the only supply of ore used in the blast furnaces. Recently magnetite and hematite have been obtained from the Manbhum and Singhbhum districts, and the production from the last named district has largely replaced the supplies of ore hitherto obtained near the iron-works. The Bengal Iron and Steel Company, Limited, have now given up the use of ores obtained from the neighbourhood of Barakar and Raniganj and are now obtaining most of their ores from the Kolhan Estate, Singhbhum. Some years ago the Bengal Iron Steel Co., Ltd., secured two deposits of iron-ore in Saranda (Singhbhum) forming parts of two large hill masses known as Notu Buru and Buda Buru respectively. Recent prospecting in this part of Singhbhum has led to the discovery of numerous additional deposits of iron-ore, the extension of which has been traced into Keonjhar and Bonal States in Orissa, a total distance of some 40 miles in a S. S. W. direction. At Pansira Buru, a portion of Notu Buru, the deposit has been opened up, and now feeds the Barakar ironwork. Pansira Buru rises to over 2,500 feet above sea level, the low ground on the west side being at about 1,100 feet above sea-level. The uppermost 400 to 450 feet of this hill has now been opened up, and the workings indicate the existence of a deposit about a quarter of a mile long, perhaps 400 feet thick and proved on the dip for about 500 feet. The ore body appears to be interbedded with the Dharwar slates, from which it is separated by banded hæmatite-jaspers. The ore itself is high-grade micaceous hæmatite often lateritised at the outcrop. Cross-cuts into the interior of the deposit show that the hæmatite becomes very friable not far below the outcrop. In fact the characteristics of this ore, including the surface lateritisation, are almost exactly reproduced in the iron-ore deposits of Goa and Ratnagiri. **The Tata Iron and Steel Company** at Sakchi possesses slightly richer and purer ore-bodies in the Raipur district, supplies of ore are at present drawn from the deposits in Mayurbhanj. The ore-deposits have all been found to take the form of roughly lenticular leads or bodies of hæmatite, with small proportions of magnetite, in close association with granite on the one hand and granitic rocks on the other.

The production of iron ore in India is still steadily on the increase; India is now, in fact, the second largest producer in the British Empire, and yields place only to the United Kingdom. Her output is of course still completely dwarfed by the production in the United States (over 59 million tons in 1930 and 31 million tons in 1931) and France 48 and 38 million tons in 1930 and 1931 respectively); but her reserves of ore are not much less than three-quarters of the estimated total in the United States, and there is every hope that India will eventually take a much more important place among the world's producers of iron-ore. In 1930, however, the prevailing depression was reflected in a decrease in the Indian output over the previous year of 23.8 per cent amounting to 578,930 tons, followed by a further fall of 224,742 tons (12.1 per cent.) in 1931. In 1932, however, in spite of the continuance of the depression there was a partial recovery in the production of iron-ore in India of 135,618 tons (8.3 per cent.) The figures shown against the Keonjhar and Mayurbhanj States in the following table represent the production by the United Steel Corporation of Asia, Ltd., and the Tata Iron and Steel Co., Ltd., respectively. Of the total production of 666,874 tons shown against Singhbhum, 528,370 tons were produced by the Tata Iron and Steel Co., Ltd., from their Noamundi mine, and 138,504 tons by the Indian Iron and Steel Co., Ltd., from their mines at Gua. The output of iron-ore in Burma is by the Burma Corporation, Limited, and is used as a flux in lead smelting.

Quantity and value of Iron-ore produced in India during the years, 1931 *and* 1932.

	1931.			1932.		
	Quantity.	Value £1=Rs. 13.5).		Quantity.	Value £1=Rs. 13.3	
	Tons.	Rs.	£	Tons.	Rs.	£
Bihar and Orissa—						
Keonjhar	1,09841	1,09,841	738,136	186,173	1,86,173	13,998
Mayurbhanj	901,246	27,03,738	200,277	891,193	21,33,961	160,448
Puri	9	12	..	..	..	..
Sambalpur	..	..	..	7	50	4
Singhbhum	588,290	12,65,325	93,728	666,874	15,51,217	116,633
Burma—						
Northern Shan States.	1,886	7,544	559	6,560	26,240	1,973
Central Provinces ..	763	2,289	170	803	2,409	181
Madras—						
East Godavari ..	4,329	2,597	192	4,496	4,456	335
Mysore State	18,519	67,391	4,992	4,395	15,263	1,148
Total ..	1,624,883	41,58,737	308,055	1,760,501	39,19,769	294,720

In contrast with the preceding year there was a fall in the total output of iron and steel by the Tata Iron and Steel Co. at Jamshedpur. The production of pig-iron fell from 799,545 tons in 1931 to 699,931 tons in 1932, with decreases in the production of steel (including steel rails) from 439,134 tons in 1931 to 430,333 tons in 1932, and of ferro-manganese from 14,366 tons in 1931 to 366 tons in 1932. As in 1931, there was no production of pig-iron by the Bengal Iron Co.; their output of products made from pig-iron in 1932 amounted to 3,371 tons of sleepers and chairs, and 17,266 tons of pipes and other castings, against 28,211 tons and 32,760 tons, respectively in 1931. The Indian Iron and Steel Co. decreased their production of pig-iron from 243,214 tons in 1931 to 198,700 tons in 1932. The output of pig-iron by the Mysore Iron Works fell from 15,577 tons in 1931 to 14,683 tons in 1932. The total production of pig-iron in India fell from 1,058,336 tons in 1931 to 913,314 tons in 1932.

Exports of Pig-iron.—The decrease in the production of pig-iron in India recorded above was accompanied by a fall in the quantity exported from 318,994 tons in 1931 to 250,137 tons in 1932. Japan is still the principal consumer of Indian pig-iron, but the proportion fell from 49 per cent. in 1931 to 41.5 per cent. in 1932, whilst the actual amount fell by 34 per cent. Exports to all other countries fell substantially except to United Kingdom to which a rise of about 65 per cent. (33,732 tons) took place. The export value per ton of pig-iron varied slightly from Rs. 35.1 (£2.6) in 1931 to Rs. 34.8 (£2.62) in 1932.

MANGANESE ORE.

This industry was started some thirty years ago by quarrying the deposits of the Vizagapatam district, and from an output of 674 tons in 1892, the production rose rapidly to 92,008 tons in 1900 when the richer deposits in the Central Provinces were also attacked, and are now yielding a larger quantity of ore than the Vizagapatam mines. The most important deposits occur in the Central Provinces, Madras, Central India, and Mysore—the largest supply coming from the Central Provinces. The uses to which the ore is put are somewhat varied. The peroxide is used by glass manufacturers to destroy the green colour in glass making, and it is also used in porcelain painting and glazing for the brown colour which it yields. The ore is now used in the manufacture of ferro-manganese for use in steel manufacture. Since 1904, when the total output was 150,190 tons, the progress of the industry has been remarkable owing to the high prices prevailing.

Record Output in 1927.—Before the year 1926, the record production of Manganese-ore in India took place in 1907 when 902,291 tons were raised. In 1926, the output rose to 1,014,928 tons, valued at £2,463,491 f.o.b. Indian ports; the rise in output was however, accompanied by a decrease in value. In 1927 the production rose to the highest figure yet recorded, 1,129,353 tons, accompanied by a rise in value to the peak figure of £2,703,068 f.o.b. Indian ports. During the year 1928, the upward tendency was not maintained, the output falling to 978,449 tons valued at £2,198,895 f.o.b. Indian ports. In 1929, the output rose again slightly to 994,279 tons but the value fell heavily to £1,571,030. In 1930 the output fell substantially to 829,946 tons with a heavy fall in value to £1,200,236. In 1931 a still more serious fall took place to 537,844 tons with a value of £726,954. This has been followed by a disastrous fall in 1932 to 212,604 with a value of £140,022. This is the smallest quantity and value reported since 1904, when the output was 150,190 tons valued at £137,933. In 1905 the output was 247,427 tons valued at £223,432 since when the smallest production was 450,416 tons in 1915 valued at £929,546; whilst the smallest value was in 1909 when a production of 644,660 tons was valued at £603,908. The full magnitude of this catastrophe to the Indian maganese industry is perhaps best realised from the fact that whilst the quantity of the production in 1932 was a little over one-fifth of that of the peak year of 1927, the value was less than one nineteenth of the value of the 1927 production. In fact in none of the major Indian mineral industries have the effects of slump been so seriously felt as in the maganese industry.

The decrease of 1932, totalling 325,575 tons, was distributed over all producing districts except Keonjhar State which showed an increase of some 5,000 tons, Vizagapatam district with an increase of some 2,700 tons, and North Kanara with a trivial output against none in the previous year. Production ceased from the Panch Mahals, Belgaum, and Bellary. In the Central Provinces the production fell from 302,344 tons in 1931 to 77,186 tons in 1932, which is the smallest output since 1901, in the infancy of the industry in the Central Provinces, when the output was 44,428 tons. During the year the majority of mines in the Central Provinces were closed including several in mines that had never been closed since the commencement of work in 1900 and 1901.

The present chief *sources of production* of manganese-ore are now India, Russia, the Gold Coast, South Africa, and Brazil, whilst substantial supplies of ore are forthcoming from Egypt and Czechoslovakia.

There is a steady *consumption of maganese-ore* at the works of the three principal Indian iron and steel companies, not only for use in the steel furnaces of the Tata Iron and Steel Company, and for the manufacture of ferro-manganese, but also for addition to the blast-furnace charge in the manufacture of pig-iron. The consumption of maganese-ore by the Indian iron and steel industry in the year under review amounted to 19,647 tons, against 53,037 tons in 1931.

Quantity and value of Manganese-ore produced in India during the years 1931 and 1932.

	1931.		1932.	
	Quantity.	Value f.o.b. at Indian ports.	Quantity.	Value f.o.b. at Indian ports.
	Tons.	£	Tons.	£
Bihar and Orissa—				
Keonjhar State	39,665	40,987	44,908	23,296
Singhbhum	7,938	12,370	2,272	2,300
Bombay—				
Belgaum				
North Kanara	474	739	..	..
Panch Mahals	..	..	612	620
	31,184	48,595	..	..
Central Provinces—				
Balaghat				
Bhandara	119,466	198,115	36,762	40,132
Chhindwara	82,999	137,640	10,918	11,919
Nagpur	16,404	27,203	10,041	10,961
	83 475	138,429	19,465	21,249
Madras—				
Bellary	44	34	..	..
Sandur State	149,833	117,369	79,023	26,176
Vizagapatam	5,389	4,670	8,049	3,169
Mysore—				
Chitaldrug				
Shimoga	425	351	219	79
	548	452	335	121
Total ..	537,844	726,954	212,604	140,022

GOLD.

The greater part of the total output of gold in India is derived from the Kolar gold field in Mysore. During the last decade the production of this mine reached its highest point in 1905 when 616,758 ounces were raised. In 1906 the quantity won was 565,208 ounces and this figure fell to 535,085 ounces in 1907. The figures for the latter years reveal a small improvement. The Nizam's mine at Hutti in Hyderabad comes next, but at a respectable distance, to the Kolar gold field. This mine was opened in 1903. The only other mines from which gold was raised were those in the Dharwar district of Bombay and the Anantapur district of Madras. The Dharwar mines gave an output of 2,993 ounces in 1911 but work there ceased in 1912. The Anantapur mines gave their first output of gold during the year 1910; the amount being 2,532 ounces, valued at Rs. 1,51,800. Gold mining was carried on in the North Arcot district of Madras from 1893 till 1900, the highest yield (2,854 ounces) being obtained in the year 1898. The Kyaukpazat mine in Upper Burma was worked until 1903, when the pay chute was lost and the mine closed down. In 1902 dredging operations were started on the Irrawaddy river near Myitkyina, and 216 ounces of gold were obtained in 1904; the amount steadily increased from year to year and reached 8,445 ounces in 1909, but fell in subsequent years until in 1922 it was no more than 24 oz. The small quantity of gold produced in the Punjab, the Central Provinces, and the United Provinces is obtained by washing. Gold washing is carried on in a great many districts in India, but there is no complete record of the amount obtained in this way. There was a trivial fall in the total Indian gold production from 330,488.8 ozs. valued at Rs. 2,08,01,943 (£1,540,885) in 1931 to 329,681.7 ozs. valued at Rs. 2,53,51,438 (£1,906,123) in 1932. There was again a small production from Singhbhum, and as in the previous year small outputs from Burma, the Punjab and the United Provinces. But these figures are, of course, quite insignificant compared with the output of Kolar which makes up 99.97 per cent. of the Indian total. The considerable increase in the value of production is due to 1932 being the first full year since Britain and India abandoned the gold standard in September, 1931, with consequent appreciation in the price of gold, against sterling or Rupees. As a result of this appreciation in the price of gold 9,666,122 ozs. of gold reckoned in terms of fine gold were exported during 1932. The value was Rs. 75,87,52,203 (£57,049,038).

The average number of persons employed on the Kolar Gold Field during 1932 was 18,816.

Quantity and value of Gold produced in India during the years* 1931 *and* 1932.

	1931.			1932.			Labour in 1932.
	Quantity.	Value (£1=Rs. 13.5).		Quantity.	Value £1=Rs. 13.3).		
Bihar and Orissa—	Ozs.	Rs.	£	Ozs.	Rs.	£	
Singhbhum ..	..	..	..	50.9	3,650	274	4
Burma—							
Katha	18.8	1,005	75	18.2	950	72	2
Upper Chindwin ..	18.0	960	71	28.4	2,649	199	..
Mysore	330,437.5	2,07,99,131	1,540,676	329,574.9	2,53,43,443	1,905,522	8,86
Punjab	10.0	583	43	6.6	480	36	47
United Provinces	4.5	264	20	3.6	266	20	23
Total ..	330,488.8	2,08,01,943	1,540,885	329,681.7	2,53,51,438	1,906,123	18,892

* Fine ounces in the case of Mysore.

PETROLEUM.

Petroleum is found in India in two distinct areas—one on the east, which includes Assam, Burma, and the islands off the Arakan coast. This belt extends to the productive oil fields of Sumatra, Java and Borneo. The other area is on the west, and includes the Punjab and Baluchistan, the same belt of oil-bearing rocks being continued beyond the borders of British India to Persia. Of these two the eastern area is by far the most important, and the most successful oil-fields are found in the Irrawaddy Valley. Yenangyaung is the oldest and most developed of these fields. Native wells have been at work here for over 100 years, and to 1886, prior to annexation of Upper Burma, the output is estimated to have averaged over 2 million gallons a year. Drilling was begun in 1887. The Yenangyat field yielded a very small supply of petroleum before 1891, in which year drilling was started by the Burma Oil Company. Singu now holds the second place among the oil-fields of India. Petroleum was struck at the end of 1901, and in 1903, 5 million gallons were obtained. In 1907 and 1908 the production of this field was 43 million gallons, and after a fall to 31¼ million gallons in 1910 it rose to 56½ million gallons in 1912. Several of the islands off the Arakan coasts are known to contain oil deposits but their value is uncertain. About 20,000 gallons were obtained from the eastern Barongo Island near Akyab, and about 37,000 gallons from Ramri Island in the Kyaukpyu district during 1911. Oil was struck at Minbu in 1910, the production for that year being 18,320 gallons which increased to nearly 4 million gallons in 1912. The existence of oil in Assam has been known for many years and an oil spring was struck near Makum in 1867. Nothing more, however, was done until 1883, and from that year up till 1902 progress was slow. Since that year the annual production has been between 2½ and 4 million gallons.

On the west, oil springs have been known for many years to exist in the Rawalpindi and other districts in the Punjab. In Baluchistan geological conditions are adverse, and though some small oil springs have been discovered, attempts to develop them have not hitherto been successful.

The world's production of petroleum in 1926 amounted to nearly 150 million tons, of which India contributed 0.72 per cent. In 1927, this figure jumped to some 172 million tons, of which the Indian proportion on a practically stationary production, fell to 0.64 per cent. In 1928, there was another substantial rise in the world's production, which reached the figure of over 181 million tons. In 1929 there was another jump to over 202 million tons, but in 1930 the world's production fell to about 193½ million tons in 1931 to about 188 million tons, and in 1932 to about 180 million tons. The United States alone showed a fall greater than the total fall. Increases were shown by Roumania, Persia, Netherlands, East Indies, Argentina, Trinidad, India, Germany, Czecho-Slovakia, Italy and Bolivia; Roumania showed the largest increase

All other producers showed a decrease in production. The United States contributed 59.9 per cent. of the world's supply in 1932 Russia 11.9 per cent. and Venezuela 8.9 per cent. In 1928, India contributed 0.64 per cent which fell 0.60 per cent in 1929 and rose to 0.62 in 1930, 0.63 per cent. in 1931 and 0.64 per cent. in 1932; her position on the list of petroleum producing countries fell from 11th in 1929 to 12th in 1930, 1931 and 1932, her place being taken by Trinidad.

The production of petroleum in India (including Burma) rose from 305,018,751 gallons in 1931 to 308,606,031 gallons in 1932, the highest production yet recorded, with the exception of the output of 311,030,108 gallons in 1930. The increase in 1932 represents the balance of a considerable increase in the output of Burma a slight increase of that of the Punjab, and of a trivial proportionate decrease in the production of Assam. This increase in output in 1932 was accompanied, however, by a decrease in value amounting to Rs. 83,44,212 (£561,514) 12.8 per cent., the fall in price being a reflection of the world depression.

Production from Yenangyaung, the most highly developed field in the Indian Empire, showed a decrease of 4,073,700 gallons, or a little over 3 per cent. of the 1931 total.

An interesting feature of the year was the discovery of oil at the horizon of the 3,000 and and 3,100-feet sands in East Twingon. For many years these horizons have been recognised as gas sands, but it now appears that the gas in them is a crestal accumulation on the higher portions of the structure. This discovery proved a narrow strip of oil within the Twingon Reserve and led to competitive deepening towards the close of the year. Development of this part of the field, both by extension tests and by a deep test well, was proceeding at the end of the year. At Minlindaung one of the two deep test wells was abandoned, while the other remained shut down.

Quantity and value of Petroleum produced in India during the years 1931 *and* 1932.

	1931.			1932.		
	Quantity.	Value (£1=Rs. 13.5).		Quantity.	Value (£1=Rs. 13.3).	
Assam—	Gals.	Rs.	£	Gals.	Rs.	£
Badarpur ..	1,985,042	3,12,644	23,159	847,217	63,357	4,764
Digboi ..	53,407,990	91,19,891	675,548	54,198,185	92,54,823	695,851
Patharia ..	153,431	24,165	1,789	89,854	0,919	595
Burma—						
Kyaukpyu ..	13,068	11,829	876	13,237	11,814	888
Minbu ..	3,993,633	7,98,726	59,165	3,850,716	6,25,750	47,049
Singu	85,478,378	1,70,95,676	1,266,346	88,941,939	1,44,53,065	1,086,697
Thayetmyo ..	577,840	1,15,568	8,561	464,326	75,453	5,673
Upper Chindwin	2,777,102	2,09,427	15,513	4,040,690	3,03,051	22,786
Yenangyat (including Lanywa).	19,899,104	39,61,821	293,468	23,060,644	37,55,163	282,343
Yenangyaung..	131,265,443	2,60,96,073	1,933,043	120,191,043	2,07,65,523	1,561,318
Punjab—						
Attock.. ..	5,557,720	13,89,430	102,921	5,900,480	14,75,120	110,911
Total ..	305,018,751	5,91,35,250	4,380,389	308,606,031	5,00,91,038	3,818,875

Imports of Kerosene Oil into India during the years 1931 *and* 1932.

—	1931.			1932.		
	Quantity.	Value (£1=Rs. 13.5).		Quantity.	Value (£1=Rs. 13.3).	
From—	Gals.	Rs.	£	Gals.	Rs.	£
Russia ..	3,021,170	15,54,948	115,181	60,210	22,579	1,698
Georgia ..	19,455,551	98,51,423	729,735	28,263,908	1,21,86,262	916,260
Azerbaijan ..	11,753,283	51,87,107	384,230	17,211,968	65,24,430	490,559
Persia	11,001,437	51,71,125	383,046	18,053,144	98,97,711	744,189
Straits Settlements (including Labuan),	428,333	2,16,949	16,070	6,500	1,979	194
Borneo	2,235,007	11,40,750	84,500	2,181,860	8,72,149	65,575
Celebes and other Islands.	5,502,314	28,08,474	208,035	1,313,023	8,20,638	61,702
United States of America.	19,599,798	1,27,53,851	944,730	6,080,904	31,10,836	233,897
Other countries .	136	95	7	4,920,055	23,02,234	173,100
Total ..	72,997,029	3,86,84,722	2,865,534	78,091,572	3,57,38,818	2,687,129

Imports of Fuel Oils into India during the years 1931 *and* 1932

—	1931.			1932.		
	Quantity.	Value (£1=Rs. 13.5).		Quantity.	Value (£1=Rs. 31.3)	
From—	Gals.	Rs.	£	Gals.	Rs.	£
Persia	72,295,499	1,41,86,900	1,050,882	67,938,453	1,31,09,255	985,658
Straits Settlements (including Labuan).	2,665,515	5,41,717	40,127	69,899	19,314	1,452
Borneo ..	25,681,729	54,28,436	402,106	26,513,654	52,01,654	391,102
Other countries.	3,672,058	8,78,497	65,074	10,730,442	20,96,511	157,632
TOTAL ..	104,314,801	2,10,35,550	1,558,189	105,252,687	2,04,26,734	1,535,844

Amber, Graphite and Mica.—Amber is found in very small quantities in Burma, Graphite is found in small quantities in various places but little progress has been made in mining except in Travancore. The total output in 1929 was 39 tons. India has for many years been the leading producer of mica, turning out more than half of the world's supply. In 1914, owing to the war, the output was only 38, 189 cwts. compared with 43,650 cwts. in 1913. Owing to necessary restrictions with regard to the export of mica, the output fell off considerably in the year 1915, but subsequent demand in the United Kingdom for the best grade of ruby mica led to a considerable increase in production during the following years.

There was a small fall in the declared Production of mica from 38,963 cwts. valued at Rs. 20,37,634 (£150,935) in 1931, to 32,713 cwts. valued at Rs. 14,35,401 (£107, 925) in 1932. In the years 1926 and 1927 the export figure was approximately double the reported production figure, whilst in the years 1928 and 1929 the quantity exported was more than double the reported production. In 1930 the recorded exports were, however, only some 57 per cent. in excess of the reported production, in 1931 only 36 per cent., and in 1932 only 43 per cent. in excess.

The United States of America and the United Kingdom, which are the principal importers of Indian mica, absorbed respectively 23.4 per cent. and 43.2 per cent. during 1931, and 24.0 per cent. and 47.6 per cent. during 1932. Germany took 7.2 per cent. and 10.6 per cent. respectively, of the total quantities exported during the years 1931 and 1932. The average value of the exported mica decreased from Rs. 78.3 (£5.8) per cwt. in 1931 to Rs. 71.2 (£5.4) per cwt. in 1932. The exports fell from 52,966 cwts. value at Rs. 41,48,768 (£307,316) in 1931, to 47,021 cwts. valued at Rs. 33,48,943 (£251,800) in 1932. This is the lowest total value recorded since 1915-16, when the value of the mica exports was £208,496.

The difference between exports and production is generally attributed to theft from the mines. If this be the only explanation we must assume that during the three years prior to 1930 there has been as much mica stolen as won by honest means. Early in 1928 a bill was introduced into the Legislative Council of Bihar and Orissa, the purpose of which was an attempt to reduce the losses on this account by licensing miners and dealers; the bill was, however, rejected. In March, 1930, however, a similar bill to regulate the possession and transport of, and trading in, mica was passed, and from the figures presented since 1930, as analysed above, it appears that this bill may already have produced a good effect.

Tin, Copper, Silver and Lead.——Following a series of years of practically continuous increase, a slight decrease in the production of tin-ore in Burma was reported for the year 1931, during which the output amounted to 4,255.2 tons valued at Rs. 35,07,380. In 1932, however, there was again an increase in production to 4,525 tons valued at Rs. 45,09,995. This is the highest quantity (but not the highest total value, for which the smaller outputs of 1926, 1927, 1929, 1930 and 1931 showed higher figures) yet recorded in any one year. The considerable increase in the total value is, of course, mainly due to the rise in the price of the metal during the year resulting from the tin restriction scheme in operation in the five leading tin producing countries, Malaya, Netherlands East Indies, Bolivia, Nigeria and Siam, a scheme to which India is not an adherent. This increase in output of some 270 tons is the balance of and increase from Tavoy and Mergui and a decrease from Mawchi in the Southern Shan States. Milling operations were suspended at Mawchi in August 1927 pending the installation of additional plant and further development. Milling was resumed in February 1930 and this explains the large increases of 1930 and 1931. The figure for 1932 includes 1,557.3 tons from Mawchi, calculated to be the proportion of tin-ore in 2,732 tons of concentrates derived from mixed wolfram-scheelite-cassiterite-ore; these concentrates are assumed to contain 43 per cent. of wolfram and 57 per cent. of cassiterite. There was no reported output of block tin.

Imports of unwrought tin increased from 41,969 cwts. valued at Rs. 36,28,556 in 1931 to 49,279 cwts. valued at Rs. 47,50,341 in 1932; over 98 per cent. of these imports came from the Straits Settlements.

In contrast with the increase in the **production of silver** from the Bawdwin mines of Upper Burma, amounting to 1,400,291 ozs. recorded during the four years, 1925 to 1928, the following years 1929, 1930 and 1931 were marked by decreases amounting to 124,211 ozs., 226,311 ozs., and 1,153,806 ozs. respectively. In 1932, however, there was a small increase again, amounting to 98,556 ozs. These variations in quantity were accompanied by a small fall of value in 1929, marked falls in 1930 and 1931, and a marked rise in 1932. The output of silver obtained as a bye-product from the Kolar gold mines of Mysore showed an increase of some 5,000 ozs. The amount of silver bullion and coin exported during the year was 34,664,148 ozs. valued at Rs. 4,15,61,144.

The production of lead-ore at the Burma Corporation's Bawdwin mines in Burma decreased further from 397,679 tons in 1931 to 372,586 tons in 1932, and the total amount of metal extracted decreased from 74,785 tons of lead (including 1,505 tons antimonial lead) valued at Rs. 1,28,88,270 in 1931, to 71,202 tons of lead (including 642 tons of antimonial lead) valued at Rs. 1,09,95,587) in 1932. The quantity of silver extracted from the Bawdwin ores rose slightly from 5,900,400 ozs. valued at Rs. 51,97,367 in 1931 to 5,998,956 ozs. valued at Rs. 62,32,915 in 1932. The value of the lead per ton fell from Rs. 172.3 to Rs. 154.5, whilst the value of the silver rose from Re. 0-14-1 to Re. 1-0-7 in the year 1932. The ore reserves in the Bawdwin mine, as calculated at the end of June, 1932, totalled 4,126,179 tons, against 4,233,120 tons at the end of June, 1931, with an average composition of 25.4 per cent. of lead, 15.6 per cent. of zinc, 0.68 per cent. of copper and 19.7 ozs. of silver per ton of lead. Included in this reserve are 37,000 tons of copper-ore. During the year development work in the Meingtha section, discovered in 1930, continued in yield satisfactory results.

Zinc.—A monograph on zinc ores issued by the Imperial Institute in 1917 says that during the past fifty years zinc ores have received but little attention in India, and no production was recorded until 1913. The

production of zinc concentrates by the Burma Corporation, Limited, in the Northern Shan States, fell from 51,455 tons valued at Rs. 17,28,528 in 1931 to 44,484 tons valued at Rs. 15,09,298 in 1932. The slight rise in the value per ton is parallel with a similar rise in the price of spelte. The exports during 1932 amounted to 49,950 tons valued at Rs. 24,97,500 against 54,818 tons valued at Rs. 28,41,250 in the preceding year.

Copper.—In 1931 the mine output was 153,636 long tons of copper-ore valued at Rs. 22,71,940. 161,563 short tons of ore were treated for a production of 4,069 long tons of refined copper. 1,668 tons of this were sold in the Indian market at an average price of Rs. 673 per ton. In addition there was a production of 3,637 tons of yellow metal, the average selling price in India being Rs. 719 per ton.

Operations continued uninterruptedly during the year 1932 at the Mosaboni Mine and at the works site at Maubhandar. The mine output increased to 175,010 long tons of copper-ore valued at Rs. 25,09,080. 185,894 short tons of ore were treated in the mill and the production of refined copper amounted to 4,443 long tons. 3,441 tons were consumed in the rolling mill and 1,312 tons were sold in the Indian market at an average price of Rs. 689 per ton. Operations in the rolling mill resulted in the production of 5,440 long tons of yellow metal, of which 4,830 were sold in India at an average price of Rs. 657 per ton. The total ore reserves at the close of the year 1932 amounted to 700,466 short tons with an average assay value of 3.053 per cent. of copper.

There was a considerable decrease in the production of coppermatte at the Namtu smelting plant of the Burma Corporation Limited, from 13,437 tons valued at Rs. 32,25,003 In 1931, to 9,729 tons valued at Rs. 19,81,499 and averaging 44.32 per cent. of copper, 26.36 per cent. of lead, and 83.72 ozs. of silver to the ton. In addition 365 tons of copper-ore valued at Rs. 6,900 were produced in the Nellore district, Madras.

Gem Stones.—The only precious and semi-precious stones at present mined in India are the diamond, ruby, sapphire, spinel, tourmaline garnet, rock-crystal, agate, cornelian, jadeite and amber. The production of diamonds in Central India rose from 639 carats valued at Rs. 34,083 in 1931 to 1,254.1 carats valued at Rs. 72,189 in 1932. Of this latter production 1,152.1 carats were produced in Panna State and the remainder in Charkhari, Ajaigarh and Bijawar.

A severe decline in the output from the Mogok **ruby mines** of Upper Burma in 1924, followed in 1925 by a marked drop in value, bore witness to a serious decline in the industry. The Burma Ruby Mines, Limited, ultimately decided to go into liquidation, and the mines were offered for sale in September, 1926. The skeleton organisation left in charge of the mines, however, made good use of its opportunities with the result that the value of the output in 1926 exceeded that of the previous year by over a lakh of rupees. This encouraging result was effected by a rigorous economy and an extension of a systen of co-operation with local miners, and was assisted by some good finds of sapphires in the Kyaungdwin mine—the only one still worked by European methods.

During 1927, however, production fell in value by over 1¾ lakhs of rupees, due mainly to a decrease in the value of the **sapphires and spinels** produced, there having been a slight increase in the value of the rubies. During 1928, there was another very large decline in value, amounting to over a lakh of rupees, due to a severe drop in the value of the sapphires produced as before. There was a slight increase in the value of the rubies. The value of the 1929 production was slightly above that of 1928, due to a considerable increase in the value of the rubies found, largely balanced by another large fall in the value of sapphires produced. In 1930 there was a further substantial fall in production and in total value, though the value per carat of the sapphires produced is the highest recorded for many years. Judging from reports in the *Rangoon Times* this is due to the opening up by the Burma Ruby Mines, Ltd., of the new Pagoda mine at Kathe leading to the find of a fine sapphire of 630 carats and a star sapphire of 293 carats. The find of a ruby of 100 carats was also reported. The great drop in production recorded in 1931 was due to the cessation of operations of the Burma Ruby Mines, Limited. Though the industry is in a very depressed state, work is still continued by local miners, but of this no reliable statistics are available. For 1932 no returns are available, except that a fine ruby of 17 carats was found at Chaunggyi near Mogok, and a fine sapphire of about 90 carats and a good star sapphire of 453 carats were mined at Kathe.

SALT.

There was a large decrease in the total output of salt amounting to some 228,000 tons, shared by Madras (108,893 tons), Bombay and Sind (83,638 tons), and Northern India (43,317 tons), partially balanced by small increases in Aden (5,204 tons) and Burma (2,110 tons). Imports of salt into India increased slightly by 24,147 tons, all the countries of origin showing increases excepting Italian East Africa, Spain, and 'other countries.'

Quantity and value of Salt produced in India during the years 1931 *and* 1932.

	1931.			1932.		
	Quantity.	Value (£1=Rs. 13.5).		Quantity.	Value (£1=Rs. 13.3).	
	Tons.	Rs.	£	Tons.	Rs.	£
Aden	286,037	31,69,172	234,753	291,241	32,24,898	242,474
Bombay and Sind ..	489,052	22,83,669	169,161	405,414	19,32,468	145,298
Burma	22,974	3,48,831	25,839	25,084	4,26,438	32,063
Gowalior	48	2,647	196	43	1,744	131
Madras	555,449	38,83,234	287,647	446,556	26,95,736	202,687
Northern India ..	485,840	39,53,406	292,845	442,523	36,72,149	276,101
TOTAL ..	1,839,400	1,36,40,959	1,010,441	1,610,861	1,19,53,433	898,754

Imports of Salt into India during the years 1931 *and* 1932.

	1931.			1932.		
	Quantity.	Value (£1=Rs. 13.5).		Quantity.	Value (£1=Rs. 13·3.)	
	Tons.	Rs.	£	Tons.	Rs.	£
From—						
United Kingdom	24,164	5,17,170	38,309	31,991	5,93,714	44,640
Germany ..	43,097	7,90,671	58,568	49,478	8,57,889	64,503
Spain	27,264	4,00,558	29,671	25,994	3,72,953	28,042
Aden and Dependencies.	273,166	40,90,366	302,990	304,229	44,23,875	332,622
Egypt	6,907	5,80,965	43,034	38,509	5,64,995	42,481
Italian East Africa.	109,904	15,30,617	113,379	96,500	13,27,124	99,784
Other countries	14,092	1,32,451	9,811	6,040	91,957	6,914
Total ..	**528,594**	*80,42,798*	*595,762*	**552,741**	*82,32,507*	*618,986*

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Stock Exchanges.

There are about 475 Share and Stock Brokers in **Bombay**. They carry on business on the Brokers' Hall, bought in 1887 from the funds of the **Share and Stock Brokers' Association** formed to facilitate the negotiations and the sale and purchase of Joint Stock securities promoted throughout the Presidency of Bombay. Their powers are defined by rules and regulations framed by the Board of Directors and approved by the general body of Brokers. The Board has the power to stop business in times of emergencies. The official address of the Secretary is Dalal Stree, Fort, Bombay.

At first the admittance fee for a broker was Rs. 5 which was gradually raised to Rs. 7,000. The fee for the Broker's card has increased. In 1921 a number of cards were sold at Rs. 40,000 each and the proceeds were employed to purchase an adjoining building for the extension of the business. The present value of the card is about Rs. 11,000.

In November 1917 a second Stock Exchange was opened in Bombay, with its headquarters in Apollo Street known as the **Bombay Stock**

Exchange, Ltd. This separate Exchange no longer functions it was revived in 1922. It has ceased to function again.

Committee of Enquiry.—In 1923 the Government of Bombay appointed a Committee to enquire into the constitution, customs, practices, rules, regulations and methods of business of the Native Share and Stock Brokers' Association of Bombay and to investigate any such complaints of the public and to make any such enquiries with reference to any of the aforesaid matters or any other matter appertaining to the aforesaid Association as the Committee may deem proper and thereafter with a view to protect the investing public against the interested or irregular control of business to formulate such definite proposals for the future constitution, control, direction and regulation of the aforesaid Association as the Committee may deem proper.

The Committee issued a report early in 1924 signed by all the members save one who appended a minority report. The majority report made several important recommendations for reform notably one aimed at the prevention of corners and another for facilitating the handling of legitimate complaints against the brokers on the part of the public. The Association, however, adopted the minority report which leaves the constitution and practice of the Exchange very little modified.

In the middle of the year 1925 there was heavy speculation in certain mill scrips. The market was tremendously oversold, the usual crisis ensured, leading to the temporary closing of the Exchange and the suspension of all dealings and a public agitation for thorough reform arose. The brokers were at first unwilling to yield to this demand. But a threat of Government intervention and control altered their attitude. In the end, they submitted new draft rules under which wild speculation will be discouraged and the recurrence of such crisis as that indicated above will be unlikely.

For many years the **Calcutta** Share Market met in the open air in business quarters and was under no control except that of market custom. In 1908 the **Calcutta Stock Exchange Association** was formed, a Representative Committee came into existence, and the existing customs were focussed into rules drawn up for the conduct of business. Public confidence grew rapidly and the rules regarding membership and business underwent drastic changes to suit advancing conditions. The Great War, having given an impetus to Indian industries, was responsible for an astoundingly large volume of business in the market which culminated in a boom.

In June, 1923, the Association was incorporated into a Limited Company under the Indian Companies' Acts 1913-1920 with an authorised capital of Rs. 3 lakhs divided into 300 fully paid up shares of 1,000 each. Accounts are made up annually up to 30th September. At the present moment, the number of shares subscribed is 223, each firm owning, and being entitled to own, only one share.

The total number of members, including partners and assistants of member firms, is a little above 560. The Committee has restricted the further sale of new shares until it deems it necessary to revise its decision, exception being made in the case of a partner dissociating from an existing firm. Anyone intending to become a member is required to purchase a share from a member and the admission fee charged by the Association is Rs. 5,000. The conduct of members and of business is controlled by bye-laws, customs and usages being fully honoured. The market customs differ from those of most other Stock Exchanges, since there are no settlement days, delivery is due the second day after the contract is passed, and sales of securities are effected for most part under blank transfers. It has not got jobbers like the London Stock Exchange, but the brokers mostly combine the function of dealers. The principle business transacted is connected with the shares in Jute Mills, Coal Companies, Tea Companies registered in India, miscellaneous industrial concerns (such as paper, flour, etc.) Railway Companies and Debentures, the latter representing those of industrial concerns and Trustees Investment Securities, namely, Municipal, Port Trust and Improvement Trust Debentures.

A general meeting of the shareholders annually elects a Committee which elects several Sub-Committees and Hony. Office Bearers—the President, two Joint Hony. Treasurers and the Hony. Secretary. The Committee is empowered to do all work on behalf of the Association, which in its turn delegates powers to the Sub-Committees and the Hon. Office Bearers. The Committee also adjudicates in disputes between members thus enabling the members to avoid Law Courts in most cases.

Committee for 1934.—Kedarnath Khandelwal, B. A., LL. B., President: J. S. Haywood. G. C. Montgomery: O. A. Cohey; J. S. Ker. Gobind Lall Bangur: Mahaliram Sonthalia Rai Rameswar Nathany Bahadur: Jagannath Jhunjhunwala; Sarbotosh Sen; Shambhu Nath Dutt; Jitendra Mohan Dutt, M.Sc.; Goralall Seal and Basant Lall Chaturvedi.

Joint Honorary Treasurers:—Rai Rameswar Nathany Bahadur and Goralall Seal.

Hon. Secretary:—Satya Ranjan Mitra, B.A., B.L.

The Stock Exchange has its own building at 7, Lyons Range. This building—one of the finest specimen of its kind—was opened on 6th July, 1928, by Sir Stanley Jackson, the Governor of Bengal. The ground floor is utilised for the Association Hall where members meet between 12 noon and 5 p.m. This floor also contains the offices of the Association, a well equipped Library and several retiring places for the benefit of the members. The upper three floors are tenanted by members' offices.

The **Madras** Stock Exchange situated at No. 9 Broadway consists of about 100 Members of which 25 are working Members. It was opened on 6th April 1920 and deals principally in Mill shares. Business is regulated by rules drawn up by the Directors. There is a Board of arbitration. There is an admittance membership card of Rs. 1,000 and an annual subscription of Rs. 100. The original 100 members were elected by the first Directors and each of the working members have deposited a security of Rs. 3,000.

Chambers of Commerce.

Modern commerce in India was built up by merchants from the west and was for a long time entirely in their hands. Chambers of Commerce and numerous kindred Associations were formed by them for its protection and assistance. But Indians have in recent years, taken a large and growing part in this commercial life. The extent of their participation varies greatly in different parts of India, according to the natural proclivities and genius of different races. Bombay, for instance, has led the way in the industrial and commercial regeneration of the new India, while Bengal, very active in other fields of activity, lags behind in this one. Arising from these circumstances we find Chambers of Commerce in Bombay, Karachi, Calcutta, Madras and other important centres, with a membership both European and Indian; but alongside these have sprung up in recent years certain Associations, such as the Bombay Indian Merchants' Chamber and Bureau, of which the membership is exclusively Indian. These different classes of bodies are in no sense hostile to one another and constantly work in association.

The London Chamber of Commerce in 1921 realizing the increasing attention demanded by the economic development of India, took steps to form an "East India Section" of their organization. The Indian Chambers work harmoniously with this body, but are in no sense affiliated to it, nor is there at present any inclination on their part to enter into such close relationship, because it is generally felt that the Indian Chambers can themselves achieve their objects better and more effectively than a London body could do for them, and on various occasions the London Chamber, or the East India Section of it have shown themselves out of touch with what seemed locally to be immediate requirements in particular matters.

A new movement was started in 1913 by the Hon. Sir Fazulbhoy Currimbhoy Ibrahim, a leading millowner and public citizen of Bombay, which aims at effecting great improvement in strengthening Indian commercial organization. Sir Fazulbhoy's original plan was for the formation of an Indian Commercial Congress. The proposal met with approval in all parts of India. The scheme was delayed by the outbreak of war but afterwards received an impetus from the same cause and the first Congress was held in the 1915 Christmas holiday season, in the Town Hall, Bombay. The list of members of the Reception Committee showed that all the important commercial associations of Bombay were prepared to cooperate actively.

The Congress was attended by several hundred delegates from all parts of India. Mr. (now the Hon. Sir) D. E. Wacha, President of the Bombay Indian Merchants' Chamber, presided as Chairman of the Reception Committee, at the opening of the proceedings and the first business was the election of Sir Fazulbhoy Currimbhoy as the first President. The Congress resolved upon the establishment of an Associated Indian Chamber of Commerce, and elected a Provincial Committee empowered to take the necessary steps to get the Association registered and to enrol members and carry on work. The Congress also approved of the draft constitution.

The following are the principal paragraphs of a Memorandum of Association and Statement of Objects of the new Associated Chamber as approved by the Congress:—

I. The name of the Chamber will be "THE ASSOCIATED INDIAN CHAMBER OF COMMERCE."

II. The Registered Office of the Chamber will be in Bombay.

III. The objects for which the Chamber is established are:—

(1) To discuss and consider questions concerning and affecting trade, commerce, manufactures and the shipping interests, at meeting of delegates from Indian Chambers of Commerce and Commercial Associations or Bodies and to collect and disseminate information from time to time on matters affecting the common interests of such Chambers or Associations or Bodies and the commercial, manufacturing and shipping interests of the country.

(2) To attain those advantages by united action which each Chamber or Association or body may not be able to accomplish in its separate capacity.

(3) To organize Chambers of Commerce, Commercial Associations or Bodies in different trade centres of the Country.

(4) To convene when necessary the Indian Commercial Congress at such places and at such times as may be determined by a Resolution of the Chamber.

The Articles of Association provided "There shall be an annual meeting of the Associated Indian Chamber held at Bombay on a date to be fixed by the Executive Council in the month of February," or at some other time, and "semi-annual or special meetings . . . may be convened by the Executive Council or on the requisition of one-third of the total number of members addressed to the Secretary . . . "

The organization languished for lack of support for some years until a number of merchants specially interested in Currency and Exchange questions revived it in 1926 at Delhi and 1927 at Calcutta, the initiative in the new activities hailing, like the first movement, from Bombay. The Commercial Congress held in Calcutta on 31st December 1926 and 1st and 2nd January 1927, decided upon the formation of a "Federation of Indian Chambers of Commerce" and agreed to the registered office of this body being "at the place where the President for the year has his headquarters or where he directs it to be located." Among the objects for which the Federation is established are the following:—

(*a*) To promote Indian businesses in matters of inland and foreign trade, transport, industry and manufactures, finance and all other economic subjects.

(*b*) To encourage friendly feeling and unanimity among business community and associations on all subjects connected with the common good of Indian business.

(*c*) To enter into any arrangement with any Government or authority supreme, municipal, local or otherwise that may seem conducive to the Federation's objects or any of them, and to obtain from any such Government or authority all rights, concessions, and privileges which the Federation may think it desirable to obtain and to carry out, exercise and comply with any such arrangements, rights, privileges and concessions.

(*d*) To sell or dispose of the undertaking of the Federation or any part thereof for such consideration as the Federation may think fit and in particular for shares, debentures or securities of any other company having objects altogether or in part similar to those of this Federation.

(*e*) To take or otherwise acquire and hold shares in any other company having objects altogether or in part similar to those of this Federation.

(*f*) To undertake and execute any trusts the undertaking of which may seem to the Federation desirable either gratuitously or otherwise.

(*g*) To draw, make, accept, discount, execute and issue bills of exchange, promissory notes, bills of lading warrants, debentures and other negotiable or transferable instruments or securities.

The Rules provide for two classes of members, *viz.*, numbers consisting of Chambers of Commerce (Subscription Rs. 300) and others consisting of Commercial Associations (Subscription Rs. 150).

The following are the Committee of the Federation for 1934 :—

President.—Mr. Kasturbhai Lalbhai.

Vice-President.—Lala Padampat Singhania.

Members of the Committee.—Mr. Nalini Ranjan Sarker (Bengal National Chamber of Commerce, Calcutta), Lala Shri Ram (Delhi Factory-owners' Federation, Delhi), Mr. G. D. Birla (Indian Chamber of Commerce, Calcutta), Sir Purshotamdas Thakurdas, Kt., C.I.E., M.B.E., (Indian Merchants' Chamber, Bombay), Mr. Walchand Hirachand (Maharashtra Chamber of Commerce, Bombay), Raj Ratna Seth Chimanlal Girdharlal (Baroda Millowners' Association, Baroda), Seth Mathurdas Vissanji (Indian Merchants' Chamber, Bombay), Rao Bahadur Shivrattan G. Mohatta (Karachi Indian Merchants' Association, Karachi), Mr. A. D. Shroff (Indian Merchants' Chamber, Bombay), Mr. P. S. Sodhbans (Indian Chamber of Commerce, Lahore), Mr. Vidya Sagar Pandya, M.L.A. (Southern Indian Chamber of Commerce, Madras.)

Honorary Treasurers.—Mr D. P. Khaitan (Indian Chamber of Commerce, Calcutta), Sir Hari Sanker Paul, Kt., M.L.C. (Bengal National Chamber of Commerce, Calcutta).

Co-opted Members.—Seth Haji Abdoola Haroon, M.L.A., Karachi, Mr. B. Das, M.L.A., Cuttack, Rai Upendra Lal Roy Bahadur, Chittagong, Mr. Chunilal B. Mehta, Bombay, Mr. Amrit Lal Ojha, Calcutta, Mr. M. Muhammad Ismail, Madras.

Secretary.—Mr. D. G. Mulherkar.

Office address.—Pankore's Naka, Ahmedabad.

Telegraphic address.—Unicomind, Ahmedabad.

BENGAL.

The Bengal Chamber of Commerce was founded in 1834. Its headquarters are in Calcutta. Other societies connected with the trade and commerce of the city are the Royal Exchange, the Bengal Bonded Warehouse Association, the Calcutta Trades Association, the Bengal National Chamber of Commerce and the Marwari Chamber of Commerce. The Bengal Chamber is registered with a declaration of membership of 300. Its objects are the usual purposes connected with the protection of trade "in particular in Calcutta." There are two classes of members. Permanent (Chamber and Associated) and Honorary.

Merchants, bankers, shipowners, representatives of commercial, railway and insurance companies, brokers, persons and firms engaged in commerce, agriculture, mining or manufacture, and joint stock companies or other corporations, formed for any purpose or object connected with commerce, agriculture, mining or manufacture, and persons engaged in or connected with art, science or literature, may be elected as permanent members of the Chamber.

The following are the office bearers of the Chamber for the year 1933-34 :—

President.—Mr. J. S. Henderson, (Messrs. Mackinnnon, Mackenzie & Co.)

Vice-President.—Mr. J. Reid Kay, (Messrs. James Finlay & Co., Ltd.)

Members.—Mr. Alec. Aikman, (Messrs. Andrew Yule & Co.); Mr. H. F. Bateman, (Messrs. Shaw, Wallace & Co.); The Hon'ble Sir E. C. Benthall, (Messrs. Bird & Co.); Mr. R. D. Cromartie, (The Mercantile Bank of India, Ltd.); Mr. H. A. M. Hannay, (Agent, Eastern Bengal Railway.); Mr. L. V. Heathcote, (The Burma-Shell Oil Storage & Distributing Co. of India, Ltd.); Mr. R. A. Towler, (Messrs. McLeod & Co.).

The Secretary of the Chamber is Mr. A. C. Daniel. Assistant Secretary, Mr. D. C. Fairbairn.

The following are the public bodies (among others) to which the Chamber has the right of

returning representatives, and the representatives returned, for the current year.

The Council of State.—The Hon'ble Mr. J. S. Henderson.

The Bengal Legislative Council.—Mr. G. R. Dain, C.I.E., (Calcutta Tramways Co. Ltd.); Mr. H. H. Burn, (McLeod & Co.); Mr. C. R. Sunover, (Kilburn & Co.); Mr. C. C. Miller, (Hoare Miller & Co. Ltd.); Mr. W. H. Thompson, (Bengal Telephone); Mr. Henry Birkmyre, (Birkmyre Brothers).

The Calcutta Port Trust.—Mr. M. A. Hughes, (Turner Morrison & Co. Ltd.); Mr. S. D. Gladstone, (Gillanders Arbuthnot & Co.); Mr. G. R. Campbell, Mackinnon, (Mackenzie & Co., Ltd.); Mr. A. L. B. Tucker, (Kilburn & Co.); Mr. K. J. Nicolson, (Gladstone, Wyllie & Co.); Mr. J. Reid Kay, (James Finlay & Co., Ltd.).

The Calcutta Municipal Corporation.—Mr. F. Rooney, (Bengal Telephone Co., Ltd.); Mr. G. U. Pottinger, (Burmah-Shell); Mr. N. G. Herbert, (Imperial Chemical Industries Co. Ltd.); Mr. A. M. Playfair, (Macneill & Co.); Mr. C. H. Holmes, (Holmes Wilson & Co. Ltd.); Mr. K. G. Sillar, (Calcutta Electric Supply Corporation Ltd.).

The Board of Trustees for the Improvement of Calcutta.—Mr. W. H. Thompson, M.L.C. (Bengal Telephone Co., Ltd.)

The Bengal Boiler Commission.—Mr. W. Gow, (Burn & Co. Ltd.); Mr. H. H. Reynolds, M.I.E. (Ind.), M.I.E.E.; Mr. J. Williamson, M.I.E. (Ind.), M.I.E.E.

The Bengal Smoke Nuisances Commission :—Mr. E. J. R. Gardiner; Mr. G. Y. Robertson.

The Chamber elects representatives to various other bodies of less importance, such as the committee of the Calcutta Sailors' Home, and to numerous subsidiary associations. The following are the recognised associations of the Bengal Chamber of Commerce :—

Calcutta Grain Oilseed and Rice Association, Indian Jute Mills Association, Indian Tea Association, Calcutta Tea Traders' Association, Calcutta Fire Insurance Association, Calcutta Import Trade Association, Calcutta Marine Insurance Association, The Wine, Spirit and Beer Association of India, Indian Mining Association, Calcutta Baled Jute Association, Indian Paper Makers' Association, Indian Engineering Association, Calcutta Jute Fabrics Shippers' Association, Calcutta Hydraulic Press Association, Jute Fabric Brokers' Association, Calcutta Baled Jute Shippers' Association, Calcutta Jute Dealers, Association, Calcutta Hides and Skins Shippers, Association, Calcutta Sugar Importers' Association, Calcutta Accident Insurance Association, Calcutta Flour Mills' Association, Calcutta River Transport Association, and the Masters' Stevedores' Association.

The Chamber maintains a Tribunal of Arbitration for the determination, settlement and adjustment of disputes and differences relating to trade, business, manufactures, and to customs of trade, between parties, all or any of whom reside or carry on business personally or by agent or otherwise in Calcutta, or elsewhere in India or Burmah, by whomsoever of such parties the said disputes and differences be submitted. The Secretary of the Chamber acts as the Registrar of the Tribunal, which consists of such members or assistants to members as may, from time to time, annually or otherwise be selected by the Registrar and willing to serve on the Tribunal. The Registrar from time to time makes a list of such members and assistants.

The Chamber also maintains a Licensed Measurers Department controlled by a special committee. It includes a Superintendent (Mr. R. Ellis), Head Office Manager (Mr. C. G. Smith) and Assistant Superintendents (Messrs. J. G. Smyth G. C. G. Smyth, J. B. F. Henfrey and B. Perry), and the staff at the time of the last official returns consisted of 100 officers. The usual system of work for the benefit of the trade of the port is followed. The Department has its own provident fund and compassionate funds and Measurers' Club. The Chamber does not assist in the preparation of official statistical returns. It publishes weekly the *Calcutta Prices Current*, and also publishes a large number of statistical circulars of various descriptions in addition to a monthly abstract of proceedings and many other circulars on matters under discussion.

INDIAN CHAMBER OF COMMERCE, CALCUTTA.

The Indian Chamber of Commerce was established in November 1925 to promote and protect the trade, commerce and industries of India and in particular the trade, commerce and industries in or with which Indians are engaged or concerned; to aid and stimulate the development of trade, commerce and industries in India with capital principally provided by or under the management of Indians; to watch over and protect the general commercial interests of India or any part thereof, and the interests of persons, in particular the Indians, engaged in trade, commerce or industries in India; to adjust controversies between members of this Chamber; to arbitrate in the settlement of disputes arising out of commercial transactions between parties willing or agreeing to abide by the judgment and decision of the Tribunal of the Chamber; to promote and advance commercial and technical education and such study of different branches of Art and Science as may tend to develop trade, commerce and industries in India; to provide, regulate and maintain a suitable building or room or suitable buildings or rooms for a Commercial Exchange in Calcutta; and to do all such other things as may be conducive to the development of trade, commerce and industries, or incidental to attainment of the above objects or any of them.

There are two classes of Members, local and mofussil. The local Members pay an annual subscription of Rs. 100 and the Mofussil

members Rs. 50. Merchants, Bankers, Shipowners, representatives of commercial, transport or insurance companies, brokers and persons engaged in commerce, agriculture, mining or manufacture, and persons engaged in or connected with art, science or literature who are Indians shall be eligible for election as members of the Chamber.

The following constitute the Managing Committee of the Chamber for the year 1933 :—

President.—Mr. A. L. Ojha.

Senior Vice-President.—Mr. K. L. Jatia.

Vice-President.—J. P. Dutia.

Members.—G. D. Birla ; Mr. D. P. Khaitan Mr. S. K. Bhatter; Mr. Faizulla Gangjee ; Mr G. L. Mehta ; Mr. Mohanlal Lallubhai ; Mr. M. K. Powvala ; Mr. N. L. Pun ; Mr. K. J. Purohit ; Mr. C. K. Parekh ; Mr. Anandji Haridas ; Mr. H. P. Bagaria ; Mr. Kassim A. Mohamed ; Mr. Habib Mohamed ; Mr. Kedarnath Khandelwal ; Mr. Gourishanker Dalmiya ; Mr. S. B. Sen and Dr. M. Sanyal.

Secretary.—Mr. M. P. Gandhi, M.A., F.R.E.S., F.S.S.

The following Associations are affiliated with the Chamber :—Indian Sugar Mills' Association, Jute Balers' Association, Indian Produce Association, East India Jute Association, Indian Merchants' Association, Calcutta Rice Merchants' Association, Calcutta Kirana Association, Bengal Jute Dealers' Association, Gunny Trades Association and Shareholders' Association.

The Indian Chamber of Commerce also appointed in 1927 a Tribunal of Arbitration to arbitrate in all disputes relating to various trades. With a view to cover the varying nature of disputes arising in different trades, separate panels of Arbitration are appointed on the Tribunal of Arbitration for each of the following trades :—(1) Jute, (2) Gunny, (3) Piecegoods and Yarn, (4) Iron and Steel, (5) Coal and Minerals, (6) General.

Chamber's representatives on—

Calcutta Port Commissioners : Mr. G. L. Mehta.

Bengal Nagpur Railway Local Advisory Committee : Mr. K. J. Purohit.

East Indian Railway Local Advisory Committee : Mr. D. P. Khaitan.

Eastern Bengal Local Advisory Committee : Mr. R. Chakravarty.

Board of Apprenticeship Training : Mr. A. L. Ojha.

Railway Rates Advisory Committee : Messrs. Anandji Haridas, H. P. Bagaria, G. D. Birla, Faizulla Gangjee and D. P. Khaitan.

Calcutta Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Animals : Mr. Kassim A. Mohamed.

Bengal Conciliation Panel : Messrs. D. P. Khaitan, Anandji Haridas, and N. Rajabally.

Bengal Pilotage Dues Committee : Mr. K. J. Purohit.

Chamber's Auditors : Messrs. S. R. Batliboi & Co.

INTERNATIONAL CHAMBER OF COMMERCE, INDIAN NATIONAL COMMITTEE, BOMBAY.

The Indian National Committee of the International Chamber of Commerce was established for the following purposes in the year 1928 :—

(*a*) To participate in the promotion of the objects for which the International Chamber of Commerce, hereinafter called the "International Chamber", is established, namely :

(*i*) To facilitate the commercial intercourse of countries.

(*ii*) To secure harmony of action on all international questions affecting finance, industry and commerce.

(*iii*) To encourage progress and to promote peace and cordial relations among countries and their citizens by the co-operation of business men and organizations devoted to the development of commerce and industry.

The Indian National Committee has on its roll 40 commercial bodies as Organisation Members and 60 commercial firms as Associate Members.

OFFICE-BEARERS FOR THE YEAR 1933.

President.—Lala Shri Ram.

Vice-President.—Mr. Hooseinbhoy A. Lalljee.

Members of the Executive Committee.—Mr. Kasturbhai Lalbhai (Ahmedabad Millowners' Association, Ahmedabad) ; Mr. Walchand Hirachand (Maharashtra Chamber of Commerce, Bombay) ; Sir Purshotamdas Thakurdas, Kt., C.I.E., M.B.E. (Indian Merchants' Chamber, Bombay) ; Mr. G. D. Birla, (Federation of Indian Chambers of Commerce and Industry) ; Mr. D. P. Khaitan, (Federation of Indian Chambers of Commerce and Industry) ; Mr. Nalini Ranjan Sarker (Bengal National Chamber of Commerce, Calcutta) ; Mr. Amritlal Ojha, (Indian Chamber of Commerce, Calcutta) ; Mr. Chunilal B. Mehta, (Bombay Bullion Exchange, Bombay) ; Mr. Fakirjee Cowasjee (Federation of Indian Chambers of Commerce and Industry) ; Mr. Mohamed Ismail, (Federation of Indian Chambers of Commerce and Industry) ; Mr. Mathuradas Vissanji, (Federation of Indian Chambers of Commerce and Industry) ; and L. Padampat Singhania (Merchants' Chamber of United Provinces, Cawnpore).

Co-opted.—Mr. B. Das, M.L.A., Mr. Ebrahim G. Currimbhoy, Raja Ratna Sheth Bhailalbhai D. Amin, Mr. M. A. Master and Mr. M. L. Dahanukar.

Ex-Officio.—Mr. D. S. Erulkar and Mr. K. P. Mehta (Representatives on the Council of the International Chamber of Commerce).

Honorary Treasurer.—Mr. R. L. Nopany.

Secretary.—Mr. J. K. Mehta.

Assistant Secretary.—A. C. Ramalingham.

BOMBAY.

The object and duties of the Bombay Chamber, as set forth in their Memorandum and Articles of Association, are to encourage a friendly feeling and unanimity among commercial men on all subjects involving their common good; to promote and protect the general mercantile interests of this Presidency; to collect and classify information on all matters of general commercial interest; to obtain the removal, as far as such a Society can, of all acknowledged grievances affecting merchants as a body, or mercantile interests in general; to receive and decide references on matters of usage and custom in dispute, recording such decisions for future guidance, and by this and such other means, as the Committee for the time being may think fit, assisting to form a code of practice for simplifying and facilitating business; to communicate with the public authorities, with similar Associations in other places and with individuals, on all subjects of general mercantile interests; and to arbitrate between parties willing to refer to, and abide by, the judgment of the Chamber.

The Bombay Chamber was established in 1836, under the auspices of Sir Robert Grant, who was then Governor of the Presidency, and the programme described above was embodied in their first set of rules. According to the latest returns, the number of Chamber members is 186. Of these numbers 20 represent banking institutions, 11 shipping agencies and commanies, 3 firms of solicitors, 3 railway companies, 12 insurance companies, 17 engineers and contractors, 130 firms engaged in general mercantile business.

All persons engaged or interested in mercantile pursuits desirous of joining the Chamber and disposed to aid in carrying its objects into effect are eligible for election to membership by ballot. The Chamber member's subscription is Rs. 360. Gentlemen distinguished for public services, or "eminent in commerce and manufactures," may be elected honorary members and as such are exempt from paying subscriptions. Any stranger engaged or interested in mercantile pursuits and visiting the Presidency may be introduced as a visitor by any Member of the Chamber inserting his name in a book to be kept for the purpose, but a residence of two months shall subject him to the rule for the admission of members.

Officers of the Year.

The affairs and funds of the Chamber are managed by a committee of nine ordinary members, consisting of the President and Vice-President and seven members. The committee must, as a rule, meet at least once a week and the minutes of its proceedings are open to inspection by all members of the Chamber, subject to such regulations as the committee may make in regard to the matter. A general meeting of the Chamber must be held once a year and ten or more members may requisition, through the officers of the Chamber, a special meeting at any time, for specific purpose.

The Chamber elects representatives as follows to various public bodies:—

The Council of State, one representative.
Legislative Council of the Governor of Bombay, two representatives.
Bombay Municipal Corporation, one member, elected for three years.
Bombay Improvements Committee, one member, elected for two years.
Board of Trustees of the Port of Bombay, five members, elected for two years.

The following are the officers of the Chamber for the year 1934-35 and their representatives on the various public bodies:—

President.—G. L. Winterbotham, Esq.
Vice-President.—A. McIntosh, Esq.
Committee.—E. J. Bunbury, Esq.; G. H. Cooke, Esq.; N. S. Golder, Esq.; L. A. Halsall, Esq.; A. K. G. Hogg, Esq.; W. M. Petrie, Esq.; G. C. Phillips, Esq.
Secretary.—R. J. F. Sulivan, Esq.
Asst. Secretary.—H. Royal, Esq.
Representatives on—
Council of State: The Hon'ble Mr. E. Miller.
Bombay Legislative Council.—J. B. Greaves, Esq., M.L.C.; G. L. Winterbotham, Esq., M.L.C.
Bombay Port Trust.—W. M. Petrie, G. H. Cooke, Esq.; T. E. Cunningham, Esq.; G. L. Winterbotham, Esq.; E. C. Reid, Esq.
Bombay Improvements Committee: R. H. Parker, Esq.
Bombay Municipal Coporation: Alwyn Ezra, Esq.
Sydenham College of Commerce Advisory Board: R. L. Ferard, Esq. and A. G. Gray, Esq.
Bombay Smoke Nuisances Commission: R. H. F. Milne, Esq.
Persian Gulf Lights Committee: J. C. Reed, Esq.
St. George's Hospital Advisory Committee: F. B. Thornely, Esq.
Governor's Hospital Fund: C. N. Moberly, Esq., C.I.E.
Indian Central Cotton Committee: Sir Joseph Kay, Kt.
Empire Cotton Growing Corporation: Sir Joseph Kay, Kt.
Back Bay Reclamation Scheme—Standing Advisory Committee and Lay-out Committee: The Hon. Mr. E. Miller.
Auxiliary Force Advisory Committee: Colonel W. T. C. Huffam.
Ex-Services Association: G. L. Winterbotham, Esq., M.L.C. (*Ex-officio*).
Bombay Seamen's Society: R. J. F. Sulivan, Esq.
Federation of Chambers of Commerce of the British Empire: Sir Malcolm Hogg, Kt.
Railway Advisory Committees—
G. I. P.: L. A. Halsall, Esq.
B. B. & C. I.: L. A. Halsall, Esq.
Bombay Telephone Company, Ltd.: G. L. Winterbotham, Esq.
Railway Rates Advisory Committee: G. C. R. Coleridge, Esq.; L. A. Halsall, Esq.; J. F. Macdonell, Esq.; The Hon. Mr. E. Miller; C. J. Damala, Esq.
Government of Bombay Road Board: The Hon'ble Mr. E. Miller.
Bombay University: G. L. Winterbotham, Esq., M.L.C.

Special Work.

One of the most important functions performed by the Chamber is that of arbitration in commercial disputes. Rules for this have been in existence for many years and have worked most satisfactorily. The decisions are in all cases given by competent arbitrators appointed by the General Committee of the Chamber and the system avoids the great expense of resort to the Law Courts.

A special department of the Bombay Chamber is its Statistical Department, which prepares a large amount of statistical returns connected with the trade of the port and of great importance to the conduct of commerce. The department consists of fourteen Indian clerks who, by the authority of Government, work in the Customs House and have every facility placed at their disposal by the Customs authorities. They compile all the statistical information in connection with the trade of the port, in both export and import divisions, which it is desirable to record. No other Chamber in India does similar work to the same extent.

The Bombay Chamber publishes a Daily Arrival Return which shows the receipts into Bombay of cotton, wheat and seeds, and a Daily Trade Return, which deals with trade by sea and shows in great detail imports of various kinds of merchandise and of treasure, while the same return contains particulars of the movements of merchant vessels.

The Chamber publishes twice a week detailed reports known as Import and Export manifests, which give particulars of the cargo carried by each steamer to and from Bombay.

Three statements are issued once a month. One shows the quantity of exports of cotton seeds and wheat from the principal ports of the whole of India. The second gives in detail imports from Europe, more particularly in regard to grey cloths, bleached cloths, Turkey red and scarlet cloths, printed and dyed goods, fancy cloth of various descriptions, woollens, yarns, metals, kerosene oil, coal, aniline dyes, sugar, matches, wines and other sundry goods. The third shows, classified, the number of packages of piece-goods and yarns imported by individual merchants.

The "Weekly Return" issued by the Chamber shows clearances of a large number of important designations of merchandise. A return of "Current Quotations" is issued once a week, on the day of the departure of the English mail, and shows the rates of exchange for Bank and Mercantile Bills on England and Paris, and a large quantity of general banking and trade information.

The annual reports of the Chamber are substantial tones in which the whole of the affairs of the Chamber and the trade of the port during the past year are reviewed.

The Chamber has also a Measurement Department with a staff of 10, whose business is that of actual measurement of exports in the docks before loading in steamers. Certificates are issued by these officers with the authority of the Chamber to shippers and ship agents as to the measurement of cotton and other goods in bales or packages. The measurers are in attendance on the quays whenever there are goods to be measured and during the busy season are on duty early and late. The certificates granted show the following details:—

(*a*) The date, hour and place of measurement.
(*b*) the name of the shipper;
(*c*) the name of the vessel;
(*d*) the port of destination;
(*e*) the number and description of packages:
(*f*) the marks;
(*g*) the measurement, and in the case of goods shipped by boats;
(*h*) the registered number of the boat;
(*i*) the name of the tindal.

Certificates of weight and of origin are also issued by the Chamber.

Associated Chamber of Commerce of India.

HEAD OFFICE LOCATED IN CALCUTTA FOR 1933.

President: The Hon. Sir E. C. Benthall.

Millowners' Association, Bombay.

The Millowners' Association, Bombay, was established in 1875 and its objects are as follows:—

(*a*) To encourage friendly feeling and unanimity amongst Millowners and users of steam water and/or electric power on all subjects connected with their common good.
(*b*) To secure good relations between members of the Association.
(*c*) To promote and protect the trade, commerce and manufactures of India in general and of the cotton trade in particular.
(*d*) To consider questions connected with the trade, commerce and manufactures of its members.
(*e*) To collect and circulate statistics and to collect, classify and circulate information relating to the trade, commerce and manufactures of its members.

Any individual partnership or company owning one or more mill or mills or one or more press or presses or one or more ginning or other factory or factories actuated by steam, water, electric and/or other power is eligible for membership, members being elected by ballot. Every member is entitled to one vote for every complete sum of Rs. 50 paid by him as annual subscription.

The membership of the Association in 1933 numbers 100.

The following is the Committee for 1934:—
H. P. Mody, Esq., M.L.A., (*Chairman*), H. H. Sawyer, Esq., (*Dy. Chairman*), Sir Ness Wadia, K.B.E., C.I.E., Sir Dinshaw E. Wacha, Kt., Sir Munmohands Ramji, Kt., Sir Chunilal Mehta, K.C.S.I., C.I.E., Sir N. B. Saklatvala, Kt., C.I.E., T. V. Baddeley, Esq., F. E. Dinshaw, Esq., A. Geddis, Esq., H. H. Lakin, Esq., Lalji Naranji, Esq., H. F. Milne, Esq., Dharamsi Mulraj Khatau, Esq., Ratansi D. Morarji, Esq., Albert Raymond, Esq., S. D. Saklatvala, Esq., V. N. Chandavarkar, Esq., F. Stones, Esq., O.B.E., Madhavji D. Thackersey, Esq., and T. Maloney, Esq., (*Secretary*).

The following are the Association's Representatives on public bodies:—
Legislative Assembly: Mr. H. P. Mody, M.L.A.

Bombay Legislative Council: Mr. J. B. Petit.

Bombay Port Trust: Mr. A. Geddis.

Victoria Jubilee Technical Institute: Mr. V. N. Chandavarkar.

Bombay Smoke Nuisances Commission: Messrs. W. F. Webb and W. A. Sutherland.

Advisory Board of Sydenham College of Commerce and Economics: Mr. Dharamsi Mulraj Khatau.

Central Cotton Committee: Mr. S. D. Saklatvala.

Development of Bombay Advisory Committee: Mr. Jehangir B. Petit.

G. I. P. Railway Advisory Committee: Mr. A. Geddis.

B. B. & C. I. Railway Advisory Committee: Mr. H. P. Mody.

Bombay Municipal Corporation: Mr. H. P. Mody.

University of Bombay: Mr. Jehangir B. Petit.

Royal Institute of Science: Mr. H. P. Mody.

The Office of the Association is located at 2nd Floor, Patel House, Churchgate Street, Fort, Bombay, and the telephone number is 25350.

Millowners' Mutual Insurance Association, Ltd.

The Millowners' Mutual Insurance Association, Ltd., was registered on 30th June 1924, as a Company limited by guarantee. The registered office of the Association is located in Patel House, Churchgate Street, Fort, Bombay.

The objects of the Association are:—

(*a*) The mutual insurance of members of the Company against liability to pay compensation or damages to workmen employed by them or their dependants for injuries or accidents, fatal or otherwise, arising out of and in the course of their employment; (*b*) the insurance of members of the Company against loss or damage by or incidental to fire, lightning, etc.; and (*c*) to reinsure or in any way provide for or against the liability of the Company upon any assurances granted or entered into by the Company and generally to effect and obtain re-insurances, counterinsurances and counter-guarantees, etc., etc., etc.

The Association consisted of 56 members on 1st October, 1933.

All members of the Millowners' Association are eligible for admission to the Mutual Company. Non-members are also eligible for membership of the Mutual, provided their application is approved of by the Committee of the Millowners' Association.

The affairs of the Mutual Insurance Association are under the control of a Board of Directors.

The present Directors are:—

Mr. A. Geddis (*Chairman*).

The Hon'ble Sir Munmohandas Ramji, Kt., Sir Ness Wadia, K.B.E., C.I.E., Sir Joseph Kay, Kt., Sir Chunilal V. Mehta, K.C.S.I., Ratansi D. Morarji, Esq., S. D. Saklatvala, Esq., F. Stones, Esq., O.B.E., and A. C. M. Cursetjee, Esq., M.A., LL.B., Secretary of the Association.

Indian Merchants' Chamber.

The Indian Merchants' Chamber was established in the year 1907. Its objects are:—

(*a*) To encourage friendly feeling and unanimity among business community on all subjects connected with the common good of Indian merchants.

(*b*) To secure organised action on all subjects relating to the interests of the Indian business community directly and indirectly.

(*c*) To promote the objects of the Indian business community in matters of inland and foreign trade, shipping and transport, industry and manufacture, banking and insurance.

(*d*) To collect and disseminate statistical and other information securing the promotion of the objects of the Chamber, and to make efforts for the spread of commercial and economic knowledge.

(*e*) To take all steps which may be necessary for promoting, supporting or opposing legislation or other action affecting the aforesaid interests by the Government or any Department thereof or by any local body or bodies and in general to take the initiative to secure the welfare of the business community in all respects.

(*f*) To make representations to Local, Central or Imperial authorities, Executive or Legislative, on any matter affecting trade, commerce, manufacture or shipping, banking or insurance.

(*g*) To undertake by arbitration the settlement of commercial disputes between merchants and businessmen and also to provide for arbitration in respect of disputes arising in the course of trade, industry or transport, and to secure the services of expert technical and other men to that end if necessary or desirable.

(*h*) To advance and promote commercial and technical education and to found and support establishments and institutions for such purposes.

(*i*) To undertake special enquiries and action for securing redress for legitimate grievances of any branch of trade or industry as also all such other action as may be conducive to the extension of trade, commerce or manufacture or incidental to the attainment of the above objects.

(*j*) To secure the interests and well-being of the Indian business communities abroad.

(*k*) (*i*) To secure, wherever possible, organised and/or concerted action on all subjects involving the interests of members including 'regulating conditions of employment of industrial labour' in various industries represented by the members of the Organisation.

(*iii*) To nominate delegates and advisers, etc., to represent the employers of India at the Annual International Labour Conference of the League of Nations.

(*iii*) To take up, consider and formulate ideas on the subjects which are on the Agenda of each International Labour Conference.

(*iv*) To take all steps which may be necessary for promoting, supporting or opposing recommendations or conventions of the International Labour Conference.

(*l*) And generally to do all that may be necessary in the interests of the realisation of the above objects of the Chamber directly or indirectly.

There are three classes of members:—

(1) Ordinary, (2) Patrons and (3) Honorary.

(1) There are three classes of ordinary members:—

(*a*)—Residents of Bombay and its suburbs who will have to pay Rs. 75 as annual subscription; but joint stock Companies will have to pay Rs. 100 per year.

(*b*)—Mofussil members who will have to pay Rs. 25 as annual subscription.

(*c*)—Associations which will have to pay Rs. 125 as annual subscription.

Admission Fee:—All the ordinary members and patrons pay Rs. 100 as admission fee which is credited to a capital fund of the Chamber and not expended on revenue account except with the consent of the general body.

(2) Patrons:—Indian firms or individual Indian merchants can join as Patrons Firms will have to pay Rs. 5,000 and individuals Rs. 2,500 as donation, the proceeds of which will be credited to a capital fund which shall not be expended on revenue account but the interest whereof shall be taken to revenue account.

(3) Honorary members:—Gentlemen distinguished for public services or eminent in commerce and manufactures or otherwise interested in the aims and objects of the Chamber may be elected as Honorary members by a General Meeting of the Chamber on the recommendation of the Committee and as such shall be exempted from paying subscriptions. They shall not be entitled to vote at any meeting of the Chamber nor shall they be eligible to serve on the Committee.

Any Indian gentleman, firm or association engaged in mercantile pursuits or interested in trade and commerce desirous of joining the Chamber shall be eligible for membership.

The following bodies are connected directly and indirectly with the Chamber:—

The Grain Merchants' Association (which is a member).

The Bombay Rice Merchants' Association.

The Bombay Yarn, Copper and Brass Native Merchants' Association.

The Bombay Shroff Association.

The Bombay Pearl Merchants' and Jewellers' Association.

The Bombay Bullion Exchange, Ltd.

The Japan and Shanghai Silk Merchants' Association, Bombay.

The Sugar Merchants' Association.

The Maharashtra Chamber of Commerce, Bombay.

The Bombay Grain Dealers' Association, Bombay.

The Bombay Glass Bangles Merchants Association, Bombay.

The Bombay Iron Merchants' Association.

The Chamber of Income Tax Consultants.

The Indian National Steamship Owners Association.

The Seeds Traders' Association.

The Indian Insurance Cos.' Association.

The Kariana Merchants' Association.

The Indian Match Manufacturers' Association.

The Coal Merchants' Association.

The Swadeshi Market Committee.

Shree Mahajan Association.

The Gum Merchants' Association.

The Muccadum Association.

The Society of Indian Accountants and Auditors.

Under the Montagu-Chelmsford Reforms, the Chamber has the right of electing one representative on the Indian Legislative Assembly and one on the Bombay Legislative Council. The Chamber also has the right to elect five representatives on the Bombay Port Trust, one representative on the Bombay Municipal Corporation, and one representative on the Improvement Committee.

The following are the Office-bearers of the Indian Merchants' Chamber for the year 1934:—

President.—Seth Mathuradas Vissanji Khimji.

Vice-President.—Mr. Manu Subedar

Members.—Mr. J. C. Setalvad, Mr. A. D. Shroff, Seth Lalji Naranji, Seth Mathuradas Canji Matani, Prof. Khushal T. Shah, Mr. Jal A. D. Naoroji, Mr. Bhavanji A. Khimji, Mr. Velji Lakhamsi Napoo, Prof. Sohrab R. Davar, Mr. Vithaldas D. Govindji, Mr. M. C. Ghia, Mr. Dhirajlal C. Modi, Mr. Amritlal Kalidas, Mr. Nandlal M. Bhuta, Mr. Mangaldas B. Mehta, Mr. E. R. Hirjibehedin, Mr. Sarabhai Prataprai, Seth Walchand Hirachand, Mr. S. N. Pochkhanawalla, Mr. Behram N. Karanjia, Mr. Keshavprasad C. Desai, Mr. Thakorlal H. Vakil, Mr. Hooseinbhoy A. Lalljee.

Co-opted.—Sir Cowasji Jehangir (Jr.), K.C.S.I.; Mr. Rahimtoola M. Chinoy; Mr. Lachhmandas H. Daga; The Bombay Shroff Association, (Mr. Mohanlal A. Parekh); The Sugar Merchants Association, (Mr. Jagjivan Ujamshi Mulji); The Maharashtra Chamber of Commerce, (Mr. M. L. Dahanukar); The Indian Match Manufacturers Association, (Mr. R. N. Futehally); The Bombay Bullion Exchange Ltd., (Mr. Chunilal B. Mehta); The Bombay Grain Dealers Association, (Mr. Khimji M. Bhujpuria); The Bombay Rice Merchants Association, (Mr. Mathuradas C. Matani); The Kariana Merchants

Association, (Mr. D. P. Tata); The Pearl Merchants and Jewellers Association, (Mr. Gulabchand Naginchand); The Swadeshi Market Committee, (Mrs. Lilavati K. Munshi).

Ex-Officio.—Sir Purshotamdas Thakurdas, Kt., C.I.E., M.B.E., (Bombay Port Trust); Mr. L. R. Tairsee, (Bombay Port Trust); Mr. Ratilal M. Gandhi, (Bombay Port Trust); Mr. Gordhandas G. Morarji, (Bombay Port Trust and G. I. P. Railway, Local Advisory Committee); Raja Bahadur Govindlal Shivlal, (Bombay Municipal Corporation); Mr. Nagindas T. Master.(Bombay University Senate); Mr. Kapilram H. Vakil, (Advisory Committee of the Royal Institute of Science); Mr. R. P. Masani, (B. B. & C. I. Railway Local Advisory Committee); Mr. M. A. Master, (Governing Body of the I.M.M.T.S. "Dufferin"); Mr. K. S. Ramachandra Iyer, (Bombay Road Board); Mr. Chunilal B. Mehta, (Indian Central Cotton Committee).

Secretary.—Mr. J. K. Mehta, M.A.

Assistant Secretary.—Mr. A. H. Maru, B.SC. (Nat.), and Mr. A. C. Ramalingham.

The following are the Chamber's representatives on various public bodies:—

Representatives on the Board of Trustees of the Port Trust.—Sir Purshotamdas Thakurdas, C.I.E., M.B.E., (Cotton); Mr. Gordhandas N. Morarjee, (Piecegoods); Mr. Ratilal Gandhi (Grain and Seeds); Mr. A. D. Shroff, (General); Mr. Laxmidas R. Tairsee, (General).

Bombay Municipal Corporation.—Raja Bahadur Govindlal Shivlal.

Advisory Committee of the Bombay Development Department.—Mr. Manu Subedar.

Indian Central Cotton Committee.—Mr. Chunilal B. Mehta.

Advisory Committee of the Royal Institute of Science in Bombay.—Mr. Kapilram H. Vakil.

Local Advisory Committee of Railways:—

G.I.P. Railway.—Mr. Gordhandas G. Morarjee.

B. B. & C. I. Railway.—Mr. R. P. Masani.

Railway Rates Advisory Committee.—Sir Purshotamdas Thakurdas, Kt., C.I.E., M.B.E.; Sir Mammohandas Ramji, Kt.; The Hon'ble Sir Phiroze C. Sethna, O.B.E.; Mr. Manu Subedar; Mr. K. H. Vakil.

Governing Body of the Indian Mercantile Marine Training Ship 'Dufferin'.—Mr. M. A. Master.

Senate of the Bombay University.—Mr. Nagindas T. Master.

Traffic Control Committee (Bombay).—Mr. L. R. Tairsee.

Bombay Road Board.—Mr. K. S. R. Iyer.

Indian Sailors Home Committee.—Mr. M. A. Master.

Bombay Piece-Goods Native Merchants' Association.

The objects of the Association are as follows:—

(*a*) To promote by creating friendly feelings and unity amongst the merchants, the business of the piece-goods trade in general at Bombay, and to protect the interest thereof; (*b*) to remove as far as it will be within the powers of the Association to do so, all the trade difficulties of the piece-goods business and to frame such line of conduct as will facilitate the trade; (*c*) to collect and assort statistics relating to piece-goods and to correspond with public bodies on matters affecting trade, and which may be deemed advisable for the protection and advancement of objects of the Association or any of them; and (*d*) to hear and decide disputes that may be referred to for arbitration.

The following are the office-bearers for the current year:—

Chairman.—Sir Mammohandas Ramj, Kt., J.P.

Deputy Chairman.—Mr. Harjivan Valji.

Secretary.—Mr Matharadas Haribhai, J.P.

Hon. Treasurer.—Mr. Mulji Laxmidas.

Grain Merchants' Association.

The object of this body is "to promote the interests of the merchants and to put the grain and oil-seeds trade on a sound footing." It is an influential body or large membership. The office holders for the current year are as follows:—

Chairman.—Mr. Velji Lakhamsi, B.A., LL.B.

Vice-Chairman.—Mr. Ratansi Hirji.

Hony. Secretary.—Mr. Lakhamsi Ghelabhai.

Secretary.—Mr. Uttaram Ambaram, B.A., LL.B.

Hon. Secretary.—Mr. Jadavji Visanji.

Acting Secretary.—Mr. Ganpatram Narottam Raval.

The address of the Association is 262, Masjid Bunder Road, Mandvi Post, Bombay.

MAHARASHTRA CHAMBER OF COMMERCE.

The Maharashtra Chamber of Commerce was started in September 1927 with the object of establishing friendly relations among merchants and factory-owners of Maharashtra, safeguarding their interests against measures likely to affect them adversely, collecting financial, industrial and trade statistics, and disseminating information thereabout amongst members of the Chamber.

Membership of the Chamber is confined to merchants and factory-owners belonging to the City of Bombay, Bombay Suburban District, Poona, Sholapur, Satara, Ratnagiri, Kolaba, Nasik, Ahmednagar, Thana and East and West Khandesh and Belgaum and Indian States adjoining these districts.

President: Mr. Walchand Hirachand.

Vice-Presidents: R. B. Hanamantram Ramnath, R. B. Laxman Vishwanath Pophale, Mr. M. L. Dahanukar.

Secretary:—Mr. D. V. Kelkar, M.A.

The offices of the Chamber are in the Phoenix Building, Graham Road, Ballard Estate, Bombay

KARACHI.

The objects and duties of the Karachi Chamber of Commerce are set forth in terms similar to those of Bombay. Qualifications for membership are also similar. Honorary Membership may be conferred by the Committee upon "any gentlemen interested in the affairs and objects of the Chamber." All new members joining the Chamber pay Rs. 750 entrance fee and the monthly subscription is Rs. 18. The subscription to the Chamber's periodical returns is at present fixed at Rs. 10 per month for the Daily Trade Return & Rs. 10 per annum for the Weekly Price Current and Market Report. The affairs of the Chamber are managed by a committee of ten members, consisting of a Chairman, Vice-Chairman and eight members, elected at the annual general meeting of the Chamber as early in the year as possible. The Chamber elects a representative on the Bombay Legislative Council, four representatives on the Karachi Port Trust, two on the Karachi Municipality and two on the North Western Railway Advisory Committee, Karachi. There were 63 members of the Chamber in January 1934. The following were the officers in 1933 :—

Chairman :—Mr. R. H. Martin, (Forbes, Forbes, Campbell & Co., Ltd.)

Vice-Chairman.—Mr. J. W. Anderson, (Grahams Trading Co. (India), Ltd.)

Members of Committee :—Mr. L. C. Buss, (Burmah-Shell Oil Storage and Distributing Co. of India, Ltd.); Mr. A. D. Finney, (Mackinnon, Mackenzie & Co.); Mr. T. C. Hales, (North-Western Railway); Mr. F. H. Johnston (National Bank of India, Ltd.); Mr. G. N. R. Morgan, (Bombay Co., Ltd.); Mr. W. Reid, (David Sassoon & Co., Ltd.); Mr. T. M. Zoures, (Ralli Brothers, Ltd.); Mr. C. Voegeli, (Volkart Brothers).

Representative on the Bombay Legislative Council : Mr. J. Humphrey, O.B.E.

Representatives on the Karachi Port Trust: Messrs. H. S. Bigg-Wither, O.B.E., G. H. Raschen; J. W. Anderson and W. D. Young.

Representatives on the Karachi Municipality: Mr. A. A. L. Hynn & Mr. G. A. Johnstone.

Representatives on the North Western Railway Local Advisory Committee, Karachi : Messrs. R. H. Martin and L. Reid.

Ag. Secretary :—Mr. H. M. Gomes.

Ag. Public Measurer :—Mr. J. G. Smith.

The following are the principal ways in which the Chamber gives special assistance to members :—The Committee take into consideration and give an opinion upon questions submitted by members regarding the custom of the trade or of the Port of Karachi. The Committee undertake to nominate arbitrators and surveyors for the settlements of disputes. When two members of the Chamber or when one member and a party who is not a member have agreed to refer disputes to the arbitration of the Chamber or of an arbitrator or arbitrators nominated by the Chamber, the Committee will undertake to nominate an arbitrator or arbitrators, under certain regulations. Similarly, the Chamber, under certain regulations, will undertake to appoint an arbitrator or arbitrators for the settlement of disputes in which neither of the parties are members of the Chamber. A public measurer is appointed under the authority of the Chamber to measure pressed bales of cotton, wool, hides and other merchandise arriving at or leaving the port.

MADRAS.

The Madras Chamber of Commerce was founded in 1836. All merchants and other persons engaged or interested in the general trade, commerce and manufactures of Madras are eligible for membership. Any assistant signing a firm or signing *per-pro* for a firm is eligible. Members who are absent from Madras but pay their subscriptions may be represented in the Chamber by their powers-of-attorney, as honorary members, subject to ballot. Honorary members thus elected are entitled to the full privilege of ordinary members. Election for membership is by ballot at a general meeting, a majority of two-thirds of the recorded votes being necessary to secure election. Every member pays an entrance fee of Rs. 100, provided that banks, corporate bodies and mercantile firms may be represented on the Chamber by one or more members and are liable for an entrance fee of Rs. 100 once in ten years each. The subscriptions shall not exceed Rs. 300 per annum, payable quarterly in advance, subject to reduction from time to time in accordance with the state of the Chambers' finances. Absentees in Europe pay no subscription and members temporarily absent from Madras pay one rupee per month. Honorary members are admissible to the Chamber on the usual conditions. Members becoming insolvent cease to be members but are eligible for re-election without repayment of the entrance donation.

The Chamber undertakes arbitrations and surveys, the granting of certificates of origin and the registration of trade marks. One of the rules for the last named is "that no trade mark or ticket shall be registered on behalf of an Indian firm trading under a European name."

The following publications are issued by the Chamber :—Madras Price Current and Market Report, Tonnage Schedule and Madras Landing Charges and Harbour Dues Schedule.

There are 58 members and 6 Honorary Members of the Chamber in the current year and the Officers and Committee for the year are as follows :—

Chairman : Mr. W. M. Browning.

Vice-Chairman : Mr. F. Birley, M.L.C.

Committee :—Messrs. G. A. Bambridge, H. N. Colam, R. A. Gray, G. H. Hodgson and A. S. Todd.

The following are bodies to which the Chamber is entitled to elect representatives and the representatives elected for the year :—

Madras Legislative Council: Mr. F. Birley, M.L.C.

Madras Port Trust: Messrs. W. M. Browning, R. D. Denniston, and A. S. Todd, *Vacant*.

Corporation of Madras: Messrs. F. E. James, A. J. Powell and A. G. Vere.

Federation of Chamber of Commerce of the British Empire: Sir Gordon Fraser.

Secretary: G. Gompertz.

SOUTHERN INDIA.

The Southern India Chamber of Commerce established in 1909 has its Registered Office in Madras. The objects of the Chamber are those usual for such bodies, concerning the promotion of trade, especially in the Madras Presidency, and the interests of members. Special objects are stated to be:—

"To maintain a Library of books and publications of commercial interest, so as to diffuse commercial information and knowledge amongst its members.

"To establish Museums of commercial products or organise exhibitions, either on behalf of the Chamber or in co-operation with others."

There are two classes of members, permanent and honorary. The usual conditions as to eligibility for election prevail.

The Chamber is a member of the Federation of Indian Chambers of Commerce, the Indian Chamber of Commerce in Great Britain, and the Indian National Committee of the International Chamber of Commerce, Paris.

The Chamber registers trade marks, holds survey and arbitrations, and issues certificates of origin.

The right of electing two representatives to the Madras Port Trust was accorded to the Chamber by the Madras Port Trust Amendment Act, 1915. Members of the Chamber hold seats in the Madras Legislative Council and the Chamber has also been accorded the right of electing a representative to that body. Under the Madras City Municipal Act, 1919, the Chamber has the right of electing two Councillors to the Madras Corporation. Under the State Aid to Industries Act, 1923, the Chamber has the right to elect one member to the Board of Industries.

The Chamber also sends its representatives to the Road Board, the Town Planning Trust, the Provincial Cotton Committee, Vizagapatam Harbour Works Committee, the Advisory Committees of the South Indian and Madras and Southern Mahratta Railways, the Madras University, the Government Institute of Commerce Advisory Council, Madras, the Social Hygiene Council (Madras Branch), the Annamalai University, State Technical Scholarship Board, Advisory Committees of the Government, Rayapuram and Ophthalmic Hospital and Madras Electric Supply and Tramways Advisory Committee, Income-tax Board of Referees, and Indian Institute of Accountants.

The Chamber has 435 members on the roll and has its own building. Several Associations in the City of Madras and Chambers of Commerce Upcountry have been affiliated to this Chamber.

President.—Mr. Jamal Mahomed Saib.

Vice-Presidents.—Dewan Bahadur Govindas Chathoorbhujadas and Mr. C. Gopal Menon.

Honorary Secretaries.— Khan Bahadur Adam Hajee Md. Sait and Mr. K. K. Streenivasam.

Assistant Secretary.—P. R. Nair, B.A., B.Com.

NORTHERN INDIA.

Northern India Chamber of Commerce, *C. & M. Gazette* Building, The Mall, Lahore.

Chairman: Hon'ble Rai Bahadur L. Ram Saran Das, C.I.E., M.C.S.

Vice Chairman: L. T. R. Rickford.

Committee: Mr. Binda Saran; Mr. C. C. T. Brereton, M.B.E.,; Rai Bahadur Bawa Dinga Singh; Mr. W. H. Grice; Mr. P. H. Guest; Dewan Bahadur Dewan Krishna Kishore Dahriwala; C. G. C. Redman; Mr. H. J. Rustomji; Mr. J. C. F. Davidson; Mr. L. R. Sahni; Mr. Sapuran Singh; Professor W. Roberts, B.Sc.

Chamber Members: Spedding Dinga Singh & Co., Lahore; Gillanders Arbuthnot & Co., Lahore; *Civil and Military Gazette*, Lahore; Allahabad Bank Ltd., Lahore; Dinanath Sheopershad, Lahore; Bird & Co., Lahore; H. J. Rustomji, Lahore; Col. E. H. Cole, C.B., C.M.G., Okara; B. C. G. A. (Punjab), Ltd., Khanewal; Bharat Insurance Co., Ltd., Lahore; Jallo Resin Factory, Lahore; National Bank of India Ltd., Lahore; Attock Oil Co., Ltd., Rawalpindi; Central Bank of India, Ltd., Lahore; Rai Bahadur Mela Ram's Sons, Lahore; Murree Brewery Co., Ltd., Rawalpindi; Ganesh Flour Mills Co., Ltd., Lyallpur; Maher Singh Sapuran Singh Chawla, Lahore; North-Western Railway, Lahore; Punjab Cotton Press Co., Ltd., Lahore; Lahore Electric Supply Co., Ltd., Lahore; Imperial Bank of India, Lahore; Parkash Bros., Lahore; Basant Ram and Sons, Lahore; Grindlay & Co., Ltd., Lahore; Imperial Tobacco Co. of India Ltd., Lahore; Sir Daya Kishan Kaul & Sons, Lahore; Rawalpindi Electric Power Co., Ltd., Rawalpindi; Lakshmi Insurance Co., Ltd., Lahore; Indian Mildura Fruit Farm, Renela Khurd; Uberoi Ltd., Sialkote; Rai Sahib Munshi Gulab Singh & Sons, Lahore; P. R. Hermand and Mohatta Ltd., Lahore; Lloyds Bank Ltd., Lahore; Burmah-Shell Oil Storage and Distributing Co. of India, Ltd., Lahore; Imperial Chemical Industries (India), Ltd., Lahore; Kangra Valley Slate Co., Ltd., Lahore; Andrew Yule & Co., Ltd. Lahore; Siemens (India) Ltd., Lahore; Buckwell & Co., Ltd., Lahore; Punjab Portland Cement Ltd., Wah; A. F. Ferguson & Co., Lahore; Officer-in-Charge Military Farms, Okara; Dyer Meakin & Co., Ltd., Solan Brewery P. O.; Uttar Chan Kapur & Sons, Lahore; Callendar's Cable & Construction Co., Ltd., Lahore;

Honorary Members:—Major A. Angelo, O.B.E.; Rai Bahadur L. Ramlal, M.B.E., P.C.S.; Mr. H. P. Thomas, B.Sc., M.A.I.E.E., M.N.Z. SOC. C.E.

Secretary:—H. J. Martin.

Tel. Address:—"Commerce."

Telephone:—2237.

UPPER INDIA.

The Upper India Chamber of Commerce is concerned with trade, commerce and manufactures in the United Provinces and has its registered office at Cawnpore. Members are elected by the Committee, subject to confirmation by the next general meeting of the Chamber Gentlemen distinguished for public service, or eminent in commerce or manufactures, may be elected honorary members of the Chamber by the members in a General Meeting and such shall be exempted from paying any subscription to the Chamber. There is no entrance fee for membership, but subscriptions are payable as follows:—A firm, company or association having its place of business in Cawnpore, Rs. 300 a year; an individual member resident or carrying on business in Cawnpore, Rs. 300; firms or individuals having their places of business or residence outside Cawnpore pay half the above rates, but the maintenance of a branch office in Cawnpore necessitates payment of full rates.

The affairs and funds of the Chamber are managed by a Committee of ten members, which has power to constitute Local Committees of from four to seven members each at trade centres where membership is sufficiently numerous to justify the step. Such Local Committees have power to communicate only with the Central Committee.

The Chamber appoints arbitration Tribunals for the settlement and adjustment of disputes when invited, to do so, members of the Tribunals being selected from a regular printed list of arbitrators.

The Chamber has in the present year 61 members, two honorary members and seven affiliated members.

The following are the officers:—

Upper India Chamber of Commerce Committee:—*President*—Mr. J. M. Lownie, (Messrs. Begg, Sutherland & Co., Ltd.). *Vice-President*—Mr. R. Menzies, O.B.E., (The British India Corporation, Ltd.). *Members*—Mr. K. J. D. Price, (The Muir Mills Co., Ltd.); Mr. T. Gavin Jones, (The Cawnpore Chemical Works, Ltd.); Mr. Ram Narain, Cawnpore; Mr. G. V. Lewis, (The British India Corporation, Ltd.); Mr. E. J. W. Plummer, (The Swadeshi Cotton Mills Co., Ltd.); Mr. A. P. Curtis, (Messrs. Begg, Sutherland & Co., Ltd.); Mr. Jang Bahadur Mirhoutra, (Messrs. Moonna Lall & Sons); and Mr. A. Barr Pollock, (The Chartered Bank of India, Australia & China). *Representatives on the United Provinces Legislative Council.*—Mr. E. M. Souter, M.L.C., (Messrs. Ford & Macdonald, Ltd.); The Hon'ble Mr. J. P. Srivastava, M.L.C., M.SC., Cawnpore.

Secretary.—Mr. J. G. Ryan, M.B.E., V.D.
Head Clerk.—Babu B. N. Ghosal.

PUNJAB.

The Punjab Chamber of Commerce has its headquarters at Delhi and exists for the care of mercantile interests on the usual lines in the Punjab, the North West Frontier Province and Kashmir. The Chamber has Branches at Amritsar and Lahore. Membership is by ballot and is restricted to Banks, Merchants (wholesale), Railways and proprietors of large industrial interests. The entrance fee is Rs. 100 and the rate of subscription Rs. 180 per year. The Chamber returns one member to a seat on the Reformed Punjab Legislative Council jointly with the Punjab Trades Association, and shares representation in the Indian Legislative Assembly with other Chambers which are members of the Associated Chambers of Commerce of India, in the seat allotted to the Associated Chambers. The Chamber is a member of the Federation of Chambers of Commerce, London. The Chamber is represented on the Municipal Corporation of Delhi as well as on the N. W. Railway Advisory Committee, Lahore.

The Managing Committee meets at Delhi and Lahore and the following are office-bearers:—

Mr. W. G. L. Gilbert, *Chairman*, (Shahdara Saharanpore Light Railway Co., Ltd., Delhi); Khan Bahadur S. M. Abdulla, *Deputy-Chairman*, (Messrs. S. M. Abdulla & Sons, Delhi); Rai Bahadur P. Mukerjee, M.L.C., (Messrs. P. Mukerjee & Co., Ltd., Delhi); Mr. V. F. Gray, (Messrs. R. J. Wood & Co., Ltd., Delhi); Lala Shri Ram, (The Delhi Cloth & General Mills Co., Ltd., Delhi); Mr. R. T. H. Mackenzie, M.L.A., (Burmah-Shell Oil Storage & Distributing Co. of India Ltd., New Delhi); Mr. U. N. Sen, C.B.E. (The Eastern News Agency Ltd., New Delhi); Mr. C. M. Grant Govan, (Messrs. Govan Brothers, Ltd., Delhi); The Hon'ble Rai Bahadur Lala Ram Saram Das, C.I.E., (The Mela Ram Cotton Mills, Lahore); Mr. Aftab Rai, (The Ganga Ice Factory, Lahore Cantt.); Mr. R. S. Fairley, (The New Egerton Woollen Mills, Dhariwal); Mr. A. M. Freeman, (North Western Railway, Delhi); Mr. Lachhmi Narain, (Messrs. B. M. Lachhmi Narain, Amritsar); Mr. Moti Ram Mehra, (Messrs. Moti Ram Mehra & Co., Amritsar); Mr. W. Robertson Taylor, (The East India Carpet Co., Ltd., Amritsar); Mr. A. C. Mullen (The Amritsar Distillery Co., Ltd., Amritsar).

Secretaries.—Messrs. A. F. Ferguson & Co., Chartered Accountants, Delhi.

UNITED PROVINCES.

The number of members on register is 133 (102 Local and 31 Mofussil). All the important commercial and industrial interests of the Provinces of Agra and Oudh are represented :—

President.—R. B. B. Vikramajit Singh, M.L.C., B.A., LL.B.

Vice-President.—R. S. B. Gopi Nath, Proprietor, Messrs. Gopinath Chhangamal and L. Ram Kumar Newatia, Proprietor, Messrs. Ramkumar Rameshwardas, Cawnpore.

Secretary.—L. Rameshwar Prasad Bagla, M.L.A., Proprietor, Messrs. Gangadhar Baijnath, Cawnpore.

Joint-Secretary.—Mr. Krishna Lal Gupta, B.A., LL.B., Proprietor, Messrs. Saligram Kallomal, Cawnpore.

Members of Committee.—Mr. Dwarka Prasad Singh, Mr. Hiralal Khanna, Mr. L. Chunilal Maheshri, Mr. R. B. B. Bhugwan Dass, Mr. B. P. Srivastava, Mr. Ranjit Singh, Mr. L. Hari Shanker Bagla, Mr. L. Makundilal Garg, Mr. L. Girdharilal Bajaj, Mr. C. L. Mehta, Esq., Mr. I. D. Varshanie, Mr. L. Ramchander, Mr. B. Nand Ram Mehrotra, Mr. Ch. Pearey Lal, Mr. Brindaban Das, Mr. L. Ram Kishen Das Bajoria.

Assistant Secretary.—B. N. Chopra, Esq., A.I.S.A.

Head Assistant.—Mr. S. B. Tondon, B. Com. (Alld.).

BURMA.

The Burma Chamber of Commerce, with headquarters at Rangoon, exists to encourage friendly feeling and unanimity among commercial men on all subjects involving their common good, to promote and protect trade, commerce and manufactures and, in particular, the general mercantile interests of the province, to communicate with public authorities, associations and individuals on all matters, directly or indirectly affecting these interests, and to provide for arbitration between parties willing to refer to, and abide by, the judgment of arbitrators appointed by the Chamber. The following are affiliated bodies :—

Burma Fire Insurance Association.
Burma Marine Insurance Agents' Association.
Rangoon Import Association.
Burma Motor Insurance Agents' Association.
Burma Planter's Association.

The Chamber elects representatives to the following Public Bodies :—

Council of State.
Burma Legislative Council.
Rangoon Port Trust Board.
Rangoon Corporation.
Victoria Memorial Park Trustees.
Pasteur Institute Committee.
Burma University Council.
Rangoon Development Trust.
Police Advisory Board.
Accountancy Classes Advisory Board, Rangoon.
Advisory Committee Constituted under the Auxiliary Force Act, 1920.
Rangoon General Hospital Advisory Committee.
Local Railway Advisory Council.
Rangoon Water Supply Committee.
Bishop Bigandant Home Board.

All British corporations, companies, firms or persons engaged or interested in mercantile pursuits, such as merchants, bankers, shipowners and brokers or who are connected with agriculture, mining, manufactures, insurance, railways, commerce, art, science or literature shall be eligible to become Chamber Members. Every non-British concern or person, similarly engaged or interested as indicated above, shall be eligible for election as an Associate Member. The annual subscription of each Chamber Member shall be Rs. 480 per annum and of each Associate Member Rs. 360 per annum. An entrance fee of Rs. 150 is payable by each new Member. Officials and others indirectly connected with the trade of the province or who may have rendered distinguished service to the interests represented by the Chamber may be elected by the Committee either on their own motion or on the suggestion of two Members as Honorary Members of the Chamber. Honorary Members are not required to subscribe to the funds of the Chamber.

The Chamber undertakes arbitrations in addition to its ordinary work. It does not publish any statistical returns.

Secretary.—B. P. Cristall, Esq.

Representative on the Council of State.—Hon'ble Mr. J. B. Glass.

Representatives on the Burma Legislative Council.—R. T. Stoneham, Esq., M.L.C.

Representatives on the Rangoon Port Trust Board.—M. L. Burnet, Esq., J. B. Glass, Esq., The Hon'ble Mr. K. B. Harper and C. G. Wodehouse, Esq.

Representative on the Rangoon Corporation—W. T. McIntyre, Esq.

Victoria Memorial Park Trustee.—L. Baird, Esq.

Pasteur Institute Committee.—C. G. Wodehouse Esq., M.L.C.

Burma University Council.—H. B. Prior, Esq., M.A.

Rangoon General Hospital Advisory Committee—G. E. Bain, Esq.

Police Advisory Board.—T. P. Cowie, Esq.

Rangoon Development Trust.—The Hon'ble Mr. J. B. Glass.

Bishop Bigandant Home Board.—A. A. Bruce, Esq.

Accountancy Classes Advisory Board.—L. Baird, Esq.

Local Railway Advisory Council—A. A. Bruce, Esq.

Rangoon Water Supply Committee.—C. G. Wodehouse, Esq., A. T. McGreath, Esq., and C. Lane, Esq.

Advisory Committee constituted under the Auxiliary Force Act, 1920.—J. R. Fairley, Esq.

COCANADA.

The Cocanada Chamber of Commerce was established on 29th October 1868.

The following are the members of the Chamber which has its headquarters at Cocanada, the chief port on the Coromandel Coast north of Madras :—

Members.—The Coromandel Co., Ltd., Ripley & Co., Innes & Co., Wilson & Co., Gordon Woodroffe & Co., (Madras), Ltd., Northern Circars Development Co., and Burmah-Shell Oil Storage and Distributing Co. of India, Ltd.

MEMBERS OF THE COMMITTEE.

Mr. S. A. Cheesman, (*Chairman*).
,, C. D. T. Shores.
,, H. F. Ferguson.
,, G. M. Lake, (*Secretary*).

The rules of the Chamber provide that by the term 'member' be understood a mercantile firm or establishment, or the permanent Agency of a mercantile firm or establishment, or a society of merchants carrying on business in Cocanada or other place in the Districts of Kistna, Godavari, Vizagapatam, and Ganjam, and duly elected according to the Rules of the Chamber, and that all such be eligible but only members resident in Cocanada can hold office. Members are elected by ballot. The Committee, when called upon by disputing members or non-members of the Chamber, give their decision upon all questions of mercantile usage and arbitrate upon any commercial matter referred to them for final judgment. In either case a minimum fee of Rs. 16 must accompany the reference with Rs. 5 from a non-member and Re. 1 from a member as payment for the Chamber's Sealed Certificate.

The Committee consisting of 3 members, including the Chairman, is elected by ballot at the general meeting in January in each year for a term of 12 months. The entrance fee for each member, whose place of business is in Cocanada, is Rs. 100 and for each member whose place of business is elsewhere is Rs. 50. The subscription for each member whose place of business is in Cocanada is Rs. 120 per annum, payable quarterly, and for each member whose place of business is elsewhere is Rs. 60 per annum, payable in advance. The Committee usually meets once a month on the penultimate Thursday and the general body meets on the Last Thursday.

A Fortnightly Circular of current rates of produce, freights, and exchange is drawn up by the Committee.

DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCIAL INTELLIGENCE AND STATISTICS.

The Department of Statistics was reabsorbed into the Department of Commercial Intelligence with effect from the 1st December 1922. The joint department has its office at No. 1, Council House Street, Calcutta, the headquarters of the Director-General. It embraces two distinct classes of work: (*a*) the collection and dissemination of information connected with overseas trade which may be of use to Indian firms and (*b*) the compilation and publication of All-India statistics.

For some time past the Government of India have felt the necessity for the creation of a Central Statistical Research Bureau for the continuous analysis and interpretation of economic and statistical facts and phenomena and they have recently established the nucleus of a Statistical Research Bureau under the Director-General of Commercial Intelligence and Statistics at their headquarters. The Director-General is now stationed at the headquarters of the Government of India with a Deputy Director of Commercial Intelligence and a Deputy Director of Statistics at Calcutta and a new Deputy Director of Statistical Research at the headquarters.

Among the important publications for which the Director-General is responsible are the following annual volumes Review of the Trade of India, Statement of the Foreign Sea-borne Trade and Navigation of British India, Statistical Abstract for British India, Agricultural Statistics, Estimates of Area and Yield of Principal Crops and Indian Customs Tariff. The department also publishes a weekly journal—"The Indian Trade Journal"—the principal features of which are (*a*) information as to tariff change in foreign countries which affect Indian interests (*b*) notices of tenders called for and contracts

placed by Government departments and public bodies, (*c*) crop reports and forecasts, (*d*) Government orders, communiques and other notifications affecting trade, (*e*) analysis of Indian trade statistics, (*f*) market reports, prices and trade movements of the staple exports and imports, (*g*) trade enquiries for securing trade introductions, (*h*) summaries of the leading features of consular and other trade reports, and (*i*) abstracts of the proceedings of the various Chambers of Commerce in India.

The Department also administers the COMMERCIAL LIBRARY AND READING ROOM located at No. 1, Council House Street, Calcutta. This was at first a small departmental library used for the purpose of answering enquiries, but in 1919 the Government of India agreed to the formation of a combined technological library of reference in Calcutta in place of the separate libraries attached to the Departments of Commercial Intelligence, Statistics, and Patents and Designs, and the resultant Commercial Library and Reading Room was placed under the administrative control of the Director-General. It has now been expanded into a first-class technical library containing over 13,863 volumes on different subjects of commercial, economic and industrial interest as well as Indian and foreign statistical publications, and over 380 technical and commercial journals and market reports. Ordinarily books are consulted in the Library, but they are also available on loan upon deposit of value throughout India.

The Department works in close co-operation with Directors of Industries and other Government Departments in India, with the Indian Trade Commissioners in London and Hamburg with His Majesty's Trade Commissioners in India and the Dominions, and with Consular Officers in various parts of the world. And the yearly increase in its correspondence shows that it is steadily being used more and more both by firms in India and by overseas firms interested in Indian exports.

THE BRITISH TRADE COMMISSIONER SERVICE IN INDIA.

The British Trade Commissioners in India are part of the world-wide Commercial Intelligence Organisation of the Imperial Government. The Department of Overseas Trade, London, which is the headquarters of this organisation, is a joint department of the Board of Trade and the Foreign Office and was created in 1917 with the specific object of stimulating the overseas trade of the United Kingdom by securing commercial information from all parts of the world; by disseminating it to British manufacturers and exporters; by undertaking such special constructive activities as may be found possible; and by assisting traders in the removal of their difficulties. The Department has nothing to do with the regulation of trade. It passes no measures and makes no restrictive or regulative orders. Briefly, the policy on which it is based is the policy of assistance without interference.

The Department of Overseas Trade maintains a network of trained and experienced Commercial Intelligence Officers throughout the world; who forward a constant supply of commercial information to London and provide local assistance in the promotion of British economic interests. Those overseas officers who are stationed in the British Empire are members of the Trade Commissioner Service while Foreign countries are served by the Commercial Diplomatic Service forming part of the British Diplomatic Missions and by the Consular Service.

Sir (then Mr.) Thomas M. Ainscough, C.B.E., was appointed His Majesty's Senior Trade Commissioner in India in January 1918 and opened an office in Calcutta in March of that year. For five years, owing to the pressing need for economy in the Public Service, he was singlehanded in covering this vast territory. In 1923, however, H.M.'s Government sanctioned the opening of an office in Bombay and the creation of an additional Trade Commissioner's post in Calcutta. Mr. W. D. M. Clarke holds the appointment of H.M.'s Trade Commissioner at Bombay and in 1930 Mr. R.B. Willmot was appointed as H.M.'s Trade Commissioner at Calcutta. The territory in now divided between the Calcutta and Bombay posts and this development allows the Senior Officer to travel almost continuously to any part of India which may call for his attention and to devote his time to some of the broader politico-economic problems which are becoming so important in view of the changing political conditions in India.

Function of Commissioner.—The primary duty of the British Trade Commissioner comprises the collection of information in regard to opportunities that may arise within his territory for securing and developing trade by British manufacturers and merchants, both in the United Kingdom and other parts of the British Empire. He is, therefore, enjoined carefully to watch and report from time to time to the Board of Trade and the Governments of the Dominions concerned on all matters affecting the trade, industry and commerce of his area. His general functions are to maintain cordial relations with the governing authorities of his area; to enter into personal relations with the Chambers of Commerce, Trade Associations, and similar bodies, and with the principal representative importers and local manufacturers; to visit the principal commercial centres; to report upon foreign competition, on financial and trade conditions, and new legislation affecting trade; to make an annual general report on the conditions and prospects of trade in his area; and to furnish special reports and monographs on particular questions which are likely to be of interest to British manufacturers and exporters. He is also expected to supply a regular flow of commercial information of all kinds to his department; to maintain an active correspondence with firms in the United Kingdom or the Dominions who wish to extend their trade with his area; and to give all possible assistance to the representatives of British firms who may visit his territory.

Every efforts is made by His Majesty's Trade Commissioners to keep in touch with British representatives and agents in India. The offices are equipped with a complete range of directories and reference books of all kinds and information is available with regard to such matters as tariff conditions, port dues and charges throughout the world, etc. A library consisting of over 1,000 catalogues of the leading British manufacturers is maintained in Calcutta and Bombay, and firms desiring information with regard to specific manufacturers of particular machinery or processes are invited either to call personally or to communicate their requirements in writing. It is hoped that local importers and buyers will co-operate by making a more extended use of the information available in the offices and by bringing to the attention of the British Trade Commissioners any cases where the interests of exporters from the United Kingdom or the Dominions may be adversely affected by foreign competition or otherwise.

For many years British traders have deplored the fact that there have not been available officials with commercial experience who could help them in voicing their difficulties and in meeting foreign competition. As a rule these complaints eulogized the Consuls of other countries and invited the attention of Government to their many virtues. In response to this agitation the greatest care has been taken by the British Government to select, as their trade officers Overseas, men of sound commercial training and experience who have acquired some reputation in their respective spheres, and a comprehensive and businesslike organization has been built up at the Department of Overseas Trade, London, to deal with the information sent home. It now rests with the British mercantile community, both at home and also Overseas, to co-operate freely and frankly with the Trade Commissioners and to recognize the work they are doing in the Imperial interest by assisting them with such information and particulars with regard to foreign competing goods, conditions of trade, etc., as they are able to afford.

H. M.'s TRADE COMMISSIONERS IN INDIA.

Calcutta—
Sir Thomas M. Ainscough, C.B.E.,
His Majesty's Senior Trade Commissioner in India and Ceylon.
Mr. R. B. Willmot,
His Majesty's Trade Commissioner at Calcutta.
Post Box No. 683, Fairlie House, Fairlie Place.
Telegraphic Address—" Tradcom, Calcutta."
Telephone No. " Calcutta 1042."

Bombay—
Mr. W. D. M. Clarke,
His Majesty's Trade Commissioner at Bombay.
Post Box No. 815, 3 Wittet Road, Ballard Estate.
Telegraphic Address—" Tradcom, Bombay"
Telephone No.—" Bombay 23095."

Ceylon—
Imperial Trade Correspondent,
The Principal Collector of Customs, Colombo.

THE INDIAN CENTRAL COTTON COMMITTEE.

The Indian Cotton Committee of 1917-18, a full summary of whose report appears on pages 291-294 of the Indian Year Book of 1922, reviewed the position of cotton growing in India very thoroughly and made a series of recommendations for the improvement of cotton growing and marketing which have proved to be of the greatest value. One of their recommendations was that a permanent Indian Central Cotton Committee should be established to promote the welfare of the cotton-growing industry generally, to advise the Government of India and Local Governments in regard to matters of cotton policy, especially with reference to legislation for the prevention of malpractices and similar matters.

The Indian Central Cotton Committee was appointed by resolution of the Government of India in April 1921, and worked as an advisory body until 1923. Another recommendation of the original Committee was that a cotton cess should be levied to provide funds for the work of the Central Cotton Committee and for agricultural and technological research on cotton. The Cotton Cess Act was passed in 1923 and at the same time the Central Cotton Committee was incorporated and its membership enlarged in order to make it fully representative of all sections of the industry. Its constitution and present membership is as follows :—

President, ex-officio.—Dewan Bahadur Sir T. Vijayaraghavcharya, K.B.E., Vice-Chairman, Imperial Council of Agricultural Research, Simla or Delhi.

Representing the East India Cotton Association, Ltd., (Vice-President)—Sir Purshotamdas Thakurdas, KT., C.I.E., M.B.E., C/o Messrs. Narandas Rajaram & Co., Navsari Chambers, Outram Road, Fort, Bombay.

Ex-Officio—B. C. Burt, Esq., C.I.E., M.B.E., I.A.S., Agricultural Expert, Imperial Council of Agricultural Research, Simla or Delhi.

Representing the Agricultural Department, Madras.—S. V. Ramamurty, Esq., I.C.S., Director of Agriculture, Madras.

Representing the Agricultural Department, Bombay Presidency.—The Director of Agriculture, Bombay Presidency, Poona.

Representing the Agricultural Department, United Provinces.—P. B. Richards, Esq., I.A.S., Entomologist to Government, United Provinces, Cawnpore.

Representing the Agricultural Department, Punjab.—The Director of Agriculture, Punjab, Lahore.

Representing the Agricultural Department, Central Provinces.—J. H. Ritchie, Es;, M.A., B.Sc., I.A.S., Director of Agriculture, Central Provinces, Nagpur.

Representing the Agricultural Department, Burma.—F. D. Odell, Esq., I.A.S., Deputy Director of Agriculture, West Central Circle, Magwe, Burma.

Ex-officio—The Director-General of Commercial Intelligence & Statistics, 1, Council House Street, Calcutta.

Representing the Bombay Millowners' Association.—S. D. Saklatvala, Esq., C/o Messrs. Tata Sons Ltd., Bombay House, Bruce Street, Fort, Bombay.

Representing the Bombay Chamber of Commerce.—H. B. Moore, Esq., C/o The Bombay Co., Ltd., Wallace Street, Fort, Bombay.

Representing the Indian Merchants' Chamber, Bombay.—Chunilal B. Mehta, Esq., 51, Marwadi Bazaar, Sheik Memon Street, Bombay 2.

Representing the Karachi Chamber of Commerce.—J. O. G. Barnes, Esq., C/o Messrs. Ralli Bros., 21, Ravelin Street, Fort, Bombay.

Representing the Ahmedabad Millowners' Association.—Sheth Naranlal Jivanlal, Shahibag, Ahmedabad.

Representing the Tuticorin Chamber of Commerce.—J. Vonesch, Esq., C/o Messrs. Volkart Brothers, Ballard Estate, Fort, Bombay.

Representing the Upper India Chamber of Commerce.—E. J. W. Plummer, Esq., C/o The Swadeshi Cotton Mills Co., Ltd., Juhi, Cawnpore.

Representing the Empire Cotton Growing Corporation.—W. Roberts, Esq., C/o The British Cotton Growing Association (Punjab), Ltd., Khanewal, Punjab.

Commercial Representative, Central Provinces.—Y. G. Deshpande, Esq., B.A., LL.B., Pleader, Amraoti, C.P.

Commercial Representative, Central Provinces.—Rao Bahadur G. R. Kothare, L.M.E., M.L.C., Khamgaon, Berar.

Commercial Representative, Madras.—J. Nuttall, Esq., C/o Messrs. Binny & Co., Ltd., Madras.

Commercial Representative, Punjab.—Khan Bahadur Sardar Habibullah, M.L.C., Advocate, Davis Road, Lahore.

Commercial Representative, Bengal.—Nalini Ranjan Sarkar, Esq., Hindustan Buildings, 6A, Corporation Street, Calcutta.

Co-operative Banking Representative.—Rao Bahadur M. G. Deshpande, C.B.E., Honorary Magistrate, Nagpur.

Representing Cotton Growers, Madras.—The Hon'ble Mr. V. C. Vellingiri Gounder, Vellaikinar (Near Coimbatore).

Representing Cotton Growers, Madras.—M. R. Ry. K. Sarabha Reddi Garu, M.L.C., Cumbum, Kurnool District, Madras Presidency.

Representing Cotton Growers, Bombay Presidency.—Sardar Rao Bahadur Bhimbhai Manchodji Naik, M.L.C., Sagrampura, Surat.

Representing Cotton Growers, Bombay Presidency.—Rao Bahadur Chinbasappa Shidramappa Shirahatti, Managing Director, Co-operative Cotton Sale Society, Ltd., Hubli.

Representing Cotton Growers, United Provinces.—Khan Bahadur Maulvi Mohammad Obaidur Rahman Khan, M.L.C., Habibganj, Tahsil Atrauli, District Aligarh, U. P.

Representing Cotton Growers, United Provinces.—Rai Bahadur Lala Anand Sarup, M.L.C., Landholder, Muzaffarnagar, U. P.

Representing Cotton Growers, Punjab.—Sardar Gampuran Singh, Bar-at-Law, M.L.C., Honorary Secretary to the Central Co-operative Bank, Ltd., Lyallpur, Punjab.

Representing Cotton Growers, Punjab.—Mian Nurullah, M.L.C., Lyallpur, Punjab.

Representing Cotton Growers, C. P. and Berar.—N. M. Deshmukh, Esq., M.A. (Cantab), Bar-at-Law, Nagpur, C. P.

Representing Cotton Growers, C. P. and Berar.—Janrao Bajirao Deshmukh, Esq., Morshi Road, Amraoti, Berar.

Representing Hyderabad State.—B. A. Collins, Esq., C.I.E., I.C.S., Director-General and Secretary to Government, Department of Commerce and Industries, H. E. H. the Nizam's Government, Hyderabad, Deccan.

Representing Baroda State.—C. V. Sane, Esq., M.Sc. (Wiscon), Director of Agriculture, Baroda State, Baroda.

Representing Gwalior State.—Hiralal H. Pandya, Esq., Agricultural Adviser, Gwalior State, Gwalior.

Representing Rajputana and Central India States.—F. K. Jackson, Esq., N.D.A. (Hons.), Dip. Agri. (Cantab), Director, Institute of Plant Industry, Indore, C.I.

ADDITIONAL MEMBERS NOMINATED BY THE GOVERNOR-GENERAL-IN-COUNCIL.

D. N. Mahta, Esq., Economic Botanist to Government, Central Provinces, Nagpur.

Dr. W. Burns, D.Sc., I.A.S., Director of Agriculture, Bombay Presidency, Poona.

Representing the Mysore State.—Dr. L. C. Coleman, C.I.E., Director of Agriculture, Mysore State, Bangalore.

M. R. Ry. V. Ramanatha Iyer, Avargal, Cotton Specialist, Lawley Road Post Office, Coimbatore.

Representing the Holkar State.—Mashir Bahadur S. V. Kanungo, M.A., Commissioner of Customs, Excise and Commerce, Holkar State, Indore.

W. J. Jenkins, Esq., M.A., B.Sc., I.A.S., Chief Agricultural Officer in Sind, Karachi.

Representing the Indian Merchants' Association, Karachi.—Girdharlal B. Kotak, Esq., B.A., C/o Messrs. Kotak & Co., Navsari Buildings, Bornby Road, Bombay.

Rai Saheb Thakur Ram Prasad Singh, Economic Botanist to Government (for Cotton), United Provinces, Cawnpore.

Khan Bahadur Nawab Fazl-i-Ali Khan, Chairman, District Board, and President, Central Co-operative Bank, Ltd., Gujarat (Punjab).

Khan Saheb Farrukhbeg Sadikalibeg Mirza, Bar-at-Law, President, District Local Board, Nawabshah, Sind.

Representing the Cotton Millowners of Delhi.—Lala Shri Ram, Delhi Cloth and General Mills, Delhi.

Secretary.—Mr. P. H. Rama Reddi, M.A., B. Sc., I.A.S.

Director, Technological Laboratory—Dr. Nazir Ahmad, M.Sc., Ph.D.

Publicity Officer.—Mr. R. D. Mhtra, M.A., Agri. (Oxon), Post Grad. Dip. Agri. (Oxon), Post Grad. Res. B. Litt. (Oxon.)

Office.—Vulcan House, Nicol Road, Ballard Estate, Bombay.

From the commencement the Central Cotton Committee took steps to deal with the various malpractices reported by the original Committee which by spoiling the reputation of the Indian cottons and rendering them less valuable for spinning purposes, were reducing the returns of the grower and causing great economic loss to the country at large.

The Cotton Transport Act passed in 1923 enables any Local Government with the consent of its Legislative Council to notify definite areas of cotton for protection and to prevent the importation of cotton from outside the area except under license. Prior to the passing of the Act inferior cottons were imported in large quantities into the staple cotton tracts for purposes of adulteration, and the reputation of several valuable cottons had been ruined by this abuse. The Act has now been applied to the most important staple cotton areas of the Bombay and Madras Presidencies and the Central Provinces and of the Baroda, Rajpipla, Chhota Udepur, Hyderabad, Indore, and Sangli States and with excellent results.

The Cotton Ginning and Pressing Factories Act (XII of 1925) subsequently passed provides for a certain measure of control of ginning and pressing factories and especially for the marking of all bales of cotton pressed with a press mark and serial number which enables them to be traced to their origin. This Act, with the minimum of official interference, places the cotton trade in a position itself to deal with abuses, and should lead to a very marked improvement in the quality of Indian cottons.

The Central Cotton Committee has also devoted considerable attention to constructive action for the improvement of the marketing of cottons and to bringing to the notice of the trade, both in India and abroad, those improved varieties which have now reached a commercial scale and has carried out some important enquiries into the financing of the cotton crop up-country and primary cotton marketing, and the effect of "pools" of cotton ginning and pressing factories on the price paid to the growers for their produce. As an instance of the progress in cotton growing which has been made since 1917 it may be stated that since that date approximately half a million bales of cotton of medium staple have been added to the Indian crop by the work of the Agricultural Departments. In general it may be said that the Committee affords a common meeting ground for representatives of all sections of the Cotton trade and of the cottongrowing industry, thus enabling a number of problems to be tackled from every point of view and definite progress made towards their solution.

Research Studentships.—The Committee has also instituted a scheme of research studentships to enable distinguished graduates of Indian Universities to undertake research on cotton problems under the direction of experienced research workers in India. Scholarships for training abroad are also sometimes granted.

STATISTICS.—By the efforts of the Committee great improvement has been effected in cotton statistics. The compilation of statistics relating to (1) Indian raw cotton consumed in spinning mills in India, (2) exports by sea and receipts at mills of Indian cotton classified by varieties, (3) stocks of cotton held on the last day of the season by the trade at important cotton centres in India, and by the mills, and (4) loose cotton received in the spinning mills of the major cotton growing provinces, the establishment of weekly statistical returns relating to the number of bales of raw cotton pressed in India, and the revival of rail-borne trade statistics for cotton are some of the results already achieved by the Committee in this direction.

Research.—By means of the Cotton Cess the Committee is provided with funds for the promotion of research. It maintains in Bombay a fully equipped Technological Laboratory which includes a complete experimental, spinning plant and a scientific laboratory for research on the cotton fibre. This laboratory provides Agricultural Departments with complete and authoritative reports on the spinning value of new cottons, thus providing a much needed facility. In addition it is now possible to undertake research work on a number of questions connected with the spinning qualities of cotton which have not been touched in the past. The Laboratory is unique in that it is probably the only institution of its kind which approaches the subject primarily from the standpoint of the grower.

The Committee contributes the greater part of the funds for the Indore Institute of Plant Industry which is a Central Agricultural Research Institute for cotton where many problems of fundamental importance are being studied.

In addition by means of grants-in-aid to Agricultural Departments it has provided for special investigations on problems of general applicability which would otherwise have been left untouched through lack of staff and funds. Such schemes are in operation in all major cotton-growing provinces and now number twenty-seven.

The Committee also assists by means of grants to Agricultural Reports in Provinces and States and to Co-operative Cotton Sale Societies in the wider distribution of seed of improved varieties of cotton. There are 16 such schemes in operation at present.

His Excellency the Viceroy (Lord Reading) when he visited Bombay in December 1924 and formally opened the Committee's Spinning Laboratory laid great stress on the importance and value of the Committee's work.

THE EAST INDIA COTTON ASSOCIATION, LIMITED.

Bombay.—The Association is the outcome of the findings of the Indian Cotton Committee which was appointed by the Governor-General in Council under a resolution dated September 27th, 1917. Until the end of 1917 the Cotton Trade of Bombay was in the hands of seven distinct bodies, *viz.*, The Bombay Cotton Trade Association, Ltd., The Bombay Cotton Exchange, Ltd., The Bombay Millowners' Association, The Bombay Cotton Brokers' Association, Ltd., The Marwari Chamber of Commerce, The Bombay Cotton Merchants' and Muccadums' Association. Ltd., and The Japanese Cotton Shippers' Association. None of these bodies were representative of the trade as a whole and their interests often came into conflict with each other. The necessity of a system of periodical settlements, such as existed in Liverpool, was badly felt, especially when speculation was rife in futures which was so excessive in 1918 that the Trade had to invoke the aid of Government to prevent a financial crisis.

The **Cotton Contracts Committee** was created under the Defence of India Act in June 1918 as a temporary measure under the Chairmanship of Mr. G. Wiles, I.C.S. This body was replaced by the Cotton Contracts Board in 1919, which continued to function until May 1922, when the Act, under which the Board worked, was repealed, and its functions were carried on by the East India Cotton Association under Bombay Act No. XIV of 1922.

The Association continued to function under the above Act until 31st October 1932. With effect from 1st November 1932 the Association has been regulating transactions in cotton under Bombay Act No. IV of 1932 under which it has been declared to be a recognised Cotton Association.

The present constitution of the Board is as follows:—

Haridas Madhavdas, Esq., (*President*), Sellers' Panel; Bhaidas Nanalal, Esq., (*Vice-President*); Sellers' Panel; H. F. Milne, Esq., Buyers' Panel; L. F. H. Goodwin, Esq., Buyers' Panel; R. L. Ferad, Esq., Buyers' Panel; J. G. Anderson, Esq., Buyers' Panel; Surajmal Khialiram, Esq., Sellers' Panel; Chimanlal B. Parikh, Esq, Sellers' Panel; Begraj Gupta, Esq., Brokers, Panel; Chunilal B. Mehta, Esq., Brokers' Panel; Jagjivandas Dossabhai, Esq., Brokers' Panel; P. N. Philon, Esq., Brokers' Panel; Jamnadas Adukia, Esq., Brokers' Panel; Ramdeo Anandilal Podar, Esq., Brokers' Panel; N. M. Deshmukh, Esq., M.A.(Cantab), Bar-at-Law; Mian Nurullah, Esq., M.L.C. Nominated on the Board of Directors as Representatives of Growers' of Cotton by the Indian Central Cotton Committee.

Officers.

D. Mehta, Esq., B.A., Secretary, C. M. Parikh, Esq., B. Com., Assistant Secretary, A. R., Menezes, Esq., Manager, Clearing House.

Some of the objects for which the Association is established are:—To provide and maintain suitable buildings or rooms for a Cotton Exchange in the City of Bombay and elsewhere in India and to regulate admission to and prohibition of the use thereof and the nature and times of such user whether in the case of the general body or particular classes or any individual or firm or company using the Exchange; to provide forms of contracts compulsory or permissive and regulate the making, carrying out and enforcement or cancellation of contracts; to adjust by arbitration or otherwise controversies between persons engaged in the Cotton Trade; to establish just and equitable principles in the said Trade; to maintain uniformity of control of the said trade; to fix or adopt standards of classification of cotton, to acquire, preserve and disseminate useful information connected with the Cotton interest throughout all markets; to decrease or insure the local risk attendant upon business; and generally to control, promote and regulate the Cotton Trade in the Presidency of Bombay and elsewhere in India, improve its stability and augment the facilities with which it may be conducted. To establish and maintain a Clearing House for the purpose of dealing with cotton transactions, and to regulate admission to and prohibition of the user thereof and the nature and times of such use whether in the case of the general body or particular classes or any individual or firm or company using the Clearing House. To regulate the handling and exportation of Cotton from India and the importation of Cotton into India in so far as it may be imported. To bring, prosecute, or defend, or aid in bringing, prosecuting, or defending any suits, actions, proceedings, applications, or arbitrations on behalf of Members or Associate Members or Special Associate Members or otherwise as the Directors of the Association may think proper or conducive to the objects of the Association, and to prescribe the principle of framing of contracts with a view to eliminate the temptation and possibility of speculative manipulation.

The Association has a fine Exchange Building at Sewri Cotton Depot, containing 121 Buyers' Rooms and 84 Sellers' Rooms, and a large Trading Hall on the lines of Liverpool and New York Exchanges.

The inaugural ceremony of the opening of the Exchange Building was performed by His Excellency Sir Leslie Wilson, Governor of Bombay, on the 1st December 1925 in the presence of a large gathering which included most of the prominent business men of the City and many leading citizens.

There is a membership of 398 members.

The Bombay Cotton Annual containing matters relating to every branch of the Trade is published annually in December and statistics are issued twice weekly.

The Textile Industry.

India has been the home of the cotton trade from the earliest times. Its cotton, known as white wool, was well known to the ancients and its cloth was familiar to the West in the days of the overland route. The name Calico comes from the fine woven goods of Calicut, and the products of the Dacca handlooms are still remarkable as the finest muslins human skill can produce.

Indian Cotton.

The exports of Indian cotton began to assume importance with the opening of the sea route. They received an immense stimulus during the American Civil War, when the close blockade of the Confederate ports produced a cotton famine in Lancashire, and threw the English spinners back on India for their supply of raw material. When the war broke out the shipments of Indian cotton were 528,000 bales but during the last year of the war they averaged 973,000 bales. Most of this cotton was sold at an enormously inflated price, and induced a flow of wealth into Bombay, the great centre of the trade, for which there was no outlet. The consequence was an unprecedented outburst of speculation known as the "Share Mania," and when the surrender of Lee re-opened the Southern Ports widespread ruin followed. It is estimated that the surplus wealth brought into the country by the American Civil War aggregated £92 millions. Since then the cultivation of Indian cotton, although interrupted by famine, has steadily increased. For the last season for which returns are available, 1932-33 the total area in all territories reported on was computed at 22,588,000 acres and the total estimated outturn was 4,516,000 bales of 400 lbs. as compared with 23,522,000 acres and 4,064,000 bales in 1931-32.

Bombay, the Central Provinces and Hyderabad are the chief producing centres. The following table gives the rough distribution of the outturn. The figures are the estimated figures for the past season, and are not exact, but they indicate the distribution of the crop :—

Provinces and States.	1932-33. (Provisional Estimates).	
	Acres in Thousands.	Bales of 400 lbs. (In thousands)
Bombay (*a*)	6,587	1,457
Central Provinces and Berar	4,216	740
Punjab (*a*)	2,268	652
Madras (*a*)	1,976	412
United Provinces (*a*)	527	170
Burma	320	62
Bengal (*a*)	76	24
Bihar and Orissa (*b*)	65	13
Assam	37	15
Ajmer-Merwara	33	11
North-West Frontier Province	16	3
Delhi	2	1
Hyderabad	3,602	534
Central India	1,007	135
Baroda	722	144
Gwalior	597	76
Rajputana	419	57
Mysore	88	10
Total	22,558	4,516

(*a*) Including Indian States.

Note.—A bale contains 400 lbs. of cleaned cotton.

(*b*) Excluding certain feudatory states which report an area of 28,000 acres with a yield of 8,000 bales, as against 29,000 acres and 7,000 bales last year.

EXPORTS OF RAW COTTON FROM INDIA.

(In thousands of bales of 400 lbs.) to various Countries for year ending 31st March :—

Countries.	1929-30.	1930-31.	1931-32.	1932-33.
United Kingdom	270	281	166	167
Other parts of the British Empire.	7	6	6	7
Total, British Empire ..	277	287	172	174
Japan	1,640	1,686	1,080	1,085
Italy	393	362	183	150
France	253	232	81	124
China (exclusive of Hongkong, etc.)	566	605	436	134
Belgium	341	217	121	129
Spain	80	106	45	52
Germany	344	309	166	152
Austria	....	....	....	....
Other Countries	176	122	85	63
Total, Foreign countries ..	3,793	3,639	2,197	1,889
TOTAL ..	4,070	3,926	2,369	2,063

Bombay is the great centre of the cotton trade. The **principal varieties** are Dholleras, Broach, Oomras (from the Berars), Dharwar and Coomptas. Broach is the best cotton grown in Western India. Hinganghat cotton, from the Central Provinces, has a good reputation. Bengals is the name given to the cotton of the Gangetic valley, and generally to the cottons of Northern India. The Madras cottons are known as Westerns, Coconadas, Coimbatores and Tinnevellys. The best of these is Tinnevelly. Cambodia cotton has been grown with success in Southern India, but it shows a tendency to revert. The high prices of cotton realised of recent years have given a great impetus to cultivation. Government have also been active in improving the class of cotton produced, by seed selection, hybridization and the importation of exotic cottons. Although these measures have met with a considerable measure of success, they have not proceeded far enough to leaven the whole outturn, which still consists for the most part of a short-staple early maturing variety suitable to soils where the rainy season is brief.

Reference has been made to the popularity of the Indian handloom cloths in the earliest days of which we have record. This trade grew so large that it excited alarm in England; and it was killed by a series of enactments, commencing in 1701, prohibiting the use or sale of Indian calicoes in England. The invention of the spinning jenny and the power loom and their development in England converted India from an exporting into an importing country, and made her dependent on the United Kingdom for the bulk of her piece-goods. The first attempt to establish a cotton mill in India was in 1838, but the foundations of the industry were really laid by the opening of the first mill in Bombay in 1856. Thereafter, with occasional set backs from famine, plague and other causes, its progress was rapid.

The following statement shows the quantity (in pounds) of yarn of all counts spun in all India for the twelve months April to March, in each of the past 4 years :—

	1929-30.	1930 31.	1931-32.	1932-33.
BRITISH INDIA.				
Bombay Presidency	467,289,325	475,944,062	549,038,671	558,594,709
Madras	74,502,412	76,692,341	87,675,691	104,909,198
Bengal	37,052,844	37,762,714	37,620,373	40,821,488
United Provinces	76,416,492	85,049,326	89,817,642	93,126,775
Ajmer-Merwara	5,695,294	6,002,939	6,962,180	7,796,752
Punjab	3,717,397	4,031,790	5,171,435	5,063,015
Delhi	18,441,589	19,580,773	24,471,590	26,791,043
Central Provinces and Berar	45,110,508	45,102,511	44,142,990	45,385,349
Burma	2,575,574	3,264,790	3,258,696	3,280,395
TOTAL ..	730,801,387	753,431,246	848,159,268	885,768,724
FOREIGN TERRITORY.				
Indian States of Indore, Mysore, Baroda, Nandgaon, Bhavnagar, Hyderabad, Wadhwan, Gwalior (Ujjain), Kishangarh, Cambay, Kolhapur, Cochin Rajkot (*a*) and Pondicherry	102,607,626	113,613,312	118,247,364	130,649,685
GRAND TOTAL ..	833,409,013	867,044,558	966,406,632	1,016,418,409

(*a*) Figures for Ratlam are being reported from April 1932.

The spinning of yarn is in a large degree centred in Bombay, the mills of that province producing nearly 55 per cent. of the quantity produced in British India. The United Provinces of Agra and Oudh and Madras produced about 19.4 per cent. while Bengal and the Central Provinces produced 4·0 and 4·4 per cent. Elsewhere the production is as yet very limited.

Bombay Island.

Here is a detailed statement of the quantity (in pounds) and the counts, or numbers, of yarn spun in Bombay island :—

	1928–29.	1929–30.	1930–31.	1931–32.	1932–33.
Nos. 1—10	32,435,744	58,035,403	53,638,486	52,498,182	49,700,540
„ 11—20	61,896,986	105,891,361	100,812,483	121,121,630	124,094,087
„ 21—30	47,058,788	85,715,968	82,764,969	104,772,651	97,050,083
„ 31—40	8,566,651	13,074,236	22,671,169	29,478,014	31,590,553
Above 40	3,133,697	4,628,867	10,493,889	12,954,822	12,904,255
Wastes, &c.	6,61,027	870,909	525,637	764,546	573,348
TOTAL ..	153,752,893	263,216,744	270,906,633	321,589,845	312,921,863

Ahmedabad.

The corresponding figures for Ahmedabad are as follows:—

	1928–29.	1929–30.	1930–31.	1931–32.	1932–33.
Nos. 1—10	2,409,957	2,957,262	2,774,584	1,897,390	1,817,847
„ 11—20	39,409,182	48,393,118	48,006,959	55,517,079	63,253,648
„ 21—30	58,194,408	63,127,227	58,522,363	60,911,461	61,730,219
„ 31—40	12,639,915	15,399,621	17,155,503	19,617,636	23,291,983
Above 40	4,064,968	5,899,594	10,647,819	14,420,395	16,070,045
Wastes, &c.	....	....	....	....	....
TOTAL ..	116,718,430	135,776,822	137,107,228	152,363,961	166,163,742

Yarn Spun throughout India.

The grand totals of the quantities in various counts of yarn spun in the whole of India including Native States, are given in the following table:—

	1928–29.	1929–30.	1930–31.	1931–32.	1932–33.
Nos. 1—10	78,887,734	105,477,320	113,588,158	116,899,114	115,210,693
„ 11—20	303,135,880	387,822,398	400,150,519	445,157,934	484,241,173
„ 21—30	213,013,236	271,758,294	259,455,565	294,005,342	297,512,610
„ 31—40	37,488,197	46,362,781	60,746,714	71,073,075	77,185,513
Above 40	10,029,048	15,278,339	27,310,831	34,001,363	36,593,749
Wastes, &c.	5,729,242	6,709,881	5,792,771	5,236,192	5,674,671
TOTAL ..	648,283,337	833,409,013	455,886,074	966,373,020	1,016,418,409

In the early days of the textile industry the energies of the millowners were largely concentrated on the production of yarn, both for the China market, and for the handlooms of India. The increasing competition of Japan in the China market, the growth of an indigenous industry in China and the uncertainties introduced by the fluctuations in the China exchanges consequent on variations in the price of silver compelled the millowners to cultivate the Home market. The general tendency of recent years has been to spin higher counts of yarn, importing American cotton for this purpose to supplement the Indian supply, to erect more looms, and to produce more dyed and bleached goods. This practice has reached a higher development in Bombay than in other parts of India, and the Bombay Presidency produced in 1932-33 nearly 71·6 per cent. of the cloth woven in India. The United Provinces produced 5·1 per cent., the Central Provinces 2·5 per cent. and Madras 2·3 per cent. Grey and Bleached goods represent nearly 77 per cent. of the whole production.

Analysis of Woven Goods.

The following brief extract is taken from the statement of the quantity (in pounds and their equivalent in yards) and description of woven goods produced in all India, including Native States:—

	1929-30.	1930-31.	1931-32.	1932-33.
Grey and Bleached piece-goods—				
Pounds	421,758,613	460,325,143	520,016,204	531,791,526
Yards	1,814,920,801	2,003,490,240	2,311,104,465	2,422,997,054
Coloured piece-goods—				
Pounds	125,858,886	117,518,225	138,621,286	150,723,943
Yards	604,059,124	557,642,795	678,786,696	746,901,445
Grey and coloured goods other than piece-goods—				
Pounds	4,536,020	3,178,666	3,237,696	3,,542,246
Dozens	1,164,778	779,365	831,344	946,971
Hosiery—				
Pound	1,923,016	1,667,834	1,974,144	2,544,339
Dozens	576,353	499,933	622,360	746,341
Miscellaneous—				
Pounds	4,635,744	4,225,198	5,362,410	4,291,948
Cotton goods mixed with silk or wool—				
Pound	3,360,526	3,443,498	3,045,221	2,422,9997,054
Total—				
Pounds	562,058,731	590,336,923	672,256,961	694,901,056
Yards	2,418,979,925	2,561,133,035	298,989,101	3,169,898,499
Dozens	1,737,182	1,272,541	1,453.704	1,693,312

Bombay Presidency Woven Goods.

The output of woven goods during the three years in the Bombay Presidency was as follows:—

The weight (in pounds represents the weight of all woven goods; the measure in yards represents the equivalent of the weight of the grey and coloured piece-goods.)

	1929-30.	1930-31.	1931-32.	1932-33.
Pounds	376,413,138	392,057,330	459,247,935	462,222,027
Yards	1,724,925,196	1,829,793,378	2,188,300,219	2,265,897,230
Dozens	960,219	531,704	656,462	608,700

The grand totals for all India are as follows:—

	1929-30.	1930-31.	1931-32.	1932-33.
Pounds	562,058,731	590,336,923	672,256,961	694,901,056
Yards	2,418,979,925	2,561,133,035	2,989,891,101	3,169,898,499
Dozens	1,737,182	1,272,541	1,453,704	1,693,312

Progress of the Mill Industry.

The following statement shows the progress of the Mill Industry in the whole of India.

Years ending 30th June.	Number of Mills	Number of Spindles.	Number of Looms.	Average No of Hands Employed Daily.	Approximate Quantity of Cotton Consumed.	
					Cwts.	Bales of 392 lbs.
1878	53	12,89,706	10,533	Not	stated.	Not stated.
1879	56	14,52,794	13,018	42,914	9,36,547	2,67,585
1880	56	14,61,590	13,502	44,410	10,76,708	3,07,631
1881	57	15,13,096	13,707	46,430	13,26,461	3,78,989
1882	65	16,20,814	14,172	48,467	13,91,467	3,97,565
1883	67	17,90,388	15,373	53,476	15,97,946	4,56,556
1884	79	20,01,667	16,262	60,387	18,59,777	5,31,365
1885	87	21,45,646	16,537	67,186	20,88,621	5,96,749
1886	95	22,61,561	17,455	74,383	22,51,214	6,43,204
1887	103	24,21,290	18,536	76,942	25,41,966	7,26,276
1888	114	24,88,851	19,496	82,379	27,54,437	7,86,982
1889	124	27,62,518	21,551	91,598	31,10,289	8,88,654
1890	137	32,74,196	23,412	1,02,721	35,29,617	10,08,462
1891	134	33,51,394	24,531	1,11,018	41,26,171	11,78,906
1892	139	34,02,232	25,444	1,16,161	40,80,783	11,65,938
1893	141	35,75,917	28,164	1,21,500	40,98,528	11,71,008
1894	142	36,49,736	31,154	1,30,461	42,78,778	12,22,508
1895	148	38,09,929	35,338	1,38,669	46,95,999	13,41,714
1896	155	39,32,946	37,270	1,45,432	49,32,613	14,09,318
1897	173	40,65,618	37,584	1,44,335	45,53,276	13,00,936
1898	185	42,59,720	38,013	1,48,964	51,84,648	14,81,328
1899	188	47,28,333	39,069	1,62,108	58,63,165	16,75,190
1900	193	49,45,783	40,124	1,61,189	50,86,732	14,53,352
1901	193	50,06,936	41,180	1,72,883	47,31,090	13,51,740
1902	192	50,06,965	42,584	1,81,031	61,77,633	17,65,038
1903	192	50,43,297	44,092	1,81,399	60,87,690	17,39,340
1904	191	51,18,121	45,337	1,84,779	61,06,681	17,44,766
1905	197	51,63,486	50,139	1,95,277	65,77,354	18,79,244
1906	217	52,79,595	52,668	2,08,616	70,82,306	20,23,516
1907	224	53,33,275	58,436	2,05,696	69,30,595	19,80,170
1908	241	57,56,020	67,920	2,21,195	69,70,250	19,91,500
1909	259	60,53,231	76,398	2,36,924	73,81,500	21,09,000
1910	263	61,95,671	82,725	2,33,624	67,72,535	19,35,010
1911	263	63,57,460	85,352	2,30,649	66,70,581	19,05,866
1912	268	64,63,929	88,951	2,43,637	71,75,357	20,59,102
1913	272	65,96,862	94,136	2,53,786	73,36,056	20,96,016
1914*	271	67,78,895	1,04,179	2,60,276	75,00,941	21,43,126
1915*	272	68,48,744	1,08,009	2 65,346	73,59,212	21,02,632
1916*	266	68,39,877	1,10,268	2,74,361	76,92,013	21,97,718
1917*	263	67,38,697	1,14,621	2,76,771	76,93,574	21,98,164
1918*	262	66,53,871	1,16,484	2,82 227	72,99,873	20,85,678
1919*	258	66,89,680	1,18,221	2,93,277	71,54,805	20,44,230
1920*	253	67,63,876	1,19,012	3,11,078	68,33,113	19,52,318
1921*	257	68,70,804	1,23,783	3,32,176	74,20,835	21,20,230
1922*	298	73,31,219	1,34,620	3,43,723	77,12,390	22,03,540
1923*	333	79,27,938	1,44,794	3,47,380	75,30,943	21,51,698
1924*	336	83,13,273	1,51,485	3,56,887	67,12,118	19,17,748
1925*	337	85,10,633	1,54,202	3,67,877	77,92,085	22,26,310
1926*	334	87,14,168	1,59,464	3,73,508	73,96,844	21,13,384
1927*	336	87,02,760	1,61,952	3,84,623	84,60,942	24,17,412
1928*	335	87,04,172	1,66,532	3,60,921	70,34,237	20,09,782
1929*	344	89,07,064	1,74,992	3,46,925	75,64,081	21,61,166
1930*	348	91,24,768	1,79,250	3,84,022	90,07,999	25,73,714
1931*	339	93,11,953	1,82,429	3,95,475	92,16,116	26,33,175
1932*	340†	95,01,047	1,86,407	4,03,760	1,02,32,712	29,23,632
1933	344	95.71,668	1,88,960	4,00,759	99,30,053	28,37,158

* Year ending 31st August. †Does not include 31 Mills in course of erection.

The Jute Industry.

Considering its present dimensions, the jute industry of Bengal is of very recent origin. The first jute mill in Bengal was started at Rishra in 1855, and the first power-loom was introduced in 1859. The original outturn was 8 tons per day. In 1909 it had grown to 2,500 tons per day, it is now 4,000 tons per day, and it shows every indication of growing and expanding year by year. Another interesting thing about the jute industry of Bengal is that, although it is practically a monopoly of Scotsmen from Dundee, the industry itself owes its inception to an Englishman. The founder of the industry was George Acland, an Englishman, who began life as a midshipman in the navy, and was for some years in the East India Marine Service. He quitted this service while still a young man, and engaged in commercial pursuits in Ceylon, where he was successful. Later on he turned his attention to Bengal, and arriving in Calcutta about 1853 he got into touch with the management of the paper works, then at Serampore, where experiments were being tried with country grasses and fibre plants to improve the quality or cheapen the manufacture of paper. This seems to have suggested to Acland the manufacture of rhea, and in 1854 he proceeded to England, with a view to obtaining machinery and capital in order to manufacture goods from that material. During this trip he visited Dundee, and while there Mr. John Kerr, of Douglas Foundry, suggested to him the importing of machinery into Bengal "where the jute comes from and spin it there." This suggestion bore fruit, for shortly afterwards Acland placed orders with Kerr for a few systems of preparing and spinning machinery, and returned to India the same year accompanied by his two sons and a few Dundee mechanics who were to assist him in erecting and operating the first jute mill in Bengal. This, as has been stated, was at Rishra, the site of the present Wellington mills, near Serampore, and here, in 1855, the first machine spun jute yarns were made. As not infrequently happens the pioneer got very little out of his venture. After several ups and downs the Acland interest in the Rishra mill ceased in 1867, and the company which Acland had formed in 1854 was wound up in 1868.

Power-looms.—The pioneer's example was followed by Mr. George Henderson of that silk firm, and in 1859 the Borneo Jute Co. was launched under his auspices. To this company is due the credit of introducing the power-loom for jute cloth. Unhampered by the financial difficulties which had burdened the Aclands, the Borneo Jute Co. made rapid progress, doubling their works in 1864, and clearing their capital twice over. In 1872 the mills were turned into a limited liability company, the present "Barnagore Jute Factory Co., Ld." Four other mills followed in succession—Gouripore, Serajgunge, and India Jute Mills.

"From 1868 to 1873," writes Mr. David Wallace in "The Romance of Jute," "the five mills excepting the Rishra mill simply coined money and brought the total of their looms up to 1,250." To illustrate the prosperity of the industry at this period we may take the dividends paid by the Barnagore Company. On the working of their first half year, a 15 per cent. interim dividend was declared, which seemed to justify the enormous capital at which the company was taken over from the Borneo Company, and shares touched 68 per cent. premium. The dividend for the first year, ending August 1873, was 25 per cent., for 1874, 20 per cent., and for 1875, 10 per cent. Then came a change. The investing public had forgotten the effect of the Port Canning bubble, and the condition of the jute industry in 1872-73 seeming to offer a better return than coal or tea, both of which had just enjoyed a boom, it was only necessary to issue a prospectus of a jute mill to have all the shares snapped up in the course of an afternoon.

In 1872–73 three new companies were floated locally—the Fort Gloster, Budge and Sibpore, and two Home companies, the Champdany and Samnugger, all of which commenced operations in 1874. In 1874–5 eight other mills were launched—the Howrah, Oriental (now Union), Asiatic (now Soorah), Clive, Bengal Pressing and Manufacturing Co. (now the Belliaghatta-Barnagore branch mill), Rustomjee (now the Central), Ganges (registered in England), and Hastings, owned by Messrs. Birkmyre Bros., of Greenock fame—in all thirteen new companies, coming on all of a heap and swelling the total looms from 1,250 up to 3,500. This was too much of a strain for the new industry, and for the next ten years all the mills had a severe struggle. The older ones all survived the ordeal, but four of the new concerns—the Oriental, the Asiatic, the Bengal Pressing and Manufacturing Co. and the Rustomjee—became moribund, to appear again later on under new names and management. Fort Gloster also suffered badly.

Between 1875 and 1882 only one new mill was put up. This was Kamarhatty, promoted by Messrs. Jardine, Skinner & Co., which came into being in 1877, as the result of Dr. Barry's visit to Calcutta in 1876, when he transferred the agency of the Gouripore Co. from Messrs. Jardine, Skinner & Co. to his own firm. This mill, together with additions made by some of the other mills, brought the total looms up to 5,150 in 1882. By the end of 1885 the total was further augmented by the Hooghly, Titaghur, Victoria and Kanknarrah mills, bringing the number of looms at work up to 6,700. From this period on to 1894 no new mills came into existence except the Calcutta Twist Mill, with 2,460 spindles, since merged into the Wellington branch of the Champdany Co. Between 1896 and 1900 the following new mills were started:—The Gordon Twist Mill with 1,800 spindles (now acquired by Anglo-India), Khardah, Gondolpara (French owned), Alliance, Arathoon, Anglo-India, Standard, National, Delta (which absorbed the Serajgunge), and the Kinnison. A lull of four years witnessed large extensions to the existing mills after which came the following series of new mills, besides further heavy extensions—Dalhousie, Alexandra, Naihati, Lawrence, Reliance, Belvedere, Auckland, Kelvin and Northbrook. The last decade has seen the construction of Hakumchand, Birla, Shree Hanuman, Gagalbhai, Premchand and Agarpara Mills, which—with the exception of the last-named—are under Indian ownership.

Progress of the Industry.

THE record of the jute industry may well be said to be one of uninterrupted progress. The following statement shews **quinquennial averages** from the earliest year for which complete information is available with actuals for each year from 1917-18 up to 1926-27 and the figures in brackets represent the variations for each period, taking the average of the quinquennium from 1879-80 to 1883-84 as 100 :—

	Number of mills at work.	Authorised Capital (in lakhs of Rs.)	Number (in thousands) of		
			Persons employed daily (average.)	Looms.	Spindles.
Average—					
1879-80 to 1883-84 ..	21 (100)	270·7 (100)	38·8 (100)	5·5 (100)	88 (100)
1884-85 to 1888-89 ..	24 (114)	341·6 (126)	52·7 (136)	7 (127)	138·4 (157)
1889-90 to 1893-94 ..	26 (124)	402·6 (149)	64·3 (166)	8·3 (151)	172·6 (196)
1894-95 to 1898-99 ..	31 (148)	522·1 (193)	86·7 (223)	11·7 (213)	244·8 (278)
1899-1900 to 1903-04..	36 (171)	680 (251)	114·2 (294)	16·2 (295)	334·6 (380)
1904-05 to 1908-09 ..	46 (219)	960 (355)	165 (425)	24·8 (451)	510·5 (580)
1909-10 to 1913-14 ..	60 (286)	1,209 (443)	208·4 (537)	33·5 (609)	691·8 (786)
1914-15 to 1918-19 ..	73 (348)	1,403·6 (519)	259·3 (668)	39·7 (722)	821·2 (933)
1917-18	76 (362)	1,428·5 (528)	266 (686)	40·6 (738)	834 (948)
1918-19	76 (362)	1,477·2 (546)	275·5 (710)	40 (727)	839·9 (954)
1919-20	76 (362)	1,563·5 (579)	280·4 (723)	41·0 (745)	856·3 (473)
1920-21	77 (367)	1,923·5 (712)	288·4 (758)	41·6 (745)	869·9 (908)
1921-22	81 (386)	2,122·4 (784)	288·4 (743)	43·0 (782)	908·3(1,032)
1922-23	86 (409)	2,324·7 (859)	321·2 (828)	47·5 (863)	1,003·1(1,140)
1923-24	89 (424)	*2,385·8 (881)	330·4 (851)	49·0 (891)	1,043·4(1,185)
1924-25	90 (424)	2,213·3 (818)	341·7 (881)	50·3 (914)	1,067·6(1,213)
1925-26	90 (429)	2,134·7 (788)	331·3 (854)	50·5 (918)	1,063·7(1,209)
1926-27	93 (443)	2,119·8 (783)	333·6 (860)	51·0 (927)	1,083·8(1,231)
1927-28	93 (443)	*2,119·7 (783)	335·8 (865)	52·2 (949)	1,105·6(1,256)
1928-29	95 (452)	*2,126·6 (785)	343·8 (886)	52·4 (953)	1,108·1(1,259)
1929-30	98 (466)	2,186·6 (807)	343·2 (886)	53·9 (980)	1,140·4(1,296)
1930-31	100 (476)	2,360·6 (872)	307·6 (793)	61·8 (1,123)	1,224·9(1,392)

* Revised.

The production of the mills has increased to a still greater extent. The following figures show the exports of jute manufactures and the declared values for the same periods. The value of jute manufactures exported by sea in 1924-25 was over thirty-three times as great as the average value of the export in the period 1879-80 to 1883-84 :—

	Jute manufactures.		
	Gunny bags in millions of number.	Gunny cloths in millions of yards.	Value in lakhs of Rs.
1879-80 to 1883-84	54·9 (100)	4·4 (100)	124·9 (100)
1884-85 to 1888-89	77 (140)	15·4 (350)	162·9 (130)
1889-90 to 1893-94	111·5 (203)	41 (932)	289·3 (232)
1894-95 to 1898-99	171·2 (312)	182 (4,136)	518 (415)
1899-1900 to 1903-04..	206·5 (376)	427·2 (9,709)	826·5 (662)
1904-05 to 1908-09	257·8 (469)	698 (15,864)	1,442·7 (1,154)
1909-10 to 1913-14	339·1 (618)	970 (22,045)	2,024·8 (1,621)
1914-15 to 1918-19	667·6 (1,216)	1,156 (26,273)	4,019·3 (3,218)
1919-20	342·7 (624)	1,275·1 (28,980)	5,0015 (4,004)
1920-21	543·9 (987)	1,352·7 (33,809)	5,299·4 (4,273)
1921-22	386·7 (715)	1,120·5 (28,000)	2,999·5 (2,419)
1922-23	344·2 (637)	1,254·3 (31,350)	4,049·4 (3,205)
1923-24	413·7 (752)	1,348·7 (30,652)	4,228·3 (3,382)
1924-25	425·1 (774)	1,456·2 (33,095)	5,148·8 (4,122)
1925-26	425·0 (774)	1,461·3 (33,211)	5,752·1 (4,605)
1926-27	449·0 (818)	1,503·1 (34,161)	5,283·3 (4,222)
1927-28	463·1 (843)	1,552.7 (35,289)	5,321·8 (4,260)
1928-29	497·6 (906)	1,568·2 (35,640)	5,656·4 (4,528)
1929-30	522·3 (951)	1,650·5 (37,511)	5,158·7 (4,130)
1930-31	434·0 (790)	1,270·9 (28,884)	3,148·8 (2,521)
1931-32	388.5 (707)	1,021·0 (23,204)	2,138·6 (1,712)

Until the outbreak of war the exports by sea of raw jute were marked by increases from year to year although the increase was very much less than that in the case of manufactures. During the war years exports declined very considerably. The cessation of the war stimulated the export trade and in 1919-20 the export showed an increase, as compared with the average of the war quinquennium (1914-15 to 18-19). In the following two years, the export recorded a decrease and in 1922-23 they again made a recovery and amounted to 578,000 tons

	Jute, raw, ton.	
Average 1879-80 to 1883-84..	375,000	(100)
,, 1884-85 to 1888-89..	445,000	(119)
,, 1889-90 to 1893-94..	500,000	(133)
,, 1894-95 to 1898-99..	615,000	(164)
,, 1899-1900 to 1903-04	635,000	(169)
,, 1904-05 to 1908-09..	755,000	(201)
,, 1909-10 to 1913-14..	765,000	(204)
1914-15 to 1918-19 ..	464,000	(124)
Year 1919-20	592,000	(158)
,, 1920-21	472,000	(129)
,, 1921-22	468,000	(125)
,, 1922-23	578,000	(145)
,, 1923-24	660,000	(176)
,, 1924-25	696,000	(185)
,, 1925-26	647,000	(172)
,, 1926-27	708,000	(189)
,, 1927-28	892,000	(238)
,, 1928-29	898,000	(239)
,, 1929-30	807,000	(215)
,, 1930-31	620,000	(165)
,, 1931-32	587,000	(157)

The total quantity of jute manufacture exported by sea from Calcutta during the year 1922-23 was 668,000 tons as against 639,000 tons in the preceding year and 603,500 tons in the pre-war year 1913-14. The values of these exports amounted to Rs. 40·28 lakhs, or an increase of Rs. 10,36 lakhs over the preceding year and Rs. 12,08 lakhs over the pre-war year. The shipments of gunny bags were valued at Rs. 15,82 lakhs and of gunny cloth Rs. 24,24 lakhs as against Rs. 13,86 and Rs. 15,92 lakhs respectively in the preceding year and Rs. 12,48 and Rs. 15,58 lakhs in the pre-war year.

The price of raw jute reached a very high point in 1906-07, the rate being Rs. 65 per bale; in 1907-08 it dropped to Rs. 42 per bale, and the fall was accentuated in 1908-09 and 1909-10, the price having declined to 36·4 and Rs. 31, in 1917-18 it dropped to Rs. 38-8-0 but rose again in 1919-20 up to Rs. 77-8-0. In 1920-21 it dropped to Rs. 65 but rose again to Rs. 86. It again declined to Rs. 66. In 1921-22 the price rose to Rs. 73 at the end of September, but fell back again to Rs. 50 at the end of November and recovered at Rs. 64 at the close of the year.

	Average price of jute, ordinary, per bale of 400 lbs. Rs. a. p.	
1879-80 to 1883-84 ..	.. 23 8 0	(100)
1884-85 to 1888-89 ..	.. 23 3 2	(99)
1889-90 to 1893-94 ..	.. 32 6 5	(138)
1894-95 to 1898-99 ..	.. 30 12 0	(131)
1899-1900 to 1903-04	.. 32 1 7	(137)
1904-05 to 1908-09 ..	.. 44 13 6	(191)
1909-10 to 1913-14 ..	.. 51 0 10	(217)
1914-15 to 1918-19 ..	.. 50 6 5	(214)
1917-18	.. 38 8 0	(164)
1918-19	.. 60 0 0	(255)
1919-20	.. 77 8 0	(330)
1920-21	.. 69 8 0	(296)
1921-22	.. 63 0 0	(268)
1922-23	.. 73 0 0	(310)
1923-24	.. 55 0 0	(234)
1924-25	.. 89 2 0	(378)
1925-26	.. 124 2 10	(528)
1926-27	.. 83 5 9	(353)
1927-28	.. 73 8 4	(313)
1928-29	.. 76 13 9	(327)
1929-30	.. 66 11 2	(284)
1930-31	.. 42 9 0	(180)
1931-32	.. 38 3 8	(163)

The average **prices of gunny cloth** have been as follows:—

	Price of Hessian cloth 10½ oz 40" per 100 yds. Rs. a. p.	
1879-80 to 1883-84 ..	.. 10 7 11	(100)
1884-85 to 1888-89 ..	.. 8 0 7	(77)
1889-90 to 1893-94 ..	.. 10 6 6	(98)
1894-95 to 1898-99 ..	.. 8 11 8	(98)
1899-1900 to 1903-04	.. 10 2 10	(97)
1904-05 to 1908-09 ..	.. 11 14 1	(112)
1909-10 to 1913-14 ..	.. 12 12 2	(122)
1914-15 to 1918-19 ..	.. 23 5 7	(222)
1917-18	.. 33 8 0	(314)
1918-19	.. 33 0 0	(314)
1919-20	.. 28 0 0	(267)
1920-21	.. 20 8 0	(196)
1921-22	.. 14 8 0	(138)
1922-23	.. 21 12 0	(209)
1923-24	.. 19 13 0	(190)
1924-25	.. 22 9 0	(214)
1925-26	.. 24 3 0	(228)
1926-27	.. 19 9 0	(186)
1927-28	.. 21 13 3	(208)
1928-29	.. 22 12 10	(212)
1929-30	.. 17 4 9	(165)
1930-31	.. 12 1 7	(115)
1931-32	.. 11 0 0	(105)

The 1932 crop.—The final figures of outturn for the three provinces work out as follows:—

Province.	Yield in Bales.	
	1931.	1932.
Bengal (including Cooch Behar & Tripura States)	5,002,700	6,213,500
Bihar and Orissa	† 367,200	† 543,500
Assam	196,600	340,100
Total ..	5,566,500	7,097,100

Province.	Area in Acres.	
	1931.	1932.
Bengal (including Cooch Behar & Tripura States)	1,613,700	1,845,700
Bihar and Orissa	148,800	170,000
Assam	99,300	127,400
Total ..	1,861,800	2,143,100

† Including Nepal.

The Indian Jute Mills Association now one of the most important, if not the most important, of the bodies affiliated to the Bengal Chamber of Commerce, was started under the following circumstances:—In 1886 the existing mills, finding that, in spite of the constant opening up of new marks, working results were not favourable, came to an agreement, with the late S. E. J. Clarke, Secretary to the Chamber of Commerce, as trustee, to work short time. The only mills which stood out of this arrangement were the Hooghly and Serajgunge. The first agreement, for six months dating from 15th February 1886, was subsequently renewed at intervals without a break for five years up to February 15, 1891. The state of the market at the time of the renewals dictated the extent of the short time, which varied throughout the five years between 4 days a week, 9 days a fortnight and 5 days a week. Besides short time, 10 per cent. of the sacking looms were shut down for a short period in 1890. An important feature of this agreement was a mutual undertaking by the parties not to increase their spinning power during the currency of the agreement, only a few exceptions being made in the case of a few incomplete new mills.

The present officials of the Association are:—

Chairman.—Mr. H. H. Burn, M.L.C.,

Members of Committee:—

Mr. Sheokissen Bhatter, Mr. P. S. Macdonald, Mr. S. K. Acott, Mr. W. A. M. Walker, M.L.C., Mr. A. Wilson, Mr. D. Wilson.

Working days.—With the introduction of the electric light into the mills in 1896, the working day was increased to 15 hours, Saturdays included, which involved an additional amount of cleaning and repairing work on Sundays. In order to minimise this Sunday work and give them a free Sunday, an agitation was got up in 1897 by the Mill European assistants to have the engines stopped at 2 or 3 p.m. on Saturdays. The local Government took the matter up, but their action went no further than applying moral suasion, backed by a somewhat half-hearted threat. The Mill Association held meetings to consider the question and the members were practically agreed as to the utility of early closing on Saturdays, but, *more suo*, could not trust themselves to carry it out without legislation. Unfortunately the Government of India refused to sanction the passing of a Resolution by the provincial Government under the Factory Act and the matter was dropped. Only a year or two ago the Jute Mills Association in despair brought out an American business expert, Mr. J. H. Parks, to advise them on the possibility of forming a jute trust with a view to exercising some control over the production and price of jute. Mr. Parks came, and wrote a report which the Association promptly pigeon-holed because the slump was over and the demand was so prodigious that there was no need to worry about the price of jute.

The working agreements referred to above have been followed by others, differing in points of detail, but with the same object in view namely the restriction of production. During the past 10 years a policy of curtailment of output has been continuously in force. The mills in the membership of the Association,

comprising some 95 per cent of the trade, are at present working 40 hours per week, with 15 per cent of the total complement of looms sealed; and the current agreement incorporates a clause which provides that the mills will not instal any extra productive machinery or relative buildings during the currency of the agreement, which will remain in force until three months notice of intention to alter the present working arrangements, or to terminate the agreement, has expired. In addition to this working arrangement, which as has been stated above applies only to the mills in the membership of the Association, there came into force with effect from 1st August 1932 an agreement with the five principal mills outside the Association, namely Adamjee, Agarpara, Gagalbhai, Ludlow and Shree Hanuman, whereby these mills have undertaken to restrict their working hours to 54 per week up to 30th June 1933. With certain modifications this agreement has since been extended and is now a continuing agreement, subject to six months notice of termination being given by either party, but this notice cannot be given before the 1st July 1934. Five of the Association mills—Premchand, Craig, Waverley, Megna and Nuddea—have also been granted the privilege of working 54 hours per week with a full complement of machinery.

An Association, styled the **Calcutta Jute Dealers Association**, has been formed in Calcutta to promote and to guard the common interests of its members as dealers in jute for local consumption. The members are balers and brokers of jute for sale to the jute mills in and around Calcutta. The present Committee:—Mr. H. A. Luke, *Chairman*. *Members*—Mr D. King, Mr. H. F. Mytton, Mr. G. C. Moon, Mr. A. C. Robertson, Mr. J. W. R. Steven.

Effects of the War.—The official review of the Trade of India in 1916-17 says:—The value of the exports of raw jute increased in 1916-17 by nearly Rs. 65 lakhs to Rs. 1,629 lakhs. The quantity exported, however, was less than in the preceding year. The estimated yield of the crop was 12 per cent. above that of the previous year, *viz.*, 1,490,000 tons or 8,340,000 bales. Owing to the lack of tonnage and other abnormal circumstances brought about by the war, the quantity exported was 10 per cent. below that of the previous year. Of the consumers the United Kingdom and Italy took less, while the United States, France (mainly *via* Dunkirk), Russia (*via* Vladivostok) and Brazil took greater quantities. There were, of course, no exports to enemy countries which took more than 27 per cent. in the five years ending 1913-14, the pre-war year. The increase in the value accompanied by a decrease in the volume of exports was due to the very high range of prices during the months of September, October, November and December. Towards the close of the year under review prices steadily declined, and have since gone still lower.

Jute Manufactures.—The value of the exports now approximates to Rs. 42 crores. In spite of the war with its attendant difficulties of freight and finance, the exports of gunny cloth showed an increase of Rs. 241 lakhs of which Rs. 163 lakhs were due to higher prices and Rs. 78 lakhs to an increase in the volume of exports. There were also an increase of Rs. 118 lakhs in the value of gunny bags exported. The number of bags shipped increased while the weight decreased, sand bags for war purposes being lighter than the ordinary bags for transporting grain. Exports to Australia in 1916-17 were a record. The United Kingdom with Australia took more than half of the number of bags exported while the United States took more than half of the quantity of cloth exported.

There were 74 mills at work throughout the year with 41,292 looms and 863,339 spindles. The number of persons employed was 285,881. There were no difficulties as regards the supply of labour.

The number of gunny bags shipped from Calcutta during 1922-23 declined from 386 million bags to 342 million bags, but the value increased from Rs. 13,87 lakhs to Rs. 15,82 lakhs. Shipments of gunny cloth rose from 1,120 million yards to 1,251 million yards valued at Rs. 15,92 lakhs and Rs. 24,24 lakhs respectively.

Hemp and Jute Substitutes.

Experiments have been made during the last few years by the Agricultural Department of the Government of India with the **Deccan hemp** plant (*Hibiscus cannabinus*), which yields a fibre very similar to jute. As a result, a new variety of the plant, known as Type 3, has been obtained, which it is now proposed to introduce into several parts of India, and, as a beginning, the variety is to be grown on a number of estates in Bihar. A sample of the fibre prepared from this variety by the usual methods of retting was 10 ft. to 12 ft. long, of an exceptionally light colour, well cleaned, and of good strength. It was valued at £18 per ton with Bimlipatam jute at £12 10s., and Bengal first mark jute at £17 per ton. Deccan hemp has been grown fairly extensively in Bombay, the Central Provinces, and Madras, where it is used for ropes and cordage and also for the manufacture of a coarse sackcloth. A valuable feature of the plant is its suitability for cultivation in such parts of India as are not suitable for jute.

Prior to the war, the United Kingdom's requirements of hemp were mainly supplied by the following countries in order of importance:—the Philippine Islands, New Zealand, India, Russia, Italy and Germany. The opinion appears to be held that the effect of the war will be to cause very considerable changes in the character of the fibre market. There will probably be labour difficulties, it is thought, in the preparation of the hemp crops of Russia and Hungary and it is not unlikely that the world will look to countries such as India for the supply of fibres which may be used as substitutes for the European varieties of hemp. There can be no doubt that one of the early effects of the war was to firm up hemp prices. As far as Indian hemp is concerned, values were persistently depreciated during the first six months of 1914 owing to large stocks held; but the closure of the Russian hemp market on the outbreak of war resulted in a marked improvement in values, and there was a keen demand and a considerable rise in price. Exports from Calcutta during 1922-23 made a great recovery from the previous year. The quantity advanced by 37 per cent. from 197,412 cwts. to 269,487 cwts. and the value from Rs. 26·93 lakhs to Rs. 36·68 lakhs.

THE WOOL INDUSTRY.

Wool exported from India consists not only of wool grown in India itself, but of imports from foreign sources, these latter coming into India both by land and by sea. Imports by sea come chiefly from Persia, but a certain quantity from Persia also comes by land, while the main imports are from Afghanistan, Central Asia, Tibet and Nepal. Quetta, Shikarpur, Amritsar and Multan are the main collecting centres for wool received by land from Afghanistan and Persia, whence it is almost invariably railed to Karachi for subsequent export overseas.

Imports and Exports.—A considerable amount of wool is imported annually from Tibet, and in normal years, from Afghanistan. Imports of raw wool in 1932-33 amounted to 7.2 million lbs. valued at Rs. 42 lakhs, showing a marked increase compared with the previous year. Australia was the largest supplier with 3 millions lbs. and the United Kingdom sent 2.1 million lbs., thus ousting Persia from the second place.

Production in India.—The production of wool in India is estimated at 60 million lbs. the estimate being arrived at from the available figures of the number of sheep in the country and their estimated yield per fleece, the average quantity of wool yielded per sheep per annum being taken at only 2 lbs.

All Indian wools are classed in the grade of **carpet wools**, and it is correct to say of perhaps fully half the breeds of sheep found on the plains of India that they yield a kind of hair rather than of wool. They are reared chiefly on account of the mutton, and the fleece has been generally regarded as of subsidiary interest. In many respects, in actual fact, the Indian plains sheep approximate more nearly to the accepted type of the goat rather than of the sheep. Short remarks in his manual on Indian cattle and sheep, particularly with respect to the Madras type, that they "resemble a greyhound with tucked up belly, having some coarseness of form, the feet light, the limbs bony, sides flat and the tail short."

Mill manufacture.—The number of mills in British India in 1930, the latest year for which details are available, was 12 of which five were in the United Provinces. The paid up capita of these mills was Rs. 68,28,576 and the number of looms and spindles was 1,447 and 69,293 respectively. The average number of persons employed daily in these mills was 4,240. There are no complete figures of production, the last year for which they are available being 1921 when the quantity of woollen goods produced was 3,820,879 lbs. valued at Rs. 1,17,99,396. As regards Indian States there are four woollen mills in Mysore which produced woollen goods of 2,700,201 lbs, in weight in 1930, the value being Rs. 17,83,256. The bulk of the wool used by the Indian mills is Indian wool, although it is supplemented to some extent by the importation of merinos and cross-breds from Australia for the manufacture of the finer classes of goods. Their market for manufactured goods is almost entirely in India itself. Imports of woollen piecegoods in 1932-33 increased by over 8 mil linoyards as compared with the preceding year, and even exceeded the imports of 1929-30 by about a million yards. Imports came chiefly from France, Italy, Japan and the United Kingdom. There was a considerable increase in the number of woollen shawls imported in 1932-33, Germany being the largest single source of supply. Imports of carpets and floor-rugs declined to 188,000 lbs. in 1932-33 from 267,000 lbs. in 1931-32. The share of Persia in this trade receded considerably, but imports from the United Kingdom rose.

Blanket weaving and carpet manufacture are carried on in various parts of the country, notably in the Punjab and the United Provinces. Woollen pile carpets are made in many of the jails. Amritsar had a considerable trade at one time in weaving shawls from *pashm*, the fine under fleece of the Tibetan goat, but its place has been taken to some degree by the manufacture of shawls from imported worsted yarns, but more generally by the manufacture of carpets of a fine quality which find a ready sale in the world market. This work is done entirely on hand looms and the carpets fetch a high price.

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Silk.

In the early days of the East India Company the Indian Silk trade prospered greatly, and various sub-tropical races of the Silkworm were introduced. But the trade gradually declined for the following reasons:—

In the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries India's chief competitor in the silk trade was the Levant Company. Successful efforts, however, were made to acclimatise in Europe one or two races of a temperate worm, procured from China and Japan. When sericulture became part of the agriculture of France and Italy, a quality of silk was produced entirely different from that of India and Turkey, and its appearance created a new demand and organized new markets.

All subsequent experience seems to have established the belief that the plains of India, or at all events of Bengal, are never likely to produce silk that could compete with this new industry. On the lower hills of Northern India, on the other hand, a fair amount of success has been attained with this (to India) new worm, as, for example, in Dehra Dun and Kashmir. In Manipur, it would appear probable that *Bombyx mori*, possibly obtained from China, has been reared for centuries. The caprice of fashion has, from time to time, powerfully modified the Indian silk trade. The special properties of the *korah* silk were formerly much appreciated but the demand for them has now declined. This circumstance, together with defective systems of rearing and of hand-reeling and weaving, accounts largely for the present depression in the mulberry silk trade of India.

Mulberry-feeding worms.—Sir George Watt states that in no other country does the necessity exist so pressingly as in India to treat the subject of silk and the silk industries under two sections, *viz.*, Bombycidae, the domesticated or mulberry-feeding silkworms; and Saturniidae, the wild or non-mulberry-feeding worms. In India the mulberry worm (*Bombyx Mori*) has been systematically reared for many centuries, there being six chief forms of it. In the temperate tracts of India various forms of *Morus alba*, (the mulberry of the European silk-producing countries), are grown specially as food for the silkworm. This is the case in many parts of the plains of Northern India, Baluchistan, Afghanistan, Kashmir, and along the Himalaya at altitudes up to 11,000 feet. The other species even more largely grown for the Indian silkworm is *M. Indica* of which there are many distinctive varieties or races. This is the most common mulberry of Bengal and Assam as also of the Nilgiri hills.

India has three well-known purely indigenous silkworms; the *tasar*, the *muga* and the *eri*. The first is widely distributed on the lower hills, more especially these of the great central table-land, and feeds on several jungle trees. The second is confined to Assam and Eastern Bengal, and feeds on a laurel. The third exists in a state of semi-domestication, being reared on the castor-oil plant. From an art point of view the *muga* silk is the most interesting and attractive, and the cocoon can be reeled readily. The eri Silk, on the other hand, is so extremely difficult to reel that it is nearly always carded and spun—an art which was practised in the Khasi Hills of Assam long before it was thought of in Europe.

Experiments and results.—Numerous experiments have been made with a view to improving sericulture in India. French and other experts are agreed that one of the causes of the decline of the silk industry in India has been the prevalence of diseases and parasites among the worms, the most prevalent disease being pebrine. M. Lafont, who has conducted experiments in cross breeding, believes that improvement in the crops will be obtained as soon as the fight against pebrine and other diseases of the worms is taken up vigorously by the producers of seed and the rearers of worms, while improvement in the quality of the cocoons will be obtained by rearing various races, pure and cross breeds.

In Kashmir and Mysore satisfactory results have been obtained. In the former State sericulture has been fostered on approved European principles with Italian reeling machinery, seed being imported annually on a large scale. In 1897 in Mysore Mr. Tata, after selecting a plantation and site for rearing houses, sent to Japan for a Superintendent and trained operatives. The Mysore authorities have made a grant of Rs. 3,000 a year to the Tata farm in return for instruction given to the people of Mysore in Japanese methods of growing the mulberry and rearing the insects. The products of the Mysore State are exported to foreign countries from Madras. The work of the Salvation Army is also noteworthy in various parts of India. They have furnished experts, encouraged the planting of mulberry trees, and subsidised several silk schools. The draft prospectus has been issued of a silk farm and institute to be started at Simla under the auspices of the Salvation Army. The Lieut.-Governor of the Punjab has permitted the school to be called after his name, and the Punjab Government made a grant of Rs. 2,000 towards the expenses. Sir Dorabji Tata has also made a donation of Rs. 1,000. The Bengal Silk Committee under the guidance of some French experts have conducted cross-breeding experiments with a view to establish a multi-voltine hybrid of European quality. There is a Government sericultural farm at Berhampore, where, it is said, a pure white multi-voltine of silk worm is reared. The results of the Bengal Committee's labours may be summed up as follows: the only really effective method of dealing with the problem is to work up gradually to a point at which the whole of the seed cocoon necessary for the province will be supplied to rearers under Government supervision, and to establish gradually a sufficient number of large nurseries throughout the silk districts of the province.

In 1915 there was issued by the Agricultural Research Institute, Pusa, a *Bulletin* (No. 48 of 1915) entitled "First Report on the Experiments carried out at Pusa to improve the Mulberry

Silk Industry." In a short Prefatory note Mr. Bainbrigge Fletcher (Imperial Entomologist) explains that the object of the Bulletin is to place on record some of the more important experiments which were commenced at Pusa, in the year 1910 and have since been carried on in the endeavour to fix a superior multivoltine race of the Mulberry Silkworm which would not degenerate and which would yield silk better both in quality and outturn than that supplied by the multivoltine races which are reared at present.

Central Nurseries.—The report of the Agricultural Department, Bengal, for the year ending June 30, 1913, gives an account of a scheme which has been devised with the object of reclaiming the silk industry. The aim of the scheme is gradually to establish throughout the silk districts a sufficient number of central nurseries with rearing houses and thus enable the whole of the seed cocoons required in the province to be supplied under Government supervision. It is believed that this is the only really effective method of dealing with the problem. A number of the existing smaller nurseries were closed during 1913 and others are being converted into enlarged and improved central nurseries with rearing houses complete. The ultimate success of the scheme depends largely on the willingness of the rearers to pay an adequate price for pure seed.

A pamphlet was published in 1915, by Mr. M. N. De, Sericultural Assistant at Pusa, which contains practical hints on improved methods which are recommended to be used for reeling mulberry silk in Bengal and other silk producing districts. It has been found that, by the provision of two small pulleys to the ordinary Bengal type of reeling machine, superior thread can be obtained, the cost of the extra apparatus is merely nominal (five or six annas per machine) whilst the suitability of the machine for cottage workers is maintained. By attention to such simple points as the stifling and storage of cocoons and the temperature and quality of the water used in the reeling pans, great improvements can be effected in most silk centres in Bengal and other districts.

Exports of Silk.—As a result of the war the trade has shown in some degree signs of revival from its decadent condition, both as regards its volume and value. The value of exports during 1915-16 improved by Rs. 12 lakhs to Rs. 27½ lakhs, of which raw silk accounted for Rs. 24 lakhs. In 1916-17 the total exports rose to Rs. 54¾ lakhs. In 1932-33 exports of raw silk and silk manufactures amounted to Rs. 318 lakhs in value, compared with Rs. 3·34 lakhs in the previous year.

Indigo.

Indigo dyes are obtained from the Indigofera, a genus of Leguminosae which comprises some 300 species, distributed throughout the tropical and warm temperate regions of the globe, India having about 40. Western India may be described as the headquarters of the species, so far as India is concerned, 25 being peculiar to that Presidency. On the eastern side of India, in Bihar, Bengal, Assam and Burma, there is a marked decrease in the number of species but a visible increase in the prevalence of those that are met with.

There is evidence that when Europeans first began to export the dye from India, it was procured from the Western Presidency and shipped from Surat. It was carried by the Portuguese to Lisbon and sold by them to the dyers of Holland, and it was the desire to obtain a more ample supply of dye stuff that led to the formation of the Dutch East India Company and so to the overthrow of the Portuguese supremacy in the East. Opposition to indigo in 17th century Europe was keen owing to its interference with the wood industry, but it was competition to obtain indigo from other sources than India that led on the first decline of the Indian indigo industry. In the middle of the eighteenth century, when the cultivation of indigo in the West Indies had been given up—partly on account of the high duties imposed upon it and partly because sugar and coffee were found to be more profitable—the industry was revived in India, and, as one of the many surprises of the industry, the province of Bengal was selected for this revival. It had no sooner been organised, however, than troubles next arose in Bengal itself through misunderstandings between the planters, their cultivators and the Government, which may be said to have culminated in Lord Macaulay's famous *Memorandum* of 1837. This led to another migration of the industry from Lower and Eastern Bengal to Tirhut and the United Provinces. Here the troubles of the industry did not end, for the researches of the chemical laboratories of Germany threatened the very existence of any natural vegetable dye. They first killed the maddar dye of Europe, then the safflower, the lac and the *al* dyes of India, and are now advancing rapidly with synthetic indigo, intent on the complete annihilation of the natural dye. Opinions differ on many aspects of the present vicissitude; meantime the exports from India have seriously declined, and salvation admittedly lies in the path of cheaper production both in cultivation and manufacture. These issues are being vigorously faced and some progress has been accomplished, but the future of the industry

can scarcely help being described as of great uncertainty. The issue is not the advantage of new regulations of land tenure, but one exclusively of natural *versus* synthetic indigo. (See Watt's "Commercial Products of India.") In this connection it may be noted that increases in the price of coal in England, due to labour difficulties, have greatly strengthened the position of natural indigo. In February 1915 a conference was held at Delhi when the possibility of assisting the **natural indigo industry** was considered from three points of view—agricultural, research and commercial. The agricultural or botanical side of the question is fully discussed by Mr. and Mrs. Howard of Pusa in Bulletins Nos. 51 and 54 of the Agricultural Research Institute. Other aspects of the question have been fully examined in the Agricultural Journal of India by Mr. W. A Davis Indigo Research Chemist to the Government of India. **An Indigo Cess Bill** was passed in the Imperial Legislative Council in 1918. It provides for a cess on indigo exported from India for the scientific investigation of the methods of cultivation and manufacture of indigo, the proceeds of the cess being received and expended by Government.

Decline of the Industry.—Since synthetic indigo was put upon the market, in 1897, the natural indigo industry of India has declined very rapidly; apart from slight recoveries in 1906-07 and 1911-12, the decline continued without a break until the revival due to the impossibility of obtaining artificial dyes in sufficient quantities during the war.

Exports from India fell to 300 cwts. in 1932-33 from 800 cwts. in the previous year.

OILS AND OIL CAKES.

Oilseeds ranked seventh among India's exports in 1932-33 and represented 8.54 per cent of the total value of exports. The total exports of oilseeds fell from 988,000 tons valued at Rs. 14·59 lakhs in 1931-32 to 733,000 tons valued at Rs. 11·31 lakhs. Details of oilseeds exported during 1932-33 appear in the section of the Year Book dealing with exports.

A pamphlet on the subject which was published by the Commercial Intelligence Department points out that it is both economically and industrially unsound for India to export her oil seeds instead of manufacturing the oils and oil cakes in India. It allows other countries to reap the manufacturers' profits and at the same time deprives Indian agriculture of the great potential wealth, as cattle-food and manure, contained in the oil cakes. An immense quantity of oil is, as a matter of fact, already manufactured in this country by more or less crude processes. Village oil mills worked by bullocks and presses worked by hand exist in all parts of the country and supply most of the local demand for oil. There has also been a great increase in recent years in the number of oil mills worked by steam or other mechanical power. These crush all the commoner oil seeds and development has been especially marked in the case of mustard oil, castor oil and groundnut oil. In spite of all this there has been a perceptible diminution in the export of oil from India, particularly of cocoanut oil and linseed oil, and an increase in the export of oil seeds, which is particularly marked in the case of copra and groundnuts. The situation created by the War has naturally led to too much discussion of the possibility of developing on a large scale the existing oil-milling industry in India.

There are three difficulties with which any proposal to develop in India an **oil-milling industry** on a great scale is faced. In the first place, there exist high protective tariffs in European countries which encourage the export from India of the raw material rather than the manufactured product. Secondly, there is a better market for the oil cake in Europe than in India and the freight on oil seeds is less than the freight on cake. Thirdly, it is much easier and less expensive to transport oil seeds by sea than it is to transport oil. While this has been the position in the European markets, Indian made oils, other than cocoanut oil, have made enough headway in Eastern markets to suggest the possibility of a development of those markets.

The problem of finding a market for **oil cakes** is equally important. The value of oil cakes is much better appreciated in Europe than in India. The Indian cultivator is prejudiced against the use of machine-made cake as a cattle food or as manure because he considers that it contains less oil and therefore less nourishment than the village-made cake. He is therefore unwilling to buy it except at a reduced price. His prejudices on this point have no justification in fact since experts are agreed that mill cake is a better food for cattle than village-made cake. Even when the mill cake contains less oil than the village cake, there is still more oil in the cake than cattle can digest. The excess of oil in the village cake, where it exists, is a drawback and not an advantage to the use of the cake as food. A considerable amount of demonstration work has been done by the Agricultural Departments of Government in order to remove the cultivator's prejudices and there is said now to be an increasing demand for most classes of mill cake.

Tea.

Among plantation crops in India tea is the most important. The indigenous tea plant, growing in a wild condition, was first discovered in Assam about 1820. It soon drew the attention of the East India Company, which after some enquiries started an experimental garden in 1835. After working for five years it was handed over to the Assam Company. It may be said, however, that the foundations of the present tea industry were laid between 1856 and 1859. Since the latter date the growth of the industry has been phenomenal and "in less than a hundred years the British Empire has become the tea garden and tea-shop of the world."

The following table shows the growth of the industry since 1875 :—

Progress of the Industry.

Year.	Area under tea in 000 acres.	Production in 000,000 lbs.	Year.	Area under tea in 000 acres.	Production in 000,000 lbs.
1875-79 (average).	173	34	1925	672	335
1880-84 ,, ..	241	57	1926	679	364
1885-89 ,,	307	90	1927	690	361
1900-1904 ,, ..	500	195	1928	702	372
1910	533	249	1929	712	401
1915	594	352	1930	802	391
1920	654	322	1931	807	394
			1932	807	433

It will be seen from the above table that during the last fifty years, while the area under tea has risen by over 300 per cent., the production has increased more than ten times.

Assam and Bengal are the two most important centres of the tea industry in India, Assam alone accounting for more than half the total production.

The following table shows the various centres of the industry in the country and their relative importance :—

Provinces.	Area under crop '000 acres.	Production '000 lbs.	Average daily working strength (permanent and temporary).
Assam.—			
Surma Valley	145	73,784	156,489
Assam Valley	285	185,157	400,995
Total ..	430	258,941	557,484
Bengal.—			
Darjeeling	61	23,009	65,522
Jalpaiguri	128	85,427	125,632
Chittagong	6	1,517	5,745
Total ..	195	109,953	196,899
Madras.—			
Nilgiris	32	11,403	30,759
Malabar	13	6,493	12,832
Coimbatore	22	9,700	27,217
Others	*	34	44
Total ..	67	27,630	70,852
Coorg	*	169	620
Punjab	10	1,930	10,995
United Provinces	6	1,489	3,871
Bihar and Orissa	4	853	2,902
Total British India	712	400,965	843,623
Indian States	77	32,033	86,849
Total India ..	789	432,998	930,472

* Less than 500 acres.

Although India produces such large quantities of tea its consumption of tea is comparatively very little, about 57 million lbs. as compared with 421 million lbs. in the United Kingdom and the consumption per head is only .18 lb. as compared with 9.20 lbs. in the United Kingdom. The low domestic consumption, however, enables India to export large quantities to other countries the principal among which is the United Kingdom. It is estimated that India supplies about 40 per cent. of the world demand of this commodity. In 1932-33, 87 per cent. of the total quantity of tea produced in India was exported abroad.

The year 1932-33 was one of the worst for the tea industry. In addition to the world-wide depression, there was considerable over-production with the result that producers of tea all over the world were faced with declining prices and accumulation of stocks. The preference granted to Empire teas did not prove sufficiently effective to check the consumption of cheap Java teas. Besides this there was only a small difference in the price of medium and common teas and there was thus no inducement to grow the former.

To check over-production a scheme was therefore introduced to restrict production and to limit exports. A Bill giving legislative effect to the scheme was passed at the autumn session of the Legislative Assembly. The beneficial effects of this measure are already being seen.

The following table explains briefly the position as regards the *export of tea* from India :—

Year.	Amount exported (million of lbs.)	Value in lakhs of rupees.	Col. 3 as percentage of value of total exports.
1	2	3	4
1926–27	349	29,04	9
1927–28	362	32,48	10
1928–29	360	26,60	8
1929–30	377	26,01	8
1930–31	356	23,56	..
1931–32	341	19,44	..
1932–33	379	17,15	..

The following figures show the proportion of exports of tea from India by sea sent to different parts of the world to the total exports :—

	1928-29 per cent.	1929-30 per cent.
To United Kingdom ..	83.0	84.2
To Rest of Europe ..	2.0	2.2
To Asia	5.8	3.8
To America	5.7	5.8
To Australia	1.6	1.3
To Africa	1.9	2.7
	100	100

A considerable quantity of Indian tea imported into the United Kingdom is normally re-exported to other foreign countries.

From 1923 to 1927 the prices obtained for tea were good; but in 1928 a decline set in, and in 1929 and 1930 prices fell further still. The price of Indian common tea particularly fell more than that of others. While as compared to 1923, 'all tea' fluctuated in the London market within a range of 25 per cent., Indian common tea fell by about 50 per cent.

In 1932-33 the fall in tea prices was almost catastrophic. The average price of tea per lb. realised at the Calcutta auction sales during 1932-33 was 5 as. 2 p. as against 6 as. 5 p. in 1931-32 and 9 as. 4 p. in 1930-31.

The following table gives the average wholesale prices of tea in Mincing Lane from 1922-30, in pence per lb. :—

Year.	North India.	South India.
1922	15.46	14.00
1923	18.76	18.14
1924	19.92	19.02
1925	17.68	17.62
1926	19.36	19.00
1927	19.01	18.88
1928	16.49	15.40
1929	15.72	15.35
1930	14.69	14.52

The following table shows the variations in the average prices of Indian tea sold at auction sales in Calcutta and the index numbers of these prices with base 1901-02 to 1910-11=100. :—

	Average price at auction sales.	
	Price per lb. As. p.	Index Number.
1901-02 to 1910-11 ..	6 0	100
1927-28	14 10	247
1928-29	11 4	189
1929-30	9 11	165
1932-33	5 2	..

The fall in tea prices greatly affected the profits of tea companies. The following table which shows the profit per acre of 65 tea companies gives an idea of the effect on profits of the fall in prices :—

Profit per Acre of 65 Indian Tea Companies.

	1913.	1924.	1928.	1929.
Average profit per mature acre	£ 6-10-7	£ 15-2-0	£ 10-0-0	£ 6-9-0
Average profit in pence per lb.	2.6	6.4	3.84	2.26
Average crop per mature acre	599 lbs.	560 lbs.	625 lbs.	684 lbs.

It is quite clear from the above table that, although the yield per acre has considerably increased, the profits per acre are actually lower than in 1913.

The main reasons of the slump in the tea industry are over-production and intense competition, particularly from Java and Sumatra. In order to counteract the adverse influence of the former, an agreement to restrict output, was reached early in 1930 by associations of tea-growers. For India and Ceylon the degree of restriction to be undertaken varied according to the quality of the tea produced, being greater for the lower qualities than for the finer.

According to the latest agreement between the Indian, Ceylon and Netherlands East Indies produces, for five years from 1933 awards exports are to be restricted and extension of cultivation not to be permitted beyond ½ per cent. of the present planted area.

During the year 1931-32 there was a considerable fall in the wages of workers on tea plantations. The average wages of men, women and children in the Assam Valley were Rs. 12-8-5, 9-8-7 and 6-15-8, respectively, as compared with Rs. 14-0-11, 10-12-7 and 7-4-7, respectively, in 1930-31. In the Surma Valley the average earnings fell from Rs. 9-7-2 to Rs. 7-14-11 in the case of men, Rs. 7-10-5 to Rs. 6-1-1 in the case of women and Rs. 5-3-6 to Rs. 4-9-1 in the case of children.

Under the Ottawa agreement Indian Tea has been granted preference by Great Britain.

The following are the important recommendations made by the Royal Commission on Indian Labour in regard to the Tea Industry The recommendations contained therein are very vital to the future welfare of the industry. and the principal amongst them have therefore been reproduced below :—

(1) No further legislation making a breach of contract of service a criminal offence should be countenanced.

(2) The power conferred by section 3 of the Assam Labour and Emigration Act to prohibit recruitment in Assam in particular localities should be withdrawn immediately and no barrier should be set up to prevent free movement of labour from one part of India to another.

(3) The Assam Labour and Emigration Act should be repealed and a new measure set up in its place.

(4) The Assam Labour Board should be abolished.

(5) The Government of India should appoint a Protector of Immigrants in Assam to look after the interests of emigrants from other Provinces who have not yet settled in Assam.

(6) Every future assisted emigrant to an Assam tea garden should have right after the first three years to be repatriated at the employers' expense.

(7) A worker dismissed before the expiry of the three years should be entitled to repatriation at the expense of the employer dismissing him, unless it is established that the dismissal was due to wilful misconduct.

(8) The establishment of statutory wage-fixing machinery, if practicable, is desirable, and there are reasons for believing that, if proper methods are adopted, a practicable scheme can be devised.

(9) Before legislation is undertaken, one enquiry should be undertaken as to the most suitable form of machinery, the actual rates paid and the variation in these rates between district and district and garden and garden.

(10) Maternity benefits should be provided for by legislation.

(11) The employment, either directly or with their parents, of children before the age of 10 years should be prohibited by law.

(12) Boards of Health and Welfare should be established under statute for convenient planting areas.

Some of the above recommendations have already been taken up by the Government of India for legislative or administrative action.

Coffee.

Such historical evidence as is available on the subject shows that coffee was first introduced into India from Mecca as early as the 16th Century. The first coffee garden was planted by a European about 1840 but the industry thus started did not flourish till 1860.

The production of coffee in India is mostly confined to the South. The area under coffee in 1930 (including plantations of less than 10 acres) was 1,63,000 acres, an increase of 14 per cent. over the figures for 1925.

The total exports of coffee decreased from 2,05,000 cwts. in 1925-26 to 1,50,000 cwts. in 1926-27, but in 1927-28 there was a sharp rise to 2,77,000 cwts. In 1928-29 and 1929-30 the shipments again declined and amounted to 1,98,000 cwts. and 1,84,000 cwts. respectively. In 1932-33 the quantity exported was 173,000 cwts. The principal countries to which Indian coffee was exported were, as usual, the United Kingdom and France.

Not only does India export coffee in large quantities but it also imports it chiefly from Java, Ceylon and the Straits Settlements which it re-exports to Mascat Territory, Iraq and the Bahrein Islands.

The following table gives the figures of the production and exports of Indian coffee:—

Production and Export of Indian Coffee in thousands cwts.

12 Months ending June 30th.	Production.	Export.	Surplus available for Home consumption.
1925	272.1	251.9	20.2
1928	317.5	260.9	56.5
1929	247.8	142.6	105.2
1930	352.0	243.0	109.0

Making allowance for the re-exports from India of imported coffee, the consumption of Coffee in India in 1930 was approaching four times the amount consumed in 1925.

The total production of cured coffee in India during the season 1931-32 was nearly 34 million lbs. as compared with 33 million lbs. during the previous season. Exports declined from 293,000 cwts. in 1930-31 to 156,000 cwts. in 1931-32. The pre-war, was and post-war averages were 255,000 cwts. 216,000 cwts. 226,000 cwts, respectively Local consumption of Indian coffee which has been expanding expanded still further owing to the restrictions on imported coffee. As regards exports, the United Kingdom and France which constitute the principal markets, both increased their respective off-takes very considerably and required 52,000 cwts. and 54,000 cwts. as against 44,000 cwts. and 43,000 cwts. respectively in 1931-32. The total value of the exports of coffee was 1,10 lakhs in 1932-33 as against Rs. 94 lakhs in 1931-32.

The daily average number of persons employed in the coffee plantations in 1929-30 was returned at 92,504 of whom 55,972 were permanently employed and 36,532 temporarily employed as compared with 94,865 persons (44,744 garden and 19,094 outside labour permanently employed and 31,027 temporary outside labour) in 1928-29.

The general trade depression did not fail to affect the coffee industry but in addition to the general slump in trade there was an additional factor which depressed coffee prices and this was the exceptionally heavy crops of Brazilian coffee. Since the year 1925 there has been a general downward trend in coffee prices but until the end of 1929 the fall was comparatively slow, but since then it has been very rapid. This will be clearly seen from the fact that while the average wholesale price of Indian coffee in London was 140s. in 1923 and 127s. in 1929 it fell to 86s. in 1930.

The declared value per cwt. of coffee was Rs. 60-11-9 in 1931-32 as against Rs. 65-8-1 in 1930-31. It rose to Rs. 63-6-7 in 1932-33. The wholesale price in India per cwt. in April 1933 was Rs. 72-0-0.

INDIAN TOBACCO.

The tobacco plant was introduced into India by the Portuguese about the year 1605. As in other parts of the world, it passed through a period of persecution, but its ultimate distribution over India is one of the numerous examples of the avidity with which advantageous new crops or appliances are adopted by the Indian agriculturist. Five or six species of *Nicotiana* are cultivated, but only two are found in India, namely, *N. Tabacum* and *N. rustica*. The former is a native of South or Central America, and is the common tobacco of India. About the year 1829 experiments were conducted by the East India Company towards improving the quality of leaf and perfecting the native methods of curing and manufacturing tobacco. These were often repeated, and gradually the industry became identified with three great centres: namely, (1) Eastern and Northern Bengal (more especially the District of Rangpur); (2) Madras, Trichinopoly, Dindigul, Coconada and Calicut in Southern India; and (3) Rangoon and Moulmein in Burma. Bengal is the chief tobacco growing Province, but little or no tobacco is manufactured there. The chief factories are near Dindigul in the Madras Presidency, though, owing to the imposition of heavy import duties on the foreign leaf used as a cigar wrapper, some cigar factories have been moved to the French territory of Pondicherry.

The question of improving the quality of Indian tobaccos has received the attention of the Botanical section of the Agricultural Research Institute, Pusa, and three Memoirs have been published recording the results of investigations in that direction. The immediate problem at Pusa is the production of a good cigarette tobacco. Many attempts have been made in the past to introduce into India the best varieties of cigarette tobacco from America, but the results have been disappointing. It is now hoped to build up by hybridization new kinds of tobacco, suited to Indian conditions of growth, which possess in addition the qualities necessary to obtain a better price.

Area under Cultivation.—The cultivation of tobacco is very widespread in Burma. The two main varieties are called "Burmese tobacco" and "Havana tobacco." Of the Burmese tobacco there are two main varieties "Seywet-gyi," the large-leaved variety and "Seywet-gyun," a smaller-leaved variety with pointed leaves. The former yields a heavier crop, but the latter gives better quality. There is always a great demand on the market for both the Havana and the Burma tobacco. The smooth leaves of the Havana plant are used for the wrappers and the coarser Burmese leaf for the filling.

The most important tobacco tracts in British India are:—(*i*) the Coimbatore and Dindigal tract of Madras, where the *Usi-Kappal* and *Wara Kappal* varieties are largely grown, the former supplying the Trichinopoly cigar; (*ii*) the Godavari Delta of Madras; (*iii*) the Rangpur tract of Bengal; (*iv*) the Districts of Bihar and Orissa; (*v*) Guzerat in Bombay and (*vi*) the delta tract of Burma.

The season for harvesting varies in different localities ranging from December to June, but the bulk of the crop is harvested during the months of February, March and April. The leaves when quite dry, are assorted and placed in heaps in stacks to ferment. They are then tied into bundles of 25 or 30, a useless leaf being employed for tying each bundle. The leaves are laid perfectly flat, the bundles being fan-shaped. In this condition they are baled, the broom-like ends projecting outwards. By varying the degree of fermentation of the leaves, different qualities of tobacco are obtained. A black variety is used in India for cake tobacco, and this is the most common product, but a certain amount of yellow leaf is grown for cigar making.

Exports.—Exports of unmanufactured tobacco declined by 9 per cent in quantity from 28 million lbs. 1930-31 to 25.4 million lbs. in 1931-32 and by 17 per cent in value from Rs. 97 lakhs to Rs. 81 lakhs. In the United Kingdom, notwithstanding a reduced consumptive demand, Indian tobacco gained public favour with the increasing popularity of Empire grown tobacco and the shimments advanced from 10 million lbs. to 11 million lbs. There were, however, decreases in the exports to Aden, the Straits Settlements and the Netherlands which fell by 1 million lbs. each to 4, 1½ and 1 million lbs. respectively. An interesting development of the trade is the rapid increase in purchases by China which absorbed 3 million lbs. in 1931-32 as compared with 1 million lbs. in the preceding year, while Japanese requirements slightly declined to 3·7 million lbs.

The Cocaine Traffic.

The form of cocaine chiefly used in India is Cocaine Hydrochloride. This salt forms light shining crystals, with a bitterish taste, and is soluble in half its weight of water. The alkaloid cocaine—of which this is a salt—is obtained from the dried leaves of the Erythroxylon Cocaine which grows in Bolivia, Peru, Java, Brazil and other parts of South America. The leaves are most active when freshly dried and are much used by the Natives as a stimulant. Tea made from them has a taste similar to green tea and is said to be very effectual in keeping people awake. In India the Coca plant seems never to have been cultivated on a commercial scale. It has been grown experimentally in the tea districts of Ceylon, Bengal and Southern India and has been found to produce a good quality and quantity of cocaine. As the plant has not been seriously cultivated and as there is no possibility for the present of the drug being manufactured in India, no restrictions have as yet been placed on its cultivation.

Spread of the habit.—The cocaine traffic in India which seems to be reaching in alarming proportion in spite of legislation and strict preventive measures is of comparatively recent growth; though it is impossible to estimate how widespread it was in 1903 when the Bombay High Court for the first time decided that cocaine was a drug included within the definition of an intoxicating drug in the Bombay Abkari Act. Since that date the illegal sale of cocaine in India has largely increased and the various provincial Excise Reports bear witness to the spread of the "Cocaine habit." The consumers of the drug, which is notoriously harmful, are to be found in all classes of society and in Burma even school children are reported to be its victims; but in India as in Paris the drug is mostly used by prostitutes or by men as an aphrodisiac. The habit has spread chiefly to those classes which are prohibited by religion or caste rules from partaking of liquor and the well-known Indian intoxicating drugs.

Smuggling.—So far as the cases already detected show, the persons who smuggle the drug by sea from Europe and places outside India, into India, are chiefly sailors, stewards, firemen and sometimes engineers and officers of foreign ships. The ports through which cocaine enters India are Bombay, Karachi, Calcutta, Madras, Marmagoa and Pondicherry. The main inland distributing centres are Delhi, Lucknow, Meerut, Lahore, Moultan, Surat and Ahmedabad. Delhi especially is notorious for the cocaine trade. Great ingenuity is employed in smuggling cocaine through the Custom houses. It is packed in parcels of newspapers, books, toys and piece-goods and in trunks which have secret compartments. The retail trade in the towns is very cunningly organized and controlled. In addition to the actual retailers, there is a whole army of watchmen and patrols whose duty is to shadow the Excise and Police officials and give the alarm when a raid is contemplated. During the War several cases of importation of Japanese cocaine were detected, the importers being Japanese and Chinese sailors. The original marks on the packets and phials are usually destroyed so that the name of the manufacturing firm may not be found out.

The Review of the Customs Administration in India for 1930-31 states that during the year a total of 17,345 grains of cocaine were seized by the Customs authorities, of which 1,792 ounces were valued at approximately Rs. 1,80,000.

The amount seized is either given to Hospitals in India or destroyed. It is no longer possible to buy cocaine from any betelnut seller as it was ten years ago, but scores of cases in the Police Courts show that the retail trade thrives, though to a diminished extent, in Bombay. High profits ensure the continuance of the trade.

The Law in regard to Cocaine.—This varies in different provinces. A summary of the law in Bombay is as follows: No cocaine can be imported except by a licensed dealer and importation by means of the post is entirely prohibited. The sale, possession, transport and export of cocaine are prohibited except under a license or permit from the Collector of the District. A duly qualified and licensed Medical practitioner is allowed to transport or remove 20 grains in the exercise of his profession; and as far as 6 grains may be possessed by any person if covered by a *bona fide* prescription from a duly qualified Medical practitioner. The maximum punishment for illegal sale, possession, transport, etc., under Act V of 1878 as amended by Act XII of 1912 is as follows: Imprisonment for a term which may extend to one year or fine which may extend to Rs. 2,000 or both and on any subsequent conviction imprisonment for a term which may extend to 2 years or fine which may extend to Rs. 4,000 or both. The law in Bombay has been further amended so as to enable security to be taken from persons who have been convicted of cocaine offences. The new Act also contains a section for the punishment of house owners who let their houses to habitual cocaine sellers.

The Opium Trade.

Mention opium and half the Western world directs its thought to India, as though India were a most unscrupulous producer of the most noxious drug on earth. Refer to the League of Nations' proceedings in regard to opium and again, mainly under the leadership of American representatives, one finds India and the Government of India held up to humanity as traffickers in opium and as thereby obstacles to making the world a better place to live in. In fact, neither India nor the Government of India has anything to be ashamed of in its opium history. Whatever may be the case in other countries, centuries of inherited experience have taught the people of India discretion in the use of the drug and its misuse is a negligible feature in Indian life. Abuse of its properties is rarer in India than the abuse of alcohol in Western countries. So much for the internal position.

The record as regards exports is equally clean. India has never driven hard bargains to secure the sale of the product overseas. Where it has been bought the reason is its superiority over other supplies, because of the stringent regulations by which its manufacture has always, under the British authorities, been regulated in India, in order to secure the purity and cleanliness of the finished product. Directly any importing country has expressed a desire to have the trade reduced, the Government of India have responded by stiffening their restrictions on export. There have, in recent years, mainly at the instance of America, been numerous International conferences with a view to making opium and drugs derived from it more difficult to obtain and in every case it has been found that India had already given the lead in the special regulations which it was proposed to lay down.

The China Trade.—The classic case of Indian restriction of her export opium trade is provided by China. There is a long history of Indo-Chinese negotiations on the subject, but it is unnecessary to go further back into these than 1911. On 8th May of that year, there was drawn up between India and China an agreement under which the Government of India assented to: (1) the payment of an import duty three times the existing amount in return for the promised abolition of provincial taxes; (2) the partial closure of China to Indian opium by provinces, including not only stoppage of transit passes, but also treaty port closure, Shanghai and Canton excepted; (3) the total extinction of trade before 1917 on proof of total cessation of opium production in China; and (4) revision of the agreement on due notice by either party. This agreement, as its terms indicate, was on the side of China the outcome of a professed desire to stamp out the opium trade and opium consumption in her midst. And on her side China, in the agreement, undertook, among other things, to reduce production in China *pari passu* with the reduction of exports from India.

In addition to the limit to the China trade imposed by the agreement, the Government of India undertook in order to lessen the danger of smuggling into China, and as an earnest of their desire to assist that country, strictly to confine the remainder of Indian opium export to the legitimate demands of the non-China markets. A figure was elaborately calculated for these markets and India drastically cut her non-China exports down to it in 1911. In subsequent years, she progressively reduced the permissible export limit and in 1913 she stopped exports to China altogether.

The financial sacrifice thereby undertaken by India in order to help the Chinese in their professed desire for reform amounted to many millions sterling a year. China never carried out her side of the bargain. She is still demonstrably the greatest opium producing country in the world and the only effect of the reduction, and eventual abolition, of imports from India is better trade for Chinese opium producers and merchants and largely increased imports of opium into China from Persia and Turkey.

Agreements observed by India.—The Government of India have carried out to the letter their side of the 1911 agreement. They have gone further. Not only were exports to China stopped and exports to non-China countries in the East limited in accordance with the agreement with China, but exports to non-China countries have, on the voluntary initiative of India, been subjected to successive restraining agreements with the countries concerned. The Government of India introduced, with effect from 1st January 1923, a certificate system recommended by the League of Nations, whereby all exports of opium must be covered by certificates from the Government of the importing country that its consignment is approved and is required for legitimate purposes. The pressure exerted by the League of Nations in this regard was not pressure upon the Government of India but upon the Governments of the importing countries and, so far as India was concerned, the new system was welcomed because it removed from the shoulders of the Government of India all responsibility in regard to opium consumption in the importing countries and laid it upon their own respective Governments. In 1926, in order to fulfil the spirit of her international agreements, India decided, though she was in no way bound by their letter to do so, to reduce her exports to Far Eastern countries for other than medical and scientific purposes by 10 per cent. yearly, so as to extinguish them altogether by December 1935, and effect has been given to that policy at considerable financial sacrifice. India is the only country that has made any considerable sacrifices of the kind.

International Aspect of the Problem.—It was only during the processes and negotiations by which the Indian opium export trade to China was being suppressed that the Opium question began to assume a widely international aspect. This happened on the initiative of the U.S.A., at whose instance an International Opium Commission met at Shanghai in 1909 and formulated a series of recommendations for the suppression of opium smoking and the regulation of the use of opium and morphia. The United States thereafter advanced a further proposal for an International Conference at the Hague. This met on 1st December 1911, and finally drew up a convention on the subject the terms of this document presented no new

ideas to the Government of India. Their provisions India had long observed. As regards morphia and cocaine, with which the Hague Conference concerned itself, the uses of these drugs in India had long been subject to exceedingly strict regulations. But these two drugs, the use of which for other than medical purposes invariably takes the form of dangerous vice, were becoming a menace to the world. They were not included within the scope of the proposals submitted by the U.S.A. for the consideration of the Conference. It was mainly owing to pressure by the Government of India that they were included within the terms finally signed and the rigid and universal application of the articles of the Convention which apply to them would rid the world of the drug evil.

As regards prepared opium, that is to say smoking opium, India does not and never has exported it and the sale of it in India is prohibited. No opium is exported from India to the United States of America. None has been exported to Great Britain by private merchants since 1916. Exports to Great Britain are strictly limited to medicinal requirements and go officially from the Government of India to the British Government. Nor is Indian opium exported to any other country in Europe.

Indian Uses of Opium.—There is a fundamental difference between the problem in India and that in foreign countries, particularly in America and Europe. America and Europe are principally concerned with the problem of the vicious consumption of cocaine and morphia and it is on the experience of the abuse of these drugs in those countries that much of the condemnation of Indian policy is based. It is accepted that the consumption of opium in America and Europe is in effect hardly less disastrous than that of morphia and cocaine. And the reason is that to Americans and Europeans opium is an unaccustomed drug. The habit of its use being both new and strange to them, it is never used to moderation but always abused, and the results have no relation to the result of moderate opium eating in India. The fact appears to be that peoples acquire a tolerance to drugs to the use of which they are long habituated. Opium has been used in India since the 16th century at least. The method of use is eating and in India, generally speaking, eating seems to do little, if any, harm. Smoking, which is the habit of the Far Eastern races, rather than of the Indian races, seems to do much more harm in India than eating, while on the other hand where smoking is in ordinary use competent authorities (*e. g.*, the Royal Commission on opium in Malaya) think eating to be more harmful than smoking.

The Government of India have fully participated in the different International Conferences on the drug question and responded to the obligations which her assent to their conclusions has placed upon her in regard to home consumption. But the principal effect upon India of these International discussions has been to draw the fresh attention of her Government and people to the opium situation in her midst, to cause consultations on the subject between the Government of India and the Indian Legislature and to produce what may be described as considerable intelligent progress in the development of those regulations upon the of opium which are time-honoured.

The Commission of 1893.—Despite all this, the principles of Indian internal opium policy essentially remain, subject to certain changes of scientific opinion in regard to medicinal uses, those laid down by a Royal Commission which was appointed by His Majesty's Government, mainly as a result of the activities of the Society for the Suppression of the Opium Trade, in 1893, to inquire into all the circumstances connected with the production and sale of Indian opium. The Society which was largely instrumental in bringing about the institution of the inquiry, recorded its opinion that the appointment of the Commission constituted "the greatest and most solid forward step that the movement for the suppression of the opium trade has yet made" and considered that the Royal Commission was "as fair-minded and impartial a tribunal as the Society could have desired to hear its case." The results of the enquiry were published in 1895 in seven volumes.

The Royal Commissioners examined with the greatest care the problem of opium consumption in India and in brief they found that it was not only subject to careful regulation but was governed by longstanding and admirable disciplinary habits among the people. Excessive use, they found, was exceptional, and condemned by public opinion. As regards the legal restriction of its use to medical needs, they advised that Government could do no more than limit the extent of cultivation and hold a monopoly of manufacture and wholesale supply and that to draw a line in popular opinion between medical uses and those not strictly so describable would be impracticable. They agreed that the mass of Indian opinion was opposed to prohibition as an unnecessary restriction on individual liberty and interference with established customs and habits. Apart from the religious question they found Indians generally to consider the use of alcohol to be more objectionable, more injurious and more disgraceful.

The Government of Lord Hardinge, in a Despatch to His Majesty's Government in 1911, and that of Lord Reading, in a despatch dated 24th March, 1921, both in the same words took their stand on the conclusion of the Royal Commission "that the opium habit as a vice scarcely exists in India, that opium is extensively used for non-medical and quasi-medical purposes, in some cases with benefit and for the most part without injurious consequences, that the non-medical uses are so interwoven with the medical uses that it would not be practicable to draw a distinction between them in the distribution and sale of the drug and that it is not necessary that the growth of the poppy and the manufacture and sale of opium in British India should be prohibited except for medical purposes." The despatch of Lord Hardinge's Government was approvingly quoted by Lord Reading's Government a few years ago. It has long been recognised that any attempt to eradicate by law the use of opium would be open to all the objections involved in bureaucratic interference with popular custom. Eating it is largely quasi-medical; it is used for the prevention, cure and alleviation of disease, as a prophylactic as an anodyne and as the commonest and most treasured household medicine of the people, to whom qualified medical assistance is inaccessible It is also taken as a solace, as a tonic and as a

restorative to lessen or avert fatigue and in other ways in which, when moderately used, it is relatively innocuous.

Present Policy.—The current attitude and policy of the Government of India were lately explained in their behalf to the League of Nations at Geneva. Their representative declared that any genuine measure of reform initiated by a Provincial Minister in connection with it would receive encouragement and support from the Central Government and showed that the policy of that Government is, and has been, one of non-interference with the moderate use of raw opium, whether the object of the consumer be some real or supposed physical benefit or merely the indulgence of the almost universal desire of human beings, particularly those whose occupations involve exposure or severe bodily exertion, for a stimulant or narcotic. Excessive indulgence it is and always has been the desire of Government to express.

Opium is under the current Indian constitution a Provincial Transferred Subject. Nevertheless, owing to the jealous watching and criticism by observers in every continent, the Government of India called an official All-India Conference, which was opened at Simla by Lord Irwin, on 5th May 1930, to consider the question of certain areas where opium consumption was alleged to be unduly high. This followed on the prosecution of special provincial inquiries by committees set up by the Local Governments at the special instance of His Majesty's Government. The Conference, after an exhaustive discussion of the phenomena presented by the various areas selected for investigation, and in the light of the personal knowledge of the representatives of the different Provinces and of the reports of the local committees, concluded that it appeared that certain parts of Assam and Calcutta might correctly be regarded as having excessive consumption and that Orissa and the Ferozepore District of the Punjab might be held to provide cases for further inquiry. In other cases the Conference considered that there was no evidence of prevalent excess. But they gave a series of examples to show that there were simple explanations showing harmless causes for what appeared to be excessive consumption in many places.

While speaking at the Second Geneva Opium Conference on 19th January 1925, Lord Cecil stated that he had seen figures, apparently taken from a report made by the United States Treasury, to the effect that consumption was greater in America than in India. The estimate framed by the Advisory Committee of the League of the annual requirements of opium for strictly medicinal and scientific purposes is 600 milligrammes or 9·25 grains per capital which is roughly equivalent to 6 Indian seers per 10,000. The Health Committee of the League opined that this could be reduced to 450 milligrammes, or 6.94 grains in countries possessing a well developed medical service. The consumption per capita in British India during 1924-25 worked out at 17·2 grains per head. The rate of consumption has certainly fallen since the compilation of this published figure. The amount includes veterinary uses and these are extensive, though to secure statistics of the quantity of opium given to animals is impossible. Allowance also has to be made for the poor morphine content of Indian opium, which is about 9 per cent. at 90 deg. consistence, and the limited number of medical practitioners trained on Western lines to administer strictly measured doses. Lord Cecil's statement at the League of Nations was received with extreme criticism by Mr. Porter of the American delegation. Mr. Porter said the American statistics cited had been disavowed and that Lord Cecil's observations were a "vile slander upon the people of the United States." Lord Cecil apologised and withdrew his statement. But Mr. Frederick Wallis, Commissioner of Correction, New York, writing in the Current History Magazine for February, 1925, showed the annual per capita consumption in Italy to be one grain, in Germany 2 grains, in England 3 grains, in France 4 grains and in the United States 36 grains. In "Current History" for March, 1925, Mr. Wallis defended this last figure and said that in view of the smuggling into the United States "it would appear to me that the consumption would be much larger than the Government officially gave as 36 grains." It appears now to be recognised by all sane opinion throughout the world that India has the cleanest sheet if any in regard to opium control and export. Even the former ill informed sentimental attacks upon the Government in these respects have almost stopped.

Opium policy has on several occasions during the past few years come under discussion in the Central Indian Legislature and in regard to it the Government of India and the non-official members of the Legislature have been in accord. Cultivation of the poppy in British India is confined, except for a few wild and inaccessible regions, to the area that supplies the Government of India Factory at Ghazipur in the United Provinces where it can only be cultivated under license. Importation into British from the Indian States is controlled by prohibition of imports except on Government account and by agreement with the States concerned that they will not allow exports to British India except by arrangement. Cultivation in British India is progressively and rapidly being reduced. The sown area in British India which produced the crop of 1931-32 was 37,012 acres, *i.e.*, 26.3 per cent of the area in 1922-23, and 20 per cent of that in 1912-13. The process of reduction was stayed in 1931-1932 because it was found that the rate before 1931 had been too rapid so that stocks were brought to a dangerously low level. Progressive and rapid reductuion was resumed in 1933. The consumption of opium in the different provinces in India in 1932 is shown in the following table :—

	lbs.
Madras	62,568
Bombay (including Sind)	51,090
Bengal	64,135
United Provinces	39,880
Punjab	62,210
Burma	41,330
Bihar & Orissa	37,724
Central Provinces and Berar	26,446
Assam	30,512
Administered Areas (*a*)	14,445
Total for British India	4,28,340
Aden	90

(*a*) North-West Frontier Province, Baluchistan, Ajmer-Merwara and Delhi.

The population of British India according to the 1931 Census is 271,526,992, and the consumption per head in British India, excluding Aden, inclusive of the opium used for veterinary purposes but excluding that consumed for medicinal purposes was 11.04 grs. per head of the population. The population of Aden in 1931 was 50,809 and the opium consumption per head was 12.3 grs.

Close supervision is maintained over the licensed vendors in all parts of British India; the conditions of their licenses require that the shops shall always be open to inspection, that no opium shall be sold to children or bad characters, that sales shall only be made on the licensed premises and during the prescribed hours, that only unadulterated Government opium shall be sold, that credit shall not be allowed, that no consumption shall be permitted on the premises, that full accounts shall be maintained and that the names and addresses of purchasers of more than one or two tolas shall be recorded. These conditions are effectively enforced by the excise departments of the various provinces.

GLASS AND GLASSWARE.

The total value of the imports of glass and glassware amounted to Rs. 1,42 lakhs as compared with Rs. 1,22 lakhs in 1931-32. Almost all the important descriptions under this head recorded improvements. Of the principal countries participating in this trade Japan retained the foremost position and the value of her supplies advanced to Rs. 65 lakhs in 1932-33 from Rs. 42 lakhs in 1931-32 and Rs. 55 lakhs in 1930-31.

Manufacture of Glass in India.—Glass was manufactured in India in centuries before Christ and Pliny makes mention of "Indian Glass" as being of superior quality. As a result of recent archæological explorations, a number of small crude glass vessels have been discovered indicative of the very primitive stage of the Industry. But no further traces of ancient Indian Glass Industry as such survive; yet, it is certain that by the sixteenth century it was an established Industry producing mainly bangles and small bottles. The quality of the material was inferior and the articles turned out were rough. Beyond this stage the industry had not progressed until the nineties of the last century. Manufacture of glass in India on modern European lines dates from the nineties of the last century, when some pioneer efforts were made in this line. Since then a number of concerns have been started, a number of them have failed, They mainly devote themselves to the manufacture of bangles and lampware side by side with bottle-making on a small scale. This, therefore, is the criterion which determines the two well-defined classes of the industry in its present stage, (i) indigenous Cottage Industry and (ii) the modern Factory Industry.

(i) The indigenous Cottage Industry which is representated in all parts of the country, but has its chief centres in Firozabad District of U. P., and Belgaum District, in the South, is mainly concerned with the manufacture of cheap bangles made from "glass cakes or blocks" made in larger Factories. The industry is at present in a flourishing state and supplies nearly one-third of the Indian demand for bangles. The quality has been improved by the discovery of new glazing processes and for the present the turnover in this line has gone up to 20 lakhs of rupees a year. But these bangles have now to face a very hard competition from Japan whose "silky" bangles are ousting the old type Indian ones.

(ii) The modern Factory type of organization of this Industry is just in its infancy at present. The existing Factories mostly stop at producing glass cakes for bangles as in Firozabad or simple kind of lampwares and bottles. There is one factory in the United Provinces which since 1929 has been manufacturing sheet glass. Artistic glassware is out of the question and the private capitalists who have to run their concerns mostly with commercial ends do not think it worth their while to spend money and labour on it. War caused a great decrease in volume—though not so much in value which was much increased—of the imports of the lampware, etc., and in order to meet the Indian demand for them, new Factories were started and old revived, which produced only cheap and simple kind of lampware and bottles on small scale. The total production of these Indian Glass Works has not been exactly estimated, but it is generally supposed that they were able to meet in these war years nearly half the Indian demand for this kind of glassware. There are a number of Factories engaged in the production of lampware, of which two or three only produce bottle and carboys also. The chief centres for the former kind are Bombay, Jubbulpore, Allahabad, and Bijhoi and Ambala; while bottles are only manufactured at Naini and Lahore, and recently at Calcutta.

During the later years of the war period, a number of Glass Works were opened in the Bombay Presidency and adjoining districts, local manufacture having been stimulated by the cessation of imports of German, Austrian and Belgian glass.

Causes of failure.—Records of the earlier ventures have shown that the failures in some cases were due in part at least to preventible causes, prominent among which were (1) Lack of enlightened management. (2) Lack of proper commercial basis, as in some cases the proprietors had a number of other more larger concerns to look to. (3) Bad selection of site. An ideal site for a Glass Factory would be determined by the (*a*) nearness of quartz and fire-clay, (*b*) nearness of fuel, and (*c*) by the nearness of market. At least two must be present. In some concerns, two were absent. (4) Specialisation was lacking, some factories in their initial stages trying to manufacture three or four different kinds of glassware simultaneously like lampware, bottles, and bangles, etc. (5) Paucity of sufficient fluid capital for initial expenses for machinery or other improvements or even in some cases for running the concern in the beginning.

But beyond these there are certain real and special causes that contributed to the failure of some of these and hinder the progress of the rest. Chief among them are (1) The Industry is in its infant stage and hence such failures are but incidental. (2) No expert guidance in this line, there is a lack of men and good literature. (3) Paucity of skilled labour of higher type. The present Indian workmen in this line and blowers are few in number and illiterate. They, therefore, master the situation and are unamend able to management. (4) Heavy cost of good fuel, the works usually being situated where good sand and quartz can be obtained, and consequently, in most cases, at a great distance from the coal-fields. (5) To a certain extent, competition from Japan and European countries.

The Indian Industrial Commission say in their Report (Appendix E)., *viz.*: "The Glass Industry, even in its simplest form is highly technical and can be efficiently carried on only by scientifically trained managers and expert workmen. The present stage has been reached by importing men, only partially equipped with the necessary qualifications, from Europe and Japan, and by sending Indian students abroad to pick up what knowledge they can. The glass industry is a closed trade and its secrets are carefully guarded, so that the latter method has not proved conspicuously successful."

Bibliography—Indian Industries Commission Report (Appendix); Indian Munitions Board, Industrial Handbook, etc. "Notes on Glass Manufacture." By C. S. Fox. (Bulletin No. 29 of Indian Industries and Labour, 1922.)

HIDES, SKINS AND LEATHER.

India's local manufactures of skins and leather have steadily increased in recent years. Previous to the outbreak of war, the trade in raw hides in this country was good; there was a large demand for hides, and prices ruled high. On the declaration of war, the trade which had up till then been brisk was seriously dislocated. Exports to enemy countries especially to the great emporium of Indian hides, Hamburg, were stopped, and exporters had to find new markets for the raw material. The raw hide business of India had up to that time been largely, if not quite entirely, in the hands of German firms or firms of German origin and Germany had the largest share of India's raw hides. In the four months before the outbreak of war she took 39 per cent. of the total exports. In 1912-13 she took 32 per cent. and in 1913-14, 35 per cent. Germany still takes the major share of India's raw hides while America takes the bulk of goat skin exports. Shipments of tanned hides go mostly to Great Britain.

The total value of the export trade was Rs. 743 lakhs in 1932-33 compared with Rs. 892 lakhs a year earlier.

Conditions of the Trade.—The trade in hides and skins and the craft in leather manufacture are in the hands either of Mahomedans or of low caste Hindus, and are on that account participated in by a comparatively small community. The traffic is subject to considerable fluctuations concomitant with the vicissitudes of the seasons. In famine years for instance the exports of untanned hides rise to an abnormal figure. The traffic is also peculiarly affected by the difficulty of obtaining capital and by the religious objection which assigns it to a position of degradation and neglect: it has thus become a monopoly within a restricted community and suffers from the loss of competition and popular interest and favour.

Uses of Indian Hides.—The fifteenth report of the Imperial Economic Committee states that Indian hides, both raw and partially tanned, are largely used for the upper leather of boots; partially tanned skins are used for fancy leather articles, bookbinding and for covering the small rollers used in cotton mills for drawing the thread. Raw sheepskins are used for similar articles and also for gloves. They are exported mostly to Germany, France and Italy. Raw goatskins are used almost entirely in the manufacture of glace kid, of which commodity the United States is the chief producer.

The chief markets for Indian raw hides are in Central and Southern Europe, Hamburg being an important distributing centre. Directly after the war an effort was made to direct more of this trade to the United Kingdom, but it has drifted back to Germany. The assortment and grading of raw hides exported from Calcutta before the war, largely the result of the work of German firms established there, had reached a high standard. After the war the trade became somewhat disorganised from a variety of causes, among which may be cited fiscal changes, the entry into the trade of new and at first inexperienced firms, the increased cost of arranging for supervision at up country points. It has, however, been recovering its reputation.

Protecting the Industry.—The report of the Industrial Commission pointed out that the principal difficulty at present in the hides and leather industry was the lack of organisation and expert skill. Government action to foster the industry was first taken in September 1919, when a Bill was introduced in the Imperial Legislative Council further to amend the Indian Tariff Act, 1894. The effect of this Bill was officially described as follows: "It is to impose an export duty of 15 per cent. on hides and skins with a rebate of 10 per cent. on hides and skins exported to other parts of the Empire, and there tanned. Its object is to ensure that our hides and skins shall be converted into fully tanned leather or articles of leather so far as possible in India and failing this in other parts of the Empire, instead of being exported in a raw state for manufacture in foreign countries." Sir George Barnes who was in charge of the Bill and described the tanning industry as one of the most promising Indian industries explained that "the present position is that we have in India at the present time some hundreds of tanneries for the tanning of hides, a large number of which have come into existence in order to satisfy military requirements during the war. We have in fact the foundations of a flourishing tanning industry, but there is reason to fear that it may tend to dwindle and disappear

with the diminution of military requirements, if some other support is not given. We want to keep this industry alive, and we believe that in this case protection in the shape of a 15 per cent. export duty is justifiable and ought to be effective. It is clearly just also that the same measure of protection should be extended to the tanners of skins whose business, as I have already stated, was injured by the necessities of the war. Though Indian tanneries have enormously increased in number during the past three years, they can only deal with a comparatively small proportion of the raw hides and skins which India produces, and it is to the advantage of India and the security of the Empire generally that this large surplus should, so far as possible, be tanned within the Empire, and with this end in view the Bill proposes a 10 per cent. rebate in respect of hides and skins exported to any place within the Empire. I should add that it is proposed to limit by notification the benefit of this rebate to hides and skins actually tanned within the Empire and Indian hides and skins re-exported from an Empire port for the purpose of being tanned abroad will not be entitled to any rebate."

Indigenous methods.—India possesses a large selection of excellent tanning materials such as Acacia pods and bark, Indian sumach, the Tanner's cassia, Mangroves, and Myrabolams. By these and such like materials and by various methods and contrivances, hides and skins are extensively cured and tanned and the leather worked up in response to an immense, though purely local, demand.

INDIAN INVENTIONS AND DESIGNS.

A handbook to the **Patent Office** in India which is published by the Government Press, Calcutta, gives the various Acts, rules, and instructions bearing on the subject together with hints for the preparation of specifications and drawings, hints for searchers and other valuable information that has not hitherto been readily accessible to the general public in so convenient a form. In the preface the Controller of Patents and Designs explains the scope of the Patent laws in India and indicates wherein they differ from English law and procedure.

The foundation of patent legislation throughout the world lies in the English "Statute of Monopolies" which was enacted in 1623, the 21st year of King James the First. In part this Act has been repealed, but the extant portion of the more important section 6 is as follows:—"Provided also that any declaration beforementioned shall not extend to any letters patent and grants of privilege for the term of fourteen years or under, hereafter to be made of the sole working or making of any manner of new manufactures within this realm to the true and first inventor and inventors of such manufactures, which others at the time of making of such letters patent and grants shall not use, so as also they be not contrary to the law nor mischievous to the State by raising prices of commodities at home, or hurt of trade, or generally inconvenient; the said fourteen years to be accomplished from the date of the first letters patent or grants of such privilege hereafter to be made, but that the same shall be of such force as they should be if this Act had never been made, and of none other."

The existing Indian Patent Law is contained in the Indian Patents and Designs Act, 1911 as amended in 1930 and the Rules of 1933. The Patent Office does not deal with trade marks or with copyright generally in books, pictures, music and other matters which fall under the Indian Copyright Act III of 1914. There is, in fact, no provision of law in British India for the registration of Trade Marks which are protected under the Merchandise Marks Act, (IV of 1889) which forms Chapter XVIII of the Indian Penal Code.

On the whole, Indian law and procedure closely follow that in the United Kingdom for the protection of inventions and the registration of designs, as they always have done in matters of major interest. One main difference exists, however, as owing to the absence of provision of law for the **registration of Trade Marks**, India cannot become a party to the International Convention under which certain rights of priority are obtainable in other countries.

The first Indian Act for granting exclusive privileges to inventors was passed in 1856, after an agitation that had been carried on fitfully for some twenty years. Difficulties arising from an uncertainty as to the effect of the Royal Prerogative prevented earlier action, and, owing to some informalities the Act itself was repealed in the following year. In 1859 it was re-enacted with modifications, and in 1872 the Patterns and Designs Protection Act was passed. The protection of Inventions Act of 1883, dealing with exhibitions, followed, and then the Inventions and Designs Act of 1888. All these are now replaced by the present Act of 1911.

The existing Acts extend to the whole of British India, including British Baluchistan and the Santhal Parganas. This of course includes Burma, but it does not embrace the Native States. Of the latter Hyderabad (Deccan), Mysore, Gwalior, Baroda, Travancore, Marwar, Cochin, Kashmir and Jamu have ordinances of their own, for which particulars must be obtained from the Government of the States in question as they are not administered by the Indian Patent Office in Calcutta. A patent granted in British India does not extend to the United Kingdom or to any other British Possession, but under the reciprocal arrangement an applicant for an Indian patent has 12 months priority in the United Kingdom, Australia, Canada, New Zealand, the Irish Free State, the Union of South Africa and Ceylon and *vice versa*. The object of the Act of 1911 was to provide a simpler more direct, and more effective procedure in regard both to the grant of patent rights and to their subsequent existence and operation. The changes made in the law need not here be referred to in detail. They

gave further protection both to the inventor by providing that his application should be kept secret until acceptance, and to the public, by increasing the facilities for opposition at an effective period. At the same time a Controller of Patents and Designs was established, with power to dispose of many matters previously referred to the Governor-General in Council, and provision was made for the grant of a sealed "patent" instead of for the mere recognition of an "exclusive privilege." The provisions of the Act follow with the necessary modifications those of the British Inventions and Designs Act of 1907.

New Legislation.—Part I (Patents) of the Act of 1911 has been further amended by Act VII of 1930 and includes the following :—

If an Application comprises more than one invention the additional inventions may be made the subject matter of additional applications bearing the same date as the original application.

The term of the Patent will be 16 years instead of 14 years.

Patent of Addition will be granted on the original patent without the payment of additional renewal fees but the additional patent will expire with the date of the original patent.

Fresh provisions are made for the use of an invention by Government.

Government will grant licences to the public on application if the Patentee refuses to do so on reasonable terms.

Several other facilities are given under the Indian Amended Act of 1930 on the lines of the present British Patent Act.

The period of opposition to the grant of a patent has been extended to 4 months from the date of the notification of the "Acceptance" of the application, instead of 3 months. The provisions contained in the Indian Patents and Designs Rules, as regarded divisional applications in respect of inventions covered by the original application and divided therefrom, have been amplified and embodied in the Act itself. Section 10 has been amended to empower the Controller to decide disputes about proceeding with the applications for patents, that may occur between the applicants and third parties, or between joint applicants among themselves.

The time for appeal to the Governor-General in Council has been extended to 3 months, instead of 2 months from the date of the decision appealed against. A new Section 21A has been provided relating to secret patents. A new Section 35A has been provided for giving relief in suits for infringement of patents in respect of valid claim, despite the existence of invalid claims in the specification.

The definition has been altered as to the person entered on the Register as the grantee or proprietor of the patent. Section 78A (4) has been amended to enable British India to enter into reciprocal arrangement with the Indian States.

The definition of the term "Design" has been altered, and the time for applying to secure for the registration in India, the priority date of the application in the United Kingdom or other parts of the British Empire, has been extended to 6 months.

Printed Specification of applications for patents, which have been accepted (One Rupee per copy), may be seen free of charge, together with other publications of the Patent Office at the following places:—

AHMEDABAD..R. C. Technical Institute.
ALLAHABAD..Public Library.
BANGALORE .Indian Institute of Science.
BARODA ..Department of Commerce and Industry.
BOMBAY ..Record Office.
" ..Victoria Jubilee Technical Institute, Matunga.
" ..The Bombay Textile and Engineering Association, No. 1A, Sussex Road, Parel.
CALCUTTA ..Patent Office, No. 1, Council House Street.
" ..Bengal Engineering College, Sidpur.
CAWNPORE ..Office of the Director of Industries, United Provinces.
CHINSURAH ..Office of the Commissioner, Burdwan Division.
CHITTAGONG..Office of the Commissioner, Chittagong Division.
DACCA ..Office of the District Board, Dacca.
DELHI ..Office of the Deputy Commissioner.
HYDERABAD .Industries and Commerce Department of His Highness the Nizam's Government.
KARACHI ..Office of the City Deputy Collector.
LAHORE ..Punjab Public Library.
LONDON ..The Patent Office, 25, Southampton Buildings, W. C.
MADRAS ..Record Office, Egmore.
" ..College of Engineering.
MYSORE ..Office of the Secretary to Government, General and Revenue Department.
NAGPUR ..Victoria Technical Institute.
POONA ..College of Engineering.
RANCHI ..Office of the Director of Industries, Bihar & Orissa.
RANGOON ..Office of the Revenue Secretary, Government of Burma.
ROORKEE ..Thomason College.
SHOLAPUR ..Office of the Collector.

ABSORPTION OF GOLD (both coin and bullion) IN INDIA

(In lakhs of Rupees.)

	Average of 5 years ending							1928-29.	1929-30.	1930-31.	1931-32.	1932-33.
	1898-99.	1903-04.	1908-09.	1913-14.	1918-19.	1923-24.	1928-29.					
1. Production (*b*) ..	2,01	2,95	3,40	3,36	3,39	2,72	2,25	2,13	2,07	1,87	2,03	2,54
2. Imports ..	5,48	13,00	16,85	32,79	(*a*) 9,88	(*a*)30,66	33,68	21,22	14,23	13,24	2,80	1,32
3. Exports ..												
4. Net imports (*i.e.*, 2—3) ..	3,23	6,82	7,50	4,64	(*a*) 3,01	(*a*) 8,28	18	2	1	49	60,78	66,84
5. Net addition to stock (*i.e.*, 1+4)	2,25	6,18	9,35	28,15	(*a*) 6,87	(*a*)22,38	33,50	21,20	14,22	12,75	—57,98*	—65,52*
6. Balance held in mint and Government Treasuries and Currency and Gold Standard Reserves	4,26	9,13	12,75	31,51	10,26	25,19	35,75	23,33	16,29	14,62	—55,90	62,98
7. Increase (+) or decrease (—) in stock held in mints, etc., as compared with the preceding year	66	12,88	6,57	19,11	16,93	27,92	25,79	32,22	32,27	34,18	41,47	41,53
8. Net absorption (*i.e.*, 5—7) ..	+61	+2,67	—3,25	+4,47	—1,02	+99	+4,95	+2,46	+5	+1,91	+7,29	+ 6
9. Progressive total of additions to stock ..	3,65	6,46	16,00	27,04	11,28	24,11	30,80	20,87	16,24	12,71	—63,19	—63,04
10. Net progressive absorption ..	61,86	1,01,19	1,58,81	2,77,15	3,72,61	4,66,83	6,51,53	6,98,41	7,14,70	7,29,32	6,73,42	6,10,44
	61,19	88,31	1,52,24	2,58,04	3,55,68	4,38,92	6,25,75	6,66,20	6,82,44	6,95,15	6,31,96	5,68,92

Note.—The quinquennial average figures are inserted only for comparative purposes. The progressive total of additions to stock (item 9) and net progressive absorption (item 10) are calculated on the annual figures and are not based on these averages. Item 9 is the sum of the yearly figures in item 5 and item 10 the sum of the yearly figures in item 8.

(*a*) Excludes gold imported and exported on behalf of the Bank of England.

(*b*) Figures are for calendar year ending 31st December.

* Net exports.

Insurance in India.

According to the report by Mr. N. Mukarji, Actuary to the Government of India, contained in the Indian Insurance Year Book, 1932, the number of companies subject to the provisions of the Indian Life Assurance Companies Act of 1912 and the Indian Insurance Companies Act of 1928 is 282 of which 136 companies are constituted in India and 146 companies are constituted outside India. Of the 136 Indian companies, 60 are established in the Bombay Presidency, 25 in Bengal, 21 in the Madras Presidency, 14 in the Punjab, 8 in Delhi, 2 each in the Central Provinces, Ajmer and Burma and 1 each in Burma and the U. P. Of the 146 non-Indian companies 71 are constituted in the United Kingdom, 31 in the British Dominions and Colonies, 18 in the Continent of Europe, 12 in the United States of America, 9 in Japan and 5 in Java.

Most of the Indian companies carry on life assurance business only. They are 103 in number and of the remaining 33 Indian companies, 20 carry on life business along with other insurance business and 13 carry on insurance business other than life.

Besides the Indian life offices, there are some pension funds, mostly connected with Government offices, which are exempt from the operation of the Act and the Indian Post Office Insurance Fund is also exempt. As regards non-Indian companies, most of them carry on insurance business other than life. Out of the total number of 146 non-Indian companies, 122 carry on insurance business other than life, 10 carry on life business only and 14 carry on life business along with other insurance business. Of the latter 24 companies, 16 are constituted in the United Kingdom, 6 in the British Dominions and Colonies and 1 each in Germany and Switzerland.

The total new **life assurance business** effected in India during 1931 amounted to 125,000 policies assuring a sum of nearly 26¾ crores and yielding a premium income of 1⅞ crore, of which the new business done by Indian companies amounted to 97,000 policies assuring a sum of 17 crores and having a premium income of 1 crore. The share of the British companies in respect of new sums assured is 3¼ crores, of the Dominion and Colonial companies about 6 crores and of the single German company ¼ crore.

The **average sum assured** under the new policies issued by Indian companies is Rs. 1,764 and under those issued by non-Indian companies Rs. 3,400.

The total life assurance business effected in India and remaining in force at the end of 1931 amounted to 714,000 policies assuring a total sum of 168 crores including reversionary bonus additions and having a premium income of very nearly 8½ crores. Of this the share of Indian companies is represented by 502,000 policies assuring a sum of 94 crores and having a premium income of 4¼ crores.

Most of the Indian companies now transact life assurance business on the scientific principle but there are still some which carry on business on the **dividing plan** under which the sum assured is not fixed but depends on the division of a portion of each year's premium income amongst the claims arising in that year. The Government of India Actuary says in his latest annual report that the main defect of dividing insurance business is that policy-holders in each class are charged the same rate of premium of subscription irrespective of their age on admission ranging even in some cases from 18 to 60 years. "Business of this nature is not only unsound but is apt to lend itself to the practice of fraud on the part of policy-holders and agents and later on by the company. It has been declared to be the curse of insurance enterprise in India." Before the Act of 1912 was passed there were numerous companies which transacted life assurance business on the dividing plan and most of them came to grief. Of such companies which were in existence at the time of the passing of the Act the majority have disappeared and some have stopped issuing policies on the dividing plan. A few new companies have taken up this dividing insurance business and it will not be long before they realise their mistake.

Some Indian life offices have extended their operations outside India, mostly in British East Africa and in the Near East. The total new sums assured by these offices outside India in 1931 amounted to 66 lakhs yielding a premium income of 4 lakhs and the total sum assured including reversionary bonus additions inforce at the end of 1931 amounted to 4 crores, having a premiums income of 21½ lakhs.

The total new annuity business effected during 1931 was for the amount of about ¼ lakh per annum, which was equally shared by Indian and non-Indian companies. The total annuity, business remaining in force at the end of the year was for the amount of 3⅜ lakhs per annum, of which the amount payable by Indian companies was a little over 1½ lakhs per annum.

The life assurance business of Indian companies which steadily increased during 11 years up to 1929 received a setback in 1930 owing to the general financial depression. The following table shows the **new business effected** since 1921 in each year and the total business remaining in force at the end of the year.

Year.	New business written during the year.	Total business remaining in force at the end of the year.
1921	5,47 lakhs.	34 crores.
1922	5,64 ,,	37 ,,
1923	5,85 ,,	39 ,,
1924	6,89 ,,	42 ,,
1925	8,15 ,,	47 ,,
1926	10,35 ,,	53 ,,
1927	12,77 ,,	60 ,,
1928	15,41 ,,	71 ,,
1929	17,29 ,,	82 ,,
1930	16,50 ,,	89 ,,
1931	17,76 ,,	98 ,,

A large portion of the new business transacted by the younger and less firmly established companies lapsed within a short time and the growth of total business in their case is not commensurate with the volume of new business transacted in each year. The total business which lapsed during 1931 was 7⅞ crores and was over 40 per cent. of the total new business.

The **net income** of the Indian companies under their life assurance business from premiums and interest amounted to 5⅝ crores in 1931 and was in excess of ½ crore over the corresponding income of the previous year. Claims amounted to 1⅛ crore and exceeded the previous year's figure by 12 lakhs. Claims by death showed an increase 5 lakhs and claims by survivance an increase of 7 lakhs respectively.

The life assurance funds increased by nearly crores during 1931 and amounted to 22¼ crores at the end of that year. The average rate of interest earned on the life funds during the year was a little less than 5¼ per cent.

The **Post Office Insurance Fund** was instituted by the Government of India in 1883 for the benefit of the postal employees but gradually admission to it has been thrown open to almost all classes of Government servants who are employed on civil duties. The following are some of the important particulars relating to the business of the Fund during the four years 1929 to 1932:—

Year ending 31st March.	New business effected during the year.		Total business remaining in force at the end of the year.		Total income.	Life Assurance fund at the end of the year.
	Number of policies.	Total sums assured.	Number of policies.	Total sums assured and bonuses.		
1929 ..	7,582	1,43,41,000	64,474	13,02,47,000	63,17,000	3,64,44,000
1930 ..	8,894	1,49,56,000	71,479	14,17,81,000	69,36,000	4,02,80,000
1931 ..	9,710	1,50,38,000	79,058	15,32,85,000	76,05,000	4,46,46,000
1932 ..	6,484	98,15,000	83,165	15,88,89,000	81,39,000	4,91,47,000

Fire, Marine and Miscellaneous Insurance Business.—The net Indian premium income of all companies under insurance business other than life assurance during 1931 was 2¼ crores of which the Indian companies' share was ⅝ crore and that of the non-Indian companies 1⅞ crore. The total amount is composed of—

1,28 lakhs from fire.
43 lakhs from marine, and
77 lakhs from miscellaneous insurance business.

The Indian companies received—
28 lakhs from fire,
7 lakhs from marine, and
24 lakhs from miscellaneous insurance business.

The total assets of Indian companies amount to 29 crores of which stock exchange securities from the bulk. These securities are shown in the account at a net value of 20⅜ crores. Mortgage loans on policies and on stocks and shares are shown at 4 crores; land and house property are valued at 1½ crore; deposits, cash and stamps, are shown at ⅞ crore, accrued interest at ½ crore; agents balances and other outstanding items at 1⅛ crore; and loans on personal security and other miscellaneous assets at ⅜ crore. Investments of Indian companies outside India consist mainly of stock exchange securities and amount to ⅞ crore.

Customs Tariff.

General import duties are levied for fiscal purposes and not for the protection of Indian industries. Any duties imposed for protective purposes are on the recommendations of the Tariff Board, as accepted or amended by Government. Under the terms of the Ottawa Agreement a large range of British and Colonial goods received a preferential rate of duty from January 1, 1933. But the tariff has been modified with a view to admitting free or at favourable rates articles, the cheap import of which was considered necessary in the interests of the country. Thus certain raw materials, manures, agricultural implements and dairy appliances are admitted free. Machinery, printing materials, etc., are assessed at 10 per cent. and iron and steel railway material and ships at 15½ per cent.

Re-Imports.—Articles of foreign production on which import duty has been once paid, if subsequently exported, are on re-import exempted from duty on the following conditions:—

The Collector of Customs must be satisfied—

(1) of the identity of the articles;
(2) that no drawback of duty was paid on their export;
(3) that the ownership has not changed between the time of re-export and subsequent re-import;
(4) that they are private personal property re-imported for personal use, not merchandise for sale;
(5) that not more than three years have passed since they were re-exported.

Duty is, however, charged on the cost of alterations, additions, renovations and repairs, involving the substitution of new parts, done to the articles while abroad, which should be declared by the person re-importing the articles in a form which will be supplied to him at the time of re-importation.

To facilitate identification on re-importation an export certificate giving the necessary particulars should be obtained from the Customs Department at the time of shipment of the articles which should be tendered for examination.

This concession of free entry on re-importation is not extended for the benefit of Companies or Corporate Bodies.

Drawbacks.—When any goods, capable of being easily identified which have been imported by sea into any Customs port from any foreign port, and upon which duties of Customs have been paid on importation, are re-exported by sea from such Customs port to any foreign port, or as provisions or stores for use on board a ship proceeding to a foreign port, seven-eighths of such duties shall, except as otherwise hereinafter provided, be repaid as drawback:

Provided that, in every such case, the goods be identified to the satisfaction of the Customs Collector at such Customs port and that the re-export be made within two years from the date of importation, as shown by the records of the Custom House, or within such extended term as the Chief Customs Authority, or Chief Customs Officer on sufficient cause being shown in any case determines, provided further that the Chief Customs Officer shall not extend the term to a period exceeding 3 years.

When any goods, having been charged with Import duty at one Customs port and thence exported to another, are re-exported by sea as aforesaid, drawback shall be allowed on such goods as if they had been so re-exported from the former port:

Provided that, in every such case, the goods be identified to the satisfaction of the Officer-in-Charge of the Custom House at the port of final exportation, and that such final exportation be made within three years from the date on which they were first imported into British India.

No drawback shall be allowed unless the claim to receive such drawback be made and established at the time of re-export.

No such payment of drawback shall be made until the vessel carrying the goods has put out to sea, or unless payment be demanded within six months from the date of entry for shipment.

Every person, or his duly authorised agent, claiming drawback on any goods duly exported, shall make and subscribe a declaration that such goods have been actually exported, and have not been re-landed and are not intended to be re-landed at any Customs port; and that such person was at the time of entry outwards and shipment, and continues to be, entitled to drawback thereon.

Merchandise Marks.—Importers into India especially from countries other than the United Kingdom, would do well to make themselves acquainted with the law and regulations relating to merchandise marks. In Appendix II will be found the principal provisions of the Indian Merchandise Marks Act, 1889, and connected Acts and the notifications issued thereunder. The following summary of the regulations in force does not claim to be exhaustive. For those seeking more complete information a reference is suggested to the Merchandise Marks Manual which is published under the authority of the Government of India and obtainable of all agents for the sale of Indian Government publications.

Infringements or offences may be classified conveniently under four heads:—

1. Counterfeit trade marks;
2. Trade descriptions that are false in respect of the country of origin;
3. Trade descriptions that are false in other respects; and
4. Lengths not properly stamped on piece-goods.

NOTE 1.—In the expression "*ad valorem*" used in these Schedules the reference is to "real value" as defined in section 30 of the Sea Customs Act, 1878 (VIII of 1878), unless an article has a tariff value assigned to it.

NOTE 2.—Tariff-valued heads are based on the ordinary trade description of each article and cover all reduced grades and mixtures unless they are separately provided for.

NOTE 3.—In this publication, the expression "standard rate of duty" means, in the case of articles included in Parts VIII and IX of the Statutory Tariff, the standard rate of duty as opposed to the preferential rate, and, in the case of other articles, the ordinary rate of duty including surcharges, if any.

(The following details of the Indian Customs Tariff are published by courtesy of the Government of India.)

Schedule II—(Import Tariff.)

Serial No.	No. in the Statutory Schedule.	Names of Articles.	Per	Tariff Values.	Standard rate of duty.	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of—	
						The United Kingdom.	A British Colony.
		I.—Food, Drink and Tobacco.					
		FISH.		Rs. a. p.			
1	27	FISH, SALTED, wet	Indian maund of 82⅔ lbs. avoirdupois weight.	..	Such rate or rates of duty not exceeding one rupee as the Governor-General in Council may, by notification in the *Gazette of India*, from time to time prescribe,* plus 6¼ per cent. *Ad valorem*.	....	....
		Tariff values—					
		(*i*) Soormai	Indianmaund	6 11 0			
1A	214	(*ii*) All other sorts	,,	5 0 0			
FISH, SALTED, dry			cwt.	..	Rs. 3-8	.. ..	Re. 1-8.
1B	161	FISH, UNSALTED, dry	..	*Ad valorem*.	30 per cent.	....	20 per cent.
		Tariff value—					
		Bomlas	cwt.	7 12 9			

* The rate on the 1st January, 1934, and until further notice is annas 9¾.

Schedule II—(Import Tariff)—*continued.*

Serial No.	No. in the Statutory Schedule.	Names of Articles.	Per	Tariff Values.	Standard rate of duty.	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of—	
						The United Kingdom.	A British Colony.
		I.—Food, Drink and Tobacco—*contd.*					
		FISH—*contd.*		Rs. a. p.			
2	65	FISH, not otherwise specified	..	*Ad valorem.*	25 per cent.	....	....
3	66	FISHMAWS, including singally and sozille, and sharkfins.	..	*Ad valorem.*	25 per cent.	....	....
		Tariff values—					
		Sharkfins, loose or in bundles from Arabian and Persian Gulf ports.	cwt.	4 0 0			
		Sharkfins, loose or in bundles from China and the Straits:	lb.	2 0 0			
		FRUITS AND VEGETABLES.					
3A	27A	CURRANTS	cwt.	..	Re. 1-4.	....	....
4	162	FRUITS AND VEGETABLES, all sorts, fresh, dried, salted or preserved, not otherwise specified, including vanilla beans.*	..	*Ad valorem.*	30 per cent.	....	20 per cent.
		Tariff values—					
		Almonds without shell	cwt.	50 4 0			
		Almonds kagazi Persian in the shell ..	,,	48 9 0			
		Almonds in the shell Persian	,,	9 13 0			
		Cashew or cajoo kernels, not skinned ..	,,	24 6 0			
		Coconuts, Straits, Dutch East Indies and Siam—					
		Husked	thousand	55 0 0			
		Unhusked	,,	73 0 0			
		Coconuts, Maldives	,,	21 0 0			
		Coconuts, other	,,	32 0 0			

* Under Government of India, Finance Department (Central Revenues) Notification No. 14, dated the 9th April 1932, as amended by Notification No. 53, dated the 20th August 1932, raw cashew nuts are exempt from payment of import duty

Schedule II—(Import Tariff)—*continued.*

Serial No.	No. in the Statutory Schedule.	Names of Articles.	Per	Tariff Values.	Standard rate of duty.	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of—	
						The United Kingdom.	A British Colony.
		I.—Food, Drink and Tobacco—*contd.*		Rs. a. p.			
4*cld.*	162	FRUITS AND VEGETABLES—*contd.*					
		FRUITS AND VEGETABLES—*contd.*					
		Tariff values—contd.					
		Dates, dry, in bags—					
		Basra (Iraq) dates	cwt.	8 0 0			
		All other sorts	,,	4 12 0			
		Dates, wet, in bags, baskets and bundles	,,	3 8 0			
		Dates, wet, packed in other receptacles	,,	8 0 0			
		Figs, dried, Persian	,,	6 4 0			
		Figs, dried, European	,,	11 8 0			
		Garlic	,,	7 8 0			
		Pistachio nuts	,,	40 0 0			
		Potatoes	,,	5 4 0			
		Raisins, red, Persian Gulf	,,	6 8 0			
		GRAIN, PULSE AND FLOUR.					
5	68	FLOUR except sago flour	..	..	Wheat flour—Rs. 2-8 per cwt., all others—25 per cent. *ad valorem.*	....	....
		Tariff value—					
6	1A	Cassava or Tapioca flour	cwt.	5 8 0			
		GRAIN AND PULSE, all sorts, including broken grains and pulse, but excluding flour (see serial No. 5 and 7).*	..	..	Wheat—Rs. 2 per cwt., all others —free.	....	....
7	1B	SAGO FLOUR	..	..	Free.	....	....

* Under Government of India, Finance Department (Central Revenues) Notification No. 14. dated the 9th April 1932, wheat imported by or on behalf of any person who is engaged in milling flour for export is exempt from payment of import duty, provided that such person, before clearance of the wheat for consumption or from bond, as the case may be, has produced documentary evidence to the satisfaction of the Customs Collector that he has entered into a contract to sell an equal quantity of wheat flour to be shipped to a destination outside India before a date specified in the contract.

Schedule II—(Import Tariff)—*continued.*

Serial No.	No. in the Statutory Schedule.	Names of Articles.	Per	Tariff Values.	Standard rate of duty.	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of—	
						The United Kingdom.	A British Colony.
		I.—Food, Drink and Tobacco—*contd.*					
8	215	LIQUORS.					
		ALE AND BEER	In barrels or other containers containing 27 oz. or more per Imperial gallon.	..	Re. 1-2.	Fourteen annas.	....
			In bottles containing less than 27 oz. but not less than 20 oz., per bottle.	..	Three annas.	Two annas and four pies.	....
			In bottles containing less than 13½ oz. but not less than 10 oz., per bottle.	..	One anna and six pies.	One anna and two pies.	....
			In bottles containing less than 6¾ oz. but not less than 5 oz. per bottle.	..	Nine pies.	Seven pies.	....

Schedule II—(Import Tariff)—*continued.*

Serial No.	No. in the Statutory Schedule.	Names of Articles.	Per	Tariff Values.	Standard rate of duty.	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of—	
						The United Kingdom.	A British Colony.
		I.—Food, Drink and Tobacco—*contd.*					
		LIQUORS—*contd.*					
11—*contd.*	30	SPIRITS (other than denatured spirit)—*contd.* PROVIDED THAT— (*a*) the duty on any article included in this item shall in no case be less than the duty which would be charged if the article were included in Part V of the Statutory Schedule (*i.e.*, 25 per cent *ad valorem*); (*b*) where the unit of assessment is the imperial gallon of the strength of London proof, the duty shall be increased or reduced in proportion as the strength is greater or less than London proof.					
12	216	SPIRITS— (1) BITTERS— (*i*) entered in such a manner as to indicate that the strength is not to be tested.	Imperial gallon.	..	Rs. 50.	....	Rs. 45.
		(*ii*) not so entered	Imperial gallon of the strength of London proof.	..	Rs. 37-8.	...	Rs. 33-12.
		(2) Drugs and medicines containing spirit— (*i*) entered in such a manner as to indicate that the strength is not to be tested.	Imperial gallon.	..	Rs. 40.	Rs. 36.	Rs. 36.
		(*ii*) not so entered	Imperial gallon of the strength of London proof.	..	Rs. 29.	Rs. 26.	Rs. 26.

Schedule II—(Import Tariff)—*continued.*

Serial No.	No. in the Statutory Schedule.	Names of Articles.	Per	Tariff Values.	Standard rate of duty.	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of—	
						The United Kingdom.	A British Colony.
		I.—Food, Drink and Tobacco—*contd.*					
		LIQUORS—*contd.*					
12—*contd.*	216	SPIRITS—*contd.*					
		(3) Perfumed spirits	Imperial gallon.	..	Rs. 60.	Rs. 52-8.	....
		(4) Rum	Imperial gallon of the strength of London proof.	..	Rs. 37-8.	....	Rs. 33-12.
		PROVIDED THAT— (*a*) on any article chargeable under this item with the lower rate of duty, the duty levied shall in no case be less than 20 per cent. *ad valorem*, and on any article chargeable under this item with the higher rate of duty, the duty levied shall in no case be less than 30 per cent. *ad valorem*; (*b*) where the unit of assessment is the Imperial gallon of the strength of London proof, the duty shall be increased or reduced in proportion as the strength is greater or less than London proof.					

Schedule II—(Import Tariff)—*continued.*

Serial No.	No. in the Statutory Schedule.	Names of Articles.	Per	Tariff Values.	Standard rate of duty.	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of—	
						The United Kingdom.	A British Colony.
		I.—Food, Drink and Tobacco—*contd.*					
		LIQUORS—*contd.*					
11—*contd.*	30	SPIRITS (other than denatured spirit)—*contd.*					
		PROVIDED THAT—					
		(*a*) the duty on any article included in this item shall in no case be less than the duty which would be charged if the article were included in Part V of the Statutory Schedule (*i.e.*, 25 per cent *ad valorem*);					
		(*b*) where the unit of assessment is the imperial gallon of the strength of London proof, the duty shall be increased or reduced in proportion as the strength is greater or less than London proof.					
		SPIRITS—					
12	216	(1) BITTERS—					
		(*i*) entered in such a manner as to indicate that the strength is not to be tested.	Imperial gallon.	..	Rs. 50.	....	Rs. 45.
		(*ii*) not so entered	Imperial gallon of the strength of London proof.	..	Rs. 37-8.	...	Rs. 33-12.
		(2) Drugs and medicines containing spirit—					
		(*i*) entered in such a manner as to indicate that the strength is not to be tested.	Imperial gallon.	..	Rs. 40.	Rs. 36.	Rs. 36.
		(*ii*) not so entered	Imperial gallon of the strength of London proof.	..	Rs. 29.	Rs. 26.	Rs. 26.

Schedule II—(Import Tariff)—*continued.*

Serial No.	No. in the Statutory Schedule.	Names of Articles.	Per	Tariff Values.	Standard rate of duty.	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of—	
						The United Kingdom.	A British Colony.
		I.—Food, Drink and Tobacco—*contd.*					
		LIQUORS—*contd.*					
12—*contd.*	216	SPIRITS—*contd.*					
		(3) Perfumed spirits	Imperial gallon.	..	Rs. 60.	Rs. 52-8.	....
		(4) Rum	Imperial gallon of the strength of London proof.	..	Rs. 37-8.	....	Rs. 33-12.
		PROVIDED THAT—					
		(*a*) on any article chargeable under this item with the lower rate of duty, the duty levied shall in no case be less than 20 per cent. *ad valorem*, and on any article chargeable under this item with the higher rate of duty, the duty levied shall in no case be less than 30 per cent. *ad valorem*;					
		(*b*) where the unit of assessment is the Imperial gallon of the strength of London proof, the duty shall be increased or reduced in proportion as the strength is greater or less than London proof.					

Schedule II—(Import Tariff)—*continued.*

Serial No.	No. in the Statutory Schedule.	Names of Articles.	Per	Tariff Values.	Standard rate of duty.	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of—	
						The United Kingdom.	A British Colony.
		I.—Food, Drink and Tobacco—*contd.*		Rs. a. p.			
		LIQUORS—*contd.*					
13	31	WINES, not containing more than 42 per cent. of proof spirit—					
		(1) Champagne and other sparkling wines	Imperial gallon.	..	Rs. 13-2.	....	....
		(2) Other sorts	,,	..	Rs. 7-8.	....	....
		PROVISIONS AND OILMAN'S STORES.					
14A	163	COCOA AND CHOCOLATE other than confectionery.	..	*Ad valorem.*	30 per cent.	20 per cent. ..	....
14B	164	COFFEE, canned or bottled	..	*Ad valorem.*	30 ,,	20 ,, ..	20 per cent.
14C	165	FISH canned	..	*Ad valorem.*	30 ,,	20 ,, ..	20 ,,
14D	166	FRUIT juices	..	*Ad valorem.*	30 ,,	20 ,, ..	20 ,,
14E	167	FRUITS AND VEGETABLES, canned or bottled .	..	*Ad valorem.*	30 ,,	20 ,, ..	20 ,,
		Tariff value— China canned fruit	case of 4 doz.	7 12 0			
14F	168	MILK, condensed or preserved, including milk cream.	..	*Ad valorem.*	30 ,,	20 ,, ..	....
14G	169	SAGO (excluding sago flour) and Tapioca ..	..	*Ad valorem.*	30 ,,	....	20 per cent.
		Tariff value— Cassava, Tapioca or Sago	cwt.	7 0 0			

Schedule II—(Import Tariff)—*continued.*

Serial No.	No. in the Statutory Schedule.	Names of Articles.	Per	Tariff Values.	Standard rate of duty.	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of—	
						The United Kingdom.	A British Colony.
		I.—Food, Drink and Tobacco—*contd.*		Rs. a. p.			
		PROVISIONS AND OILMAN'S STORES —*contd.*					
14H	170	CANNED OR BOTTLED PROVISIONS, not otherwise specified.	..	*Ad valorem.*	30 per cent.	20 per cent. ..	....
		N.B.—For tariff values under this item *see* those marked with an asterisk (*) under Serial No. 14 I below.					
14I	69	PROVISIONS AND OILMAN'S STORES AND GROCERIES, all sorts not otherwise specified; including also the following articles if canned or bottled, namely, bacon, ham, biscuits, cakes, butter, vegetable product, cheese, farinaceous and patent foods, ghee, isinglass, jams and jellies, lard, pickles, chutnies, sauces and condiments.	..	*Ad valorem.*	25 ,,	....	....
		Tariff values—					
		Butter	lb.	0 14 0			
		*China preserves in syrup	box of six large or twelve small jars.	4 14 0			
		*China preserves, dry, candied	lb.	0 3 6			
		Cocum	cwt.	6 10 0			
		Ghee	,,	45 0 0			
		Vegetable product (excluding hardened coconut oil).	lb.	0 4 9			

Schedule II—(Import Tariff)—*continued.*

Serial No.	No. in the Statutory Schedule.	Names of Articles.	Per	Tariff Values.	Standard rate of duty.	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of—	
						The United Kingdom.	A British Colony.
		I.—Food, Drink and Tobacco—*contd.*		Rs. a. p.			
		PROVISIONS AND OILMAN'S STORES —*concld.*					
141 *contd.*	69	Vermicelli, flour, from China and the Far East.	cwt.	17 0 0			
		Vermicelli, peas, from China and the Far East.	,,	21 0 0			
		Vermicelli, rice, from China and the Far East.	,,	17 0 0			
		*Yeast, from China and the Far East ..	,,	17 0 0			
		N.B.—The tariff values given in this item apply also to imports assessed to duty as canned or bottled provisions under Serial No. 14H above.					
15	48	VINEGAR, in casks	..	*Ad valorem.*	2½ per cent.	....	....
		SPICES.					
16	217	THE FOLLOWING UNGROUND SPICES, namely— Cardamoms, Cassia, Cinnamon, Cloves, Nutmegs and pepper.	..	*Ad valorem.*	45 per cent.	....	37½ per cent.
		Tariff values—					
		Cardamom seed	cwt.	52 0 0			
		Cassia lignea	,,	9 12 0			
		Cloves	,,	40 0 0			
		Cloves, exhausted	,,	11 0 0			
		Cloves stems and heads	,,	6 0 0			
		Cloves in seeds, narlavang	,,	20 0 0			

Schedule II—(Import Tariff)—*continued.*

Serial No.	No. in the Statutory Schedule.	Names of Articles.	Per	Tariff Values.	Standard rate of duty.	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of—	
						The United Kingdom.	A British Colony.
		I.—Food, Drink and Tobacco—*contd.*		Rs. a. p.			
		SPICES—*contd.*					
16—*contd.*	217	THE FOLLOWING UNGROUND SPICES, namely—*contd.*					
		Nutmegs	lb.	0 4 6			
		Nutmegs in shell	,,	0 3 0			
		Pepper, black	cwt.	30 0 0			
		Pepper, long	,,	22 8 0			
		Pepper, white	,,	40 12 0			
16A	218	THE FOLLOWING UNGROUND SPICES, namely—					
		Chillies, Ginger and Mace	..	*Ad valorem.*	30 per cent.	....	22½ per cent.
		Tariff values—					
		Ginger, dry, unground	cwt.	15 0 0			
		Mace, unground	lb.	0 14 0			
16B	124A	THE FOLLOWING SPICES, when not unground, namely :—					
		Cardamoms, Cassia, Cinnamon, Cloves, Nutmegs and Pepper.	..	*Ad valorem.*	37½ per cent.	....	....
		SUGAR.					
17	213	CONFECTIONERY	..	*Ad valorem.*	50 per cent.	40 per cent.	....
18	157	SUGAR AND SUGAR-CANDY excluding confectionery.	cwt.	..	Rs. 9-1.	....	....
		TEA.					
19	219	TEA	lb.	..	Five annas.	..	Three annas.

Schedule II.—(Import Tariff)—*continued.*

Serial No.	No. in the Statutory Schedule.	Names of Articles.	Per	Tariff Values.	Standard rate of duty.	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of—	
						The United Kingdom.	A British Colony.
		I.—Food, Drink and Tobacco—*contd.*		Rs. a. p.			
		OTHER FOOD AND DRINK.					
20	220	COFFEE NOT OTHERWISE SPECIFIED	..	*Ad valorem.*	25 per cent. *plus* one anna per pound.	....	25 per cent.
21	1	HOPS	..	..	Free.	....	....
22	34	MOLASSES	..	*Ad valorem.*	31¼ per cent.	....	....
		Tariff values—					
		Molasses—					
		(*i*) imported in bulk by tank steamer ..	cwt.	1 2 0			
		(*ii*) otherwise imported	,,	1 10 0			
23	34A	SACCHARINE (except in tablets) and such other substances as the Governor-General in Council may, by notification in the Gazette of India, declare to be of a like nature or use to Saccharine.	lb.	..	Rs. 6-4-0	....	....
23A	34B	SACCHARINE TABLETS	..	*Ad valorem.*	18¾ per cent. or Rs. 6-4 per pound of saccharine contents, whichever is higher.	....	....

Schedule II.—(Import Tariff)—*continued.*

Serial No.	No. in the Statutory Schedule.	Names of Articles.	Per	Tariff values.	Standard rate of duty.	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of—	
						The United Kingdom.	A British Colony.
		I.—Food, Drink and Tobacco—*contd.*		Rs. a. p.			
		OTHER FOOD AND DRINK—*contd.*					
24	35	SALT, excluding Salt exempted under serial No. 25.	Indian maund of 82⅔ lbs. avoirdupois weight.	..	The rate at which excise duty is for the time being leviable on salt manufactured in the place where the import takes place,* *plus* 2½ annas per maund if manufactured outside India.	....	....
25	2	SALT IMPORTED INTO BRITISH INDIA AND ISSUED, in accordance with rules made with the previous sanction of the Governor-General in Council, for use in any process of manufacture; also salt imported into the port of Calcutta and issued with the sanction of the Government of Bengal to manufacturers of glazed stoneware; also salt imported into any port in the provinces of Bengal and Bihar and Orissa and issued, in accordance with rules made with the previous sanction of the Governor-General in Council, for use in curing fish in those provinces. (For the general duty on salt, see Serial No. 24)	..	..	Free.	....	....
26	73	ALL OTHER SORTS OF FOOD AND DRINK NOT OTHERWISE SPECIFIED.	..	*Ad valorem.*	25 per cent.	....	....

* The rate of excise duty on the 1st January 1934, and until further notice is Re. 1-9-0.

Schedule II.—(Import Tariff)—*continued.*

Serial No.	No. in the Statutory Schedule.	Names of Articles.	Per	Tariff values.	Standard rate of duty.	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of—	
						The United Kingdom.	A British Colony.
		I.—Food, Drink and Tobacco—*concld.*					
		TOBACCO.					
27	37	CIGARS	..	*Ad valorem.*	112½ per cent.	....	....
28	37A	CIGARETTES OF VALUE—					
		(*a*) not exceeding Rs. 10-8 per thousand†.	thousand	..	Rs. 10-10.	....	....
		(*b*) exceeding Rs. 10-8 per thousand ..	thousand	..	Rs. 15.	....	....
		NOTE.—For the purposes of this item, 'value' means real value as defined in Section 30 of the Sea Customs Act, 1878, provided that the deduction allowed under clause (*a*) of that section shall be calculated in all cases as if the cigarettes were classified under sub-item (*a*).					
29	221	TOBACCO, unmanufactured	lb.				
30	38	ALL OTHER SORTS OF TOBACCO MANUFACTURED	lb.	..	Rs. 2.	....	Re. 1-8.
				..	Rs. 3-12.	....	....
		II.—Raw Materials and produce and articles mainly unmanufactured.					
		COAL, COKE AND PATENT FUEL.					
31	39	COAL, Coke and Patent fuel	ton	..	Ten annas.	....	....

† Under Government of India, Finance Department (Central Revenues) Notification No. 14, dated the 9th April 1932, cigarettes of value not exceeding Rs. 6 per thousand are liable to import duty at Rs. 8-8 per thousand, provided that, for the purposes of this reduction, no cigarettes of which the real value is ascertainable under clause (*a*) of Section 30 of the Sea Customs Act, 1878, shall be deemed to have a value not exceeding Rs. 6 per thousand if, before deduction is made on account of the import duties payable, the wholesale cash price, less trade discount, referred to in that clause exceeds the sum of Rs. 14-8.

Schedule II—(Import Tariff)—*continued.*

Serial No.	No. in the Statutory Schedule.	Names of Articles.	Per	Tariff Values.	Standard rate of duty.	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of—	
						The United Kingdom.	A British Colony.
		II.—Raw materials and produce and articles mainly unmanufactured—*contd.*		Rs. a. p.			
		DYES AND COLOURS.					
31A	2A	BARKS for tanning	..	..	Free.	....	....
		GUMS, RESINS AND LAC.					
32	10B	STICK OR SEED LAC	..	..	Free.	....	....
33	171	GUMS, ARABIC, Benjamin (ras and cowrie) and Dammer (including unrefined batu) and rosin.	..	*Ad valorem.*	30 per cent.	....	20 per cent.
		Tariff values—					
		Dammer batu, unrefined	cwt.	5 8 0			
		Gum Arabic, other than ground ..	,,	21 0 0			
		Gum Benjamin, ras	,,	22 0 0			
		Gum Benjamin, cowrie	,,	51 4 0			
		Gum Dammer (or Copal)	,,	23 2 0			
		Rosin	,,	8 8 0			
	74	GUMS, RESINS AND LAC, all sorts not otherwise specified.	..	*Ad valorem.*	25 per cent.	....	....
		Tariff values—					
		Gum Ammoniac	cwt.	28 0 0			
		Gum Bysabol (coarse myrrh)	,,	19 4 0			
		Gum olibanum or frankincense	,,	10 12 0			
		Gum Persian (false)	,,	10 5 0			
		Myrrh	,,	19 12 0			
		HIDES AND SKINS, RAW.					
34	3	HIDES AND SKINS, raw or salted	..	..	Free.	....	....

Schedule II—(Import Tariff)—*continued.*

Serial No.	No. in the Statutory Schedule.	Names of Articles.	Per	Tariff values.	Standard rate of duty.	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of—	
						The United Kingdom.	A British Colony.
		II.—Raw materials and produce and articles mainly unmanufactured—*contd.*		Rs. a. p.			
		METALLIC ORES AND SCRAP IRON OR STEEL FOR RE-MANUFACTURE.					
35	58	IRON OR STEEL, old	..	*Ad valorem.*	15⅝ per cent.	....	....
		Tariff value— Iron or Steel, old	cwt.	1 4 0	....	....	....
36	4	METALLIC ORES, all sorts except ochres and other pigment ores.	..	..	Free.	....	....
		OILS.					
37A	172	THE FOLLOWING NATURAL ESSENTIAL OILS, namely, citronella, cinnamon, and cinnamon leaf.	..	*Ad valorem.*	30 per cent.	20 per cent.	20 per cent.
		Tariff value— Citronella oil, natural, from Ceylon, Straits, China, Japan and the Far East.	lb.	1 5 0	....	....	....
37B	173	NATURAL ESSENTIAL OILS, ALL SORTS NOT otherwise specified.	..	*Ad valorem.*	30 per cent.	20 per cent.	....
		Tariff value— Cassia oil, natural, from Ceylon, Straits, China, Japan and the Far East.	lb.	0 14 6	....	....	....
37C	174	ESSENTIAL OILS, synthetic	..	*Ad valorem.*	30 per cent.	20 per cent. ..	....
37D	175	FISH OIL including whale oil	..	*Ad valorem.*	30 per cent.	20 per cent. ..	....

Schedule II—(Import Tariff)—*continued.*

Serial No.	No. in the Statutory Schedule.	Names of Articles.	Per	Tariff values.	Standard rate of duty.	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of—	
						The United Kingdom.	A British Colony.
		II.—Raw materials and produce and articles mainly unmanufactured—*contd.*		Rs. a. p.			
		OILS—*contd.*					
38A	40	KEROSENE; also any mineral oil other than kerosene and motor spirit which has its flashing point below one hundred degrees of Fahrenheit's thermometer by Abel's close test.	Imperial gallon.	..	Three annas and nine pies.	....	....
38B	40A	MOTOR SPIRIT	Imperial gallon.	..	Ten annas.	....	....
38 BB	40B	MINERAL OIL, not included in Serial No. 38A or Serial No. 38B, which is suitable for use as an illuminant in wick lamps.	Imperial gallon.	..	Three annas and nine pies.	....	....
38C	41	MINERAL OIL—					
		(1) which has its flashing point at or above two hundred degrees of Fahrenheit's thermometer, and is ordinarily used for the batching of jute or other fibre;	ton	..	Rs. 15-10.	....	....
		(2) which has its flashing point at or above one hundred and fifty degrees of Fahrenheit's thermometer, is not suitable for use as an illuminant in wick lamps and is such as is not ordinarily used except as fuel or for some sanitary or hygienic purposes.	..	*Ad valorem.*	12½ per cent.	....	....
		Tariff value—					
		Mineral oil which has its flashing point at or above one hundred and fifty degrees of Fahrenheit's thermometer, and is such as is not ordinarily used except as fuel or for some sanitary or hygienic purposes, if imported in bulk.	ton	40 0 0			

Schedule II—(Import Tariff)—*continued.*

Serial No.	No. in the Statutory Schedule.	Names of Articles.	Per	Tariff Values.	Standard rate of Duty.	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of—	
						The United Kingdom.	A British Colony.
		II.—Raw materials and produce and articles mainly unmanufactured—*contd.*		Rs. a. p.			
		OILS—*contd.*					
38D	222	LUBRICATING OIL, that is, oil such as is not ordinarily used for any other purpose than lubrication excluding any mineral oil which has its flashing point below two hundred degrees of the Fahrenheit thermometer by Abel's close test.	Imperial gallon.	..	Two annas and six pies.	Six pies ..	....
39A	223	THE FOLLOWING VEGETABLE NON-ESSENTIAL OILS, namely, coconut, groundnut and linseed.	..	*Ad valorem.*	35 per cent.	....	25 per cent.
		Tariff values—					
		Coconut oil	cwt.	12 8 0			
		Linseed oil, raw or boiled	Imperial gallon.	2 2 0			
39B	224	VEGETABLE NON-ESSENTIAL OILS, not otherwise specified.	..	*Ad valorem.*	35 per cent.	25 per cent.	25 per cent.
40	75	ALL SORTS OF ANIMAL AND MINERAL OILS not otherwise specified, and the following Natural Essential Oils, namely, almond, bergamot, gajupatti, camphor, cloves, eucalyptus, lavender, lemon, otterose and peppermint.	..	*Ad valorem.*	25 per cent.	....	....
		Tariff value—					
		Gajuputty oil, natural, from Ceylon, Straits, China, Japan and the Far East.	lb.	1 4 0			
		Mineral colza oil	Imperial gallon.	1 0 0			

Schedule II—(Import Tariff)—*continued.*

Serial No.	No. in the Statutory Schedule.	Names of Articles.	Per	Tariff Values.	Standard rate of Duty.	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of—	
						The United Kingdom.	A British Colony.
		II.—Raw materials and produce and articles mainly unmanufactured—*contd.*		Rs. a. p.			
		OILS—*contd.*					
40—*contd.*	75	ALL SORTS OF ANIMAL AND MINERAL OILS —*contd.*					
		Tariff values—contd.					
		Peppermint oil, natural, from Ceylon, Straits, China, Japan and the Far East.	lb.	3 8 0			
		Transformer oil, including transil and switch oil, other than that assessed to duty under the proviso to Item No. 59D of Schedule II of the Indian Tariff Act 1894 (*see* Serial No. 99.)	Imperial gallon.	1 4 0			
		SEEDS.					
41	6	OIL-SEED IMPORTED INTO BRITISH INDIA by sea from the territories of any Prince or Chief in India.	..	..	Free.	....	....
41A	176	OIL-SEEDS, non-essential, all sorts not otherwise specified, including copra or coconut kernel*.	..	*Ad valorem.*	30 per cent.	....	20 per cent.
		Tariff value—					
		Copra or coconut kernel	cwt.	9 0 0			
42	76	SEEDS, all sorts not otherwise specified ..	..	*Ad valorem.*	25 per cent.	....	....
43	178	BEESWAX	..	*Ad valorem.*	30 per cent.	....	20 per cent.
43A	6A	TALLOW	..	..	Free.	....	....
44	77	ALL SORTS OF STEARINE, WAX, GREASE and ANIMAL FAT not otherwise specified.	..	*Ad valorem.*	25 per cent.	....	....
		Tariff values—					
		Lubricating grease	lb.	0 3 6			
		Petroleum jelly, white	,,	0 6 0			
		Petroleum jelly, all other sorts	,,	0 2 6			

* Under Government of India, Finance Department (Central Revenues) Notification No. 14, dated the 9th April 1932, tung oil seeds are exempt from payment of import duty for a period of three years from 17th October, 1931.

Schedule II—(Import Tariff)—*continued.*

Serial No.	No. in the Statutory Schedule.	Names of Articles.	Per	Tariff Values.	Standard rate of Duty.	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of—	
						The United Kingdom.	A British Colony.
		II.—Raw materials and produce and articles mainly unmanufactured—*contd.*		Rs. a. p.			
		TEXTILE MATERIALS.					
45	157A	SILK, RAW (excluding silk waste and noils), and silk cocoons.	..	*Ad valorem.*	25 per cent. *plus* 14 annas per lb.	....	....
	157B	SILK WASTE and Noils	..	*Ad valorem.*	25 per cent.	....	....
	158	COTTON TWIST AND YARN, and cotton sewing or darning thread :—					
		(*i*) of counts above 50's—					
		(*a*) of British manufacture	..	*Ad valorem.*	5 per cent.	....	....
		(*b*) not of British manufacture	..	*Ad valorem.*	6¼ per cent.	....	....
		(*ii*) of counts 50's and below :—					
		(*a*) of British manufacture	..	*Ad valorem.*	5 per cent. or 1¼ annas per pound, which ever is higher.	....	....
		(*b*) not of British manufacture	..	*Ad valorem.*	6¼ per cent. or 1⅞ annas per pound, which-ever is higher.	....	....
	158A	SILK YARN including thrown silk warps but excluding sewing thread and yarn spun from silk waste or noils.	..	*Ad valorem.*	25 per cent. *plus* 14 annas per pound.	....	....
	158B	SILK YARN spun from waste or noils and silk sewing thread.	..	*Ad valorem.*	25 per cent.	....	....
	158C	COTTON FABRICS not otherwise specified, containing more than 90 per cent. of cotton :—					
		(*i*) Grey piece-goods (excluding bordered grey chadars, dhuties, saris and scarves)—					
		(*a*) of British manufacture	..	*Ad valorem.*	25 per cent. or 4⅜ annas per pound, which-ever is higher.	....	....

Serial No.	No. in the Statutory Schedule.	Names of Articles.	Per	Tariff Values.	Standard rate of Duty.	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of—	
						The United Kingdom.	A British Colony.
		II.—Raw materials and produce and articles mainly unmanufactured—*contd.*		Rs. a. p.			
45—*contd.*	158C—*contd.*	TEXTILE MATERIALS—*contd.* COTTON FABRICS—*contd.* (*b*) not of British manufacture. .	..	*Ad valorem.*	50 per cent. or $5\frac{1}{4}$ annas per pound, whichever is higher.	....	....
		(*ii*) Cotton piece-goods and fabrics not otherwise specified— (*a*) of British manufacture ..	..	*Ad valorem.*	25 per cent.	....	....
		(*b*) not of British manufacture. .	..	*Ad valorem.*	50 per cent	....	....
	158D	Fabrics not otherwise specified containing more than 90 per cent. of artificial silk— (*a*) of British manufacture..	..	*Ad valorem.*	30 per cent. or $2\frac{1}{2}$ annas per square yard, whichever is higher.	....	....
		(*b*) not of British manufacture	..	*Ad valorem.*	50 per cent. or 4 annas per square yard, whichever is higher.	....	....
	158E	Fabrics not otherwise specified containing more than 90 per cent. of silk, including such fabrics embroidered with artificial silk—					
		(*i*) Pongee	..	*Ad valorem.*	50 per cent. *plus* one rupee per pound;	....	....

Schedule II.—(Import Tariff)—*continued*

Serial No.	No. in the Statutory Schedule.	Names of Articles.	Per	Tariff Values.	Standard rate of Duty.	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of—	
						The United Kingdom.	A British Colony.
		II.—Raw materials and produce and articles mainly unmanufactured—*contd.*		Rs. a. p.			
45—*contd.*	158E—*contd.*	TEXTILE MATERIALS—*contd.* Fabrics, not otherwise, etc.—*contd.*					
		(*ii*) Fuji, Boseki and corded (excluding white cord).	..	*Ad valorem.*	50 per cent. *plus* one rupee and eight annas per pound.	....	....
		(*iii*) Other sorts	..	*Ad valorem.*	50 per cent. *plus* two rupees per pound.	....	....
	158F	Fabrics not otherwise specified, containing more than 10 per cent. and not more than 90 per cent. silk—	..	*Ad valorem.*	50 per cent. *plus* two rupees per pound.	....	....
		(*i*) containing more than 50 per cent. of silk or artificial silk or of both.					
		(*ii*) containing not more than 50 per cent. of silk or artificial silk or of both—					
		(*a*) containing more than 10 per cent. artificial silk.	..	*Ad valorem.*	50 per cent. or Rs. 1-8 per pound whichever is higher.	....	....
		(*b*) containing no artificial silk or not more than 10 per cent. artificial silk.	..	*Ad valorem.*	50 per cent.	....	....
	158G	Fabrics not otherwise specified, containing not more than 10 per cent. silk but more than 10 per cent. and not more than 90 per cent. artificial silk—					
		(*i*) containing 50 per cent. or more cotton—					
		(*a*) of British manufacture	..	*Ad valorem.*	30 per cent. or 2 annas per square yard, whichever is higher.	....	....

Schedule II.—(Import Tariff)—*continued.*

Serial No.	No. in the Statutory Schedule.	Names of Articles.	Per	Tariff Values.	Standard rate of Duty.	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of—	
						The United Kingdom.	A British Colony.
		II.—Raw Materials and produce and articles mainly unmanufactured—*contd.*					
		TEXTILE MATERIALS—*contd.*					
45—*contd.*	158G—*concld.*	(*b*) not of British manufacture		Rs. a. p. *Ad valorem.*	50 per cent. or 3¼ annas per square yard, whichever is higher.	....	....
		(*ii*) containing no cotton or containing less than 50 per cent. cotton—					
		(*a*) of British manufacture	..	*Ad valorem.*	30 per cent. or 2½ annas per square yard, whichever is higher.	....	....
		(*b*) not of British manufacture ..	..	*Ad valorem.*	50 per cent. or 4 annas per square yard, whichever is higher.	....	....
	158H	Fabrics not otherwise specified, containing not more than 10 per cent. silk or 10 per cent. artificial silk or 10 per cent. wool, but containing more than 50 per cent. cotton and not more than 90 per cent. cotton—					
		(*a*) of British manufacture	..	*Ad valorem.*	25 per cent.	....	....
		(*b*) not of British manufacture	..	*Ad valorem.*	50 per cent.	....	....
	158J	The following cotton fabrics, namely:—Sateens, including italians of Sateen weave, velvets and velveteens and embroidered all-overs—					
		(*a*) of British manufacture	..	*Ad valorem.*	25 per cent.	....	....
		(*b*) not of British manufacture	..	*Ad valorem.*	35 per cent.	....	....

Schedule II.—(Import Tariff)—*continued*

Serial No.	No. in the Statutory Schedule.	Names of Articles.	Per	Tariff Values.	Standard rate of Duty.	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of—	
						The United Kingdom.	A British Colony.
		II.—Raw Materials and produce and articles mainly unmanufactured—*contd.*					
		TEXTILE MATERIALS—*contd.*					
45—*contd.*	158K	Fabrics containing gold or silver thread ..	..	*Ad valorem.*	50 per cent.	....	....
	158L	Textile Manufactures, the following articles when made wholly or mainly of any of the fabrics specified in items 1580C to 158K :— Bed sheets; Bed spreads; Bolster cases; Counterpanes; Cloths, table; Cloths, tray; Covers, bed; Covers, table; Dusters; Glass-cloths; Handkerchiefs; Napkins; Pillow cases; Pillow slips; Scarves; Shirts; Shawls; Sacks; (cotton); Towels.	..	*Ad valorem.*	The rates of duty applicable to the fabric of which the article is wholly or mainly made.	....	....
	158M	COTTON KNITTED FABRIC	..	*Ad valorem.*	50 per cent. or 12 annas per pound, whichever is higher.	....	....
	158N	COTTON BRAIDS OR CORDS the following, namely :— Ghoonsis and Muktakesis	..	..	6½ annas per lb.	....	....
	158O	COTTON HOSIERY, the following, namely :— Cotton undervests, knitted or woven, and cotton socks or stockings.	..	*Ad valorem.*	25 per cent. or 12 annas per pound, whichever is higher.	....	....

Schedule II.—(Import Tariff)—*continued.*

Serial No.	No. in the Statutory Schedule.	Names of Articles.	Per	Tariff Values.	Standard rate of duty.	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of—	
						The United Kingdom.	A British Colony.
		II.—Raw materials and produce and articles mainly unmanufactured—*contd.*		Rs. a. p.			
		WOOD AND TIMBER.					
48	49	FIREWOOD	..	*Ad valorem.*	2½ per cent.	....	....
49	79	WOOD AND TIMBER, all sorts, not otherwise specified, including all sorts of ornamental wood.	..	*Ad valorem.*	25 per cent.	....	....
		MISCELLANEOUS.					
50	80	CANES AND RATTANS	..	*Ad valorem.*	25 per cent.	....	....
		Tariff values—					
		Canes—					
		Malacca	100 pieces	25 0 0			
		Chimity	,,	10 4 0			
		Tries	,,	5 4 0			
		Root moonah	,,	15 8 0			
		Mannu	,,	14 8 0			
		Polo, all kinds—					
		Not exceeding 10 feet in length ..	,,	55 0 0			
		Exceeding 10 feet in length.. ..	,,	75 0 0			
		Tohite	cwt.	20 0 0			
		Rattans—					
		Chair	,,	15 0 0			
		Basket	,,	6 12 0			
		Outers	,,	55 0 0			
		Inners	,,	35 0 0			
50A	8A	CHINA CLAY	..	..	Free.	....	....

Schedule II.—(Import Tariff)—*continued.*

Serial No.	No. in the Statutory Schedule.	Names of Articles.	Per	Tariff Values.	Standard rate of duty.	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of—	
						The United Kingdom.	A British Colony.
		II.—Raw materials and produce and articles mainly unmanufactured—*contd.*		Rs. a. p.			
		MISCELLANEOUS—*contd.*					
51	81	COWRIES AND SHELLS	..	*Ad valorem.*	25 per cent.	....	....
		Tariff values—					
		Cowries, bazar, common	cwt.	4 7 0			
		Cowries, yellow, superior quality ..	,,	5 0 0			
		Cowries, maldive	,,	18 10 0			
		Cowries, Sankhli	,,	86 0 0			
		Mother-of-pearl, nacre	,,	20 0 0			
		Nakhla	,,	101 0 0			
		Tortoise-shell	lb.	6 0 0			
52	179	Tortoise-shell, nakh	,,	1 14 0			
		IVORY, unmanufactured	..	*Ad valorem.*	30 per cent.	....	20 per cent.
		Tariff values—					
		Elephants' grinders	cwt.	300 0 0			
		Elephants' tusks (other than hollows, centres, and points), each exceeding 20 lb. in weight, and hollows, centres and points each weighing 10 lb. and over.	,,	525 0 0			
		Elephants' tusks (other than hollows, centres and points), not less than 10 lb. and not exceeding 20 lb. each, and hollows, centres and points each weighing less than 10 lb.	,,	430 0 0			
		Elephants' tusks each less than 10 lb. (other than hollows, centres and points).	,,	240 0 0			
		Sea-cow or moye teeth, each not less than 4 lb.	,,	275 0 0			
		Sea-cow or moye teeth, each not less than 3 lb. and under 4 lb.	,,	220 0 0			
		Sea-cow or moye teeth, each less than 3 lb.	,,	130 0 0			

Schedule II.—(Import Tariff)—*continued.*

Serial No.	No. in the Statutory Schedule.	Names of Articles.	Per	Tariff Values.	Standard rate of duty.	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of—	
						The United Kingdom.	A British Colony.
		II.—Raw materials and produce and articles mainly unmanufactured—*concld.*		Rs. a. p.			
		MISCELLANEOUS—*concld.*					
53	9	MANURES, all sorts, including animal bones and the following chemical manures:—Basic slag, nitrate of ammonia, nitrate of soda, muriate of potash, sulphate of ammonia, sulphate of potash, kainit salts, carbo lime, urea, nitrate of lime, calcium cyanamide, ammonium phosphates, mineral phosphates and mineral superphosphates.	..	..	Free.	....	....
54	5	PRECIOUS STONES, unset and imported uncut, and Pearls, unset.	..	..	Free.	....	....
55	83	PRECIOUS STONES, unset and imported cut (see Serial No. 54).	..	*Ad valorem.*	25 per cent.	....	....
56	10	RAGS AND OTHER PAPER-MAKING MATERIALS, excluding wood pulp.	..	..	Free.	....	....
57	10A	RUBBER STUMPS, rubber seeds and raw rubber.	..	..	Free.	....	....
58	84	ALL OTHER RAW materials and produce and articles mainly unmanufactured, not otherwise specified.*	..	*Ad valorem.*	25 per cent.	....	....

* Under Government of India, Finance Department (Central Revenues) Notification No. 14, dated the 9th April 1932, unmanufactured Mica is exempt from payment of import duty.

Schedule II.—(Import Tariff)—*continued.*

Serial No.	No. in the Statutory Schedule.	Names of Articles.	Per	Tariff Values.	Standard rate of duty.	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of—	
						The United Kingdom.	A British Colony.
		III.—Articles Wholly or Mainly Manufactured.			Rs. a. p.		
		APPAREL.					
59	180	APPAREL, including hats, caps, bonnets and hatters' ware, second-hand clothing, drapery and uniforms and accoutrements, excluding articles made of wool, articles made of gold or silver thread or lametta, articles made of silk or silk mixtures or of artificial silk or artificial silk-mixtures, uniforms and accoutrements exempted from duty under Serial No. 60, and boots and shoes; excluding also waterproofed clothing.	..	*Ad valorem.*	30 per cent.	20 per cent.	20 per cent.
59A	225	BOOTS AND SHOES composed mainly of leather.	..	*Ad valorem.*	30 per cent. or 5 annas per pair, whichever is higher.	20 per cent. or 5 annas per pair, whichever is higher.	....
59B	41B	BOOTS AND SHOES not otherwise specified ..	..	*Ad valorem.*	25 per cent. or 5 annas per pair, whichever is higher.	....	....
59C	41C	UPPERS FOR BOOTS AND SHOES unless entirely made of leather.	..	*Ad valorem.*	25 per cent. or 2½ annas per pair, whichever is higher.	....	....
60	11	UNIFORMS AND ACCOUTREMENTS Appertaining thereto, imported by a public servant for his personal use.	..	..	Free.	....	....
		ARMS, AMMUNITION AND MILITARY STORES.					
61	226	CARTRIDGE CASES, filled and empty ..	..	*Ad valorem.*	50 per cent.	40 per cent.	....

Schedule II—(Import Tariff)—*continued.*

Serial No.	No. in the Statutory Schedule.	Names of Articles.	Per	Tariff Values.	Standard rate of Duty.	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of—	
						The United Kingdom.	A British Colony.
		III.—Articles wholly or mainly manufactured—*contd.*		Rs. a. p.			
		ARMS, AMMUNITION AND MILITARY STORES—*contd.*					
61A	227	SUBJECT to the exemptions specified in Serial No. 64—Firearms, including gas and air guns, gas and air rifles and gas and air pistols not otherwise specified, but excluding parts and accessories thereof.	..	each	Rs. 18-12 plus 10 per cent. *ad valorem*, or 50 per cent. *ad valorem*, whichever is higher.	Rs. 18-12 or 40 per cent. *ad valorem*, whichever is higher.	....
61B	42	SUBJECT TO THE EXEMPTIONS SPECIFIED IN Serial No. 64—					
		(1) Barrels, whether single or double, for firearms, including gas and air guns, gas and air rifles, and gas and air pistols, not otherwise specified.	each	..	Rs. a. 18 12	....	....
		(2) Main springs and magazine springs for firearms, including gas guns, gas rifles and gas pistols.	,,	..	6 4	....	....
		(3) Gun stocks and breech blocks.. ..	each	.	3 12	....	....
		(4) Revolver-cylinders, for each cartridge they will carry.	,,	..	2 8	....	....
		(5) Actions (including skeleton and waster) breech bolts and their heads, cocking pieces, and locks for muzzle loading arms.	,,	..	1 4	....	....
		(6) Machines for making, loading, or closing cartridges for rifled arms.	..	*Ad valorem.*	50 per cent.	....	....
		(7) Machines for capping cartridges for rifled arms.	..	*Ad valorem.*	50 per cent.	....	....

(5) or 37½ % *ad valorem*, whichever is higher, plus 12½ % *ad valorem*.

Schedule II—(Import Tariff)—*continued.*

Serial No.	No. in the Statutory Schedule.	Names of Articles.	Per	Tariff Values.	Standard rate of Duty.	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of—	
						The United Kingdom.	A British Colony.
		III.—Articles wholly or mainly manufactured—*contd.*		Rs. a. p.			
		ARMS, AMMUNITION AND MILITARY STORES—*contd.*					
62	125	GUNPOWDER for cannons, rifles, guns, pistols and sporting purposes.	..	*Ad valorem.*	50 per cent.	....	....
63	126	SAVE WHERE OTHERWISE SPECIFIED, all articles which are arms or parts of arms within the meaning of the Indian Arms Act, 1878 (excluding springs used for air-guns), all tools used for cleaning or putting together the same, all machines for making, loading, closing or capping cartridges for arms other than rifled arms and all other sorts of ammunition and military stores, and any articles which the Governor General in Council may, by notification in the Gazette of India, declare to be ammunition or military stores for the purposes of this Act.	..	*Ad valorem.*	50 per cent.	....	....
64	12	The following ARMS, AMMUNITION AND MILITARY STORES:—	..	..	Free.	....	....
		(*a*) Arms forming part of the regular equipment of a commissioned or gazetted officer in His Majesty's Service entitled to wear diplomatic, military, naval, Royal Air Force or police uniform.					

Schedule II—(Import Tariff)—*continued.*

Serial No.	No. in the Statutory Schedule.	Names of Articles.	Per	Tariff Values.	Standard rate of duty.	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of—	
						The United Kingdom.	A British Colony.
		III.—Articles wholly or mainly manufactured—*contd.*		Rs. a. p.			
64—*contd.*	12—*contd.*	ARMS, AMMUNITION AND MILITARY STORES—*contd.* The following ARMS, etc.—*contd.* (*b*) A revolver and an automatic pistol and ammunition for such revolver and pistol up to a maximum of 100 rounds per revolver or pistol, (*i*) when accompanying a commissioned officer of His Majesty's regular forces, or of the Indian Auxiliary Force or the Indian Territorial Force or a gazetted police officer, or (*ii*) certified by the commandant of the corps to which such officer belongs, or, in the case of an officer not attached to any corps, by the officer commanding the station or district in which such officer is serving or, in the case of a police officer, by an Inspector General or Commissioner of Police, to be imported by the officer for the purpose of his equipment. (*c*) Swords for presentation as army or volunteer prizes. (*d*) Arms, ammunition, and military stores imported with the sanction of the Government of India for the use of any portion of the military forces of a State in India being a unit notified in pursuance of the First Schedule to the Indian Extradition Act, 1903.					

Schedule II—(Import Tariff)—*continued.*

Serial No.	No. in the Statutory Schedule.	Names of Articles.	Per	Tariff Values.	Standard rate of duty.	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of—	
						The United Kingdom.	A British Colony.
		III.—Articles wholly or mainly manufactured—*contd.*		Rs. a. p.			
		ARMS, AMMUNITION AND MILITARY STORES—*contd.*					
64—*concld.*	12—*concld.*	The following ARMS, etc.—*contd.* (*e*) Morris tubes and patent ammunition imported by officers commanding British and Indian regiments or volunteer corps for the instruction of their men.*					
65	86A	ORNAMENTAL ARMS of an obsolete pattern possessing only an antiquarian value; masonic and theatrical and fancy dress swords, provided they are virtually useless for offensive or defensive purposes; and *dahs* intended exclusively for domestic, agricultural and industrial purposes.	..	*Ad valorem.*	25 per cent.	....	....
66	86	EXPLOSIVES, namely, blasting gunpowder, blasting gelatine, blasting dynamite, blasting roburite, blasting tonite, and all other sorts, including detonators and blasting fuze.†	..	*Ad valorem.*	25 per cent.	....	....
		CHEMICALS, DRUGS AND MEDICINES.					
67	13	ANTI-PLAGUE SERUM	..	..	Free.	....	....
68	13A	BLEACHING PASTE and bleaching powder ..	..	..	Free.	....	....

* Under Government of India, Finance Department (Central Revenues) Notification No. 14, dated the 9th April 1932, ·22 inch Adapters imported by officers commanding a unit of the Army in India for the instruction of their men are also exempt from payment of import duty.

† Under Government of India, Finance Department (Central Revenues) Notification No. 14, dated the 9th April 1932, certain specified explosives specially adapted for use in dangerous coal mines are exempt from payment of import duty.

Schedule II—(Import Tariff)—*continued.*

Serial No.	No. in the Statutory Schedule.	Names of Articles.	Per	Tariff Values.	Standard rate of duty.	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of—	
						The United Kingdom.	A British Colony.
		III.—Articles wholly or mainly manufactured—*contd.*		Rs. a. p.			
		CHEMICALS, DRUGS AND MEDICINES —*contd.*					
68A	127	CAMPHOR	..	*Ad valorem.*	50 per cent.	....	....
		Tariff values—					
		Camphor, refined, other than powder	lb.	1 8 0			
		Camphor, powder, other than synthetic	,,	1 0 0			
		Camphor, synthetic, tablets and slabs ..	,,	1 6 0			
		Camphor, synthetic, powder	,,	1 0 0			
69	50	COPPERAS, green (ferrous sulphate) ..	..	*Ad valorem.*	2½ per cent.	....	....
70	42B	OPIUM and its alkaloids and their derivatives.	seer of 80 tolas.	..	Rs. 30 or 18¾ per cent. *ad valorem*, whichever is higher.	....	....
71	14	CINCHONA BARK and the alkaloids extracted therefrom including Quinine and alkaloids derived from other sources which are chemically identical with alkaloids extracted from cinchona bark.	..	..	Free.	....	....
72	141B	HEAVY CHEMICALS, the following :—					
		Magnesium chloride	cwt.	..	Rs. 0-8-9.	....	....
		Provided that the duty on any article included in this item shall in no case be less than the duty which would be charged if the article were included in Part V of the Statutory Schedule (*i.e.*, 25 per cent. *ad valorem*).					
73	14B	SULPHUR	..	..	Free.	....	....
74	228	The following CHEMICALS, namely, cadmium sulphide, cobalt oxide, selenium, uranium oxide snd zinc oxide.	..	*Ad valorem.*	25 per cent.	15 per cent.	....

Schedule II—(Import Tariff)—*continued.*

Serial No.	No. in the Statutory Schedule.	Names of Articles.	Per	Tariff Values.	Standard rate of duty.	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of—	
						The United Kingdom.	A British Colony.
		III.—Articles wholly or mainly manufactured—*contd.*					
		CHEMICALS, DRUGS AND MEDICINES —*contd.*		Rs. a. p.			
74A	88	The following CHEMICALS, drugs and medicines, namely, acetic, carbolic, citric and oxalic acids, naphthalene, potassium chlorate and potassium cyanide, bicarbonate of soda, borax, sodium silicate, arsenic, calcium carbide, glycerine, alum (namely, potash alum, soda alum and ammonia alum), lead, magnesium and zinc compounds not otherwise specified, aloes, asafœtida, cocaine, sarsaparilla and storax.	..	*Ad valorem.*	25 per cent.	....	....
		Tariff values—					
		Acetic acid	lb.	0 5 0			
		Alum (lump)	cwt.	6 0 0			
		Arsenic (China mansil)	,,	45 0 0			
		Borax, granular, powdered or crystalline (in bulk).	,,	10 0 0			
		Calcium carbide	,,	14 0 0			
		Chlorate of potash	,,	23 0 0			
		Glycerine	,,	32 8 0			
		Naphthalene balls	,,	11 4 0			
		Oxalic acid	,,	32 8 0			
		Sodium bicarbonate	,,	7 6 0			
		Sodium silicate (in liquid form)	,,	7 10 0			
		Asafœtida (hing)	,,	65 0 0			
		Asafœtida, coarse (hingra)	,,	22 0 0			
74B	181	CHEMICALS, drugs and medicines, all sorts not otherwise specified.*	..	*Ad valorem.*	30 per cent.	20 per cent.	20 per cent.
		Tariff values—					
		Alkali, Indian (sajji-khar)	cwt.	2 6 6			
		Ammonia gas, anhydrous, including compressed or liquified gas.	lb.	0 9 0			
		Ammonium carbonate or bicarbonate	cwt.	21 0 0			

* Under Government of India, Finance Department (Central Revenues), Notification No. 14, dated the 9th April 1932, calcium acetate and radium salts are exempt from payment of import duty.

Schedule II—(Import Tariff)—*continued.*

Serial No.	No. in the Statutory Schedule.	Names of Articles.	Per	Tariff Values.	Standard rate of duty.	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of—	
						The United Kingdom.	A British Colony.
		III.—Articles wholly or mainly manufactured—*contd.*		Rs. a. p.			
		CHEMICALS, DRUGS AND MEDICINES —*contd.*					
74B. *contd*	181— *contd.*	CHEMICALS, drugs and medicines, all sorts not otherwise specified—*contd.*					
		Tariff values—					
		Ammonium chloride—					
		Muriate of Ammonia, crystalline ..	cwt.	12 8 0			
		Salammoniac, sublimed	,,	25 0 0			
		Other sorts, including compressed ..	,,	18 0 0			
		Boric acid (in bulk)	,,	16 0 0			
		Calcium chloride	,,	4 6 0			
		Carbonic acid gas including compressed or liquified gas.	lb.	0 5 6			
		Caustic potash	cwt.	26 0 0			
		Chlorine	lb.	0 5 0			
		Copper sulphate	cwt.	13 4 0			
		Menthol (peppermint) crystals	oz.	0 9 6			
		Potassium bichromate	cwt.	33 0 0			
		Soda ash including calcined natural soda and manufactured sesqui-carbonates.	,,	5 8 0			
		Soda, caustic, flake	,,	13 10 0			
		Soda, caustic, powdered	,,	14 4 0			
		Soda, caustic, solid	,,	10 12 0			
		Soda crystals	,,	6 8 0			
		Sodium bichromate	,,	26 8 0			
		Sodium hydrosulphite	,,	48 0 0			
		Sodium hyposulphite (in bulk)	,,	10 2 0			
		Sodium sulphide	,,	6 8 0			
		Tartaric acid in kegs or in bulk	,,	65 0 0			
		Trona or natural soda uncalcined ..	,,	4 0 0			
		Calumba root	,,	5 4 0			

Schedule II—(Import Tariff)—*continued.*

Serial No.	No. in the Statutory Schedule.	Names of Articles.	Per	Tariff Values.	Standard rate of duty.	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of—	
						The United Kingdom.	A British Colony.
		III.—Articles wholly or mainly manufactured—*contd.*		Rs. a. p.			
		CHEMICALS, DRUGS AND MEDICINES —*contd.*					
74B-*contd*	181—*contd.*	CHEMICALS, drugs and medicines, all sorts not otherwise specified—*contd.*					
		Tariff values—					
		China root (Chobchini) rough	cwt.	13 8 0			
		China root (Chobchini) scraped	,,	21 8 0			
		Cubebs	,,	44 0 0			
		Galangal, China	,,	12 0 0			
		Salep	,,	105 8 0			
		CONVEYANCES.					
75	142	COAL TUBS, tipping waggons and the like conveyances designed for use on light rail track, if adapted to be worked by manual or animal labour and if made mainly of iron or steel; and component parts thereof made of iron or steel—					
		(*a*) if of British manufacture	ton	..	Rs. 26-4 or 21½ per cent. *ad valorem*, whichever is higher.	....	....
		(*b*) if not of British manufacture	,,	..	Rs. 26-4 or 21½ per cent. *ad valorem*, whichever is higher, plus Rs. 18-12 per ton.	....	....
75A	182	CARRIAGES and carts which are not mechanically propelled not otherwise specified, and cycles (other than motor cycles) imported entire or in sections and parts and accessories thereof; excluding rubber tyres and tubes.	..	*Ad valorem.*	30 per cent.	20 per cent.	....

Schedule II—(Import Tariff)—*continued.*

Serial No.	No. in the Statutory Schedule.	Names of Articles.	Per	Tariff Values.	Standard rate of duty.	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of—	
						The United Kingdom.	A British Colony.
		III.—Articles wholly or mainly manufactured—*contd.*					
		CONVEYANCES—*contd.*					
76	229	MOTOR CARS including taxicabs and articles (other than rubber tyres and tubes) adapted for use as parts and accessories thereof provided that such articles as are ordinarily also used for other purposes than as parts and accessories of motor vehicles included in this item or in Serial Nos. 76A and 76B shall be dutiable at the rate of duty specified for such articles.	..	*Ad valorem.*	37½ per cent.	30 per cent. ..	....
76A	42A	MOTOR CYCLES and motor scooters and articles (other than rubber tyres and tubes) adapted for use as parts and accessories thereof except such articles as are also adapted for use as parts and accessories of motor cars.	..	*Ad valorem.*	37½ per cent.	....	....
76B	230	MOTOR OMNIBUSES; chassis of motor omnibuses, motor vans and motor lorries; and parts of mechanically propelled vehicles and accessories not otherwise specified, excluding rubber tyres and tubes and such parts and accessories of motor vehicles included in this item as are also adapted for use as parts and accessories of motor cars.	..	*Ad valorem.*	25 per cent.	17½ per cent. ..	....
77	87	TRAMCARS, passenger lifts and all other sorts of conveyances not otherwise specified and component parts and accessories thereof; also motor vans and motor lorries imported complete.	..	*Ad valorem.*	25 per cent.	....	....

Schedule II—(Import Tariff)—*continued.*

Serial No.	No. in the Statutory Schedule.	Names of Articles.	Per	Tariff Values.	Standard rate of duty.	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of—	
						The United Kingdom.	A British Colony.
		III.—Articles wholly or mainly manufactured—*contd.*					
		CUTLERY, HARDWARE, IMPLEMENTS AND INSTRUMENTS.					
78	15	The following Agricultural Implements, namely winnowers, threshers, mowing and reaping machines, binding machines, elevators, seed and corn crushers, chaff-cutters, root-cutters, ensilage-cutters, horse and bullock gears, ploughs, cultivators, scarifiers, harrows, clod-crushers, seed-drills, hay-tedders, hay presses, potato diggers, latex spouts, spraying machines, powder-blowers, white-tan exterminating machines, beet pullers, broadcast seeders, corn pickers, corn shellers, culti-packers, drag scrapers, stalk cutters, huskers and shredders, potato planters, lime sowers, manure spreaders, listers, soil graders, and rakes; also agricultural tractors, also component parts of these implements machines or tractors provided that they can be readily fitted into their proper places in the implements, machines or tractors for which they are imported, and that they cannot ordinarily be used for purposes unconnected with agriculture.*	..	..	Free.	....	....

* Under Government of India, Finance Department (Central Revenues) Notification No. 14, dated the 9th April 1932, the following agricultural machines and implements, namely, flame throwers for attachment to spraying machines designed for the extermination of locusts, and latex cups, are exempt from payment of import duty.

Schedule II—(Import Tariff)—*continued.*

Serial No.	No. in the Statutory Schedule.	Names of Articles.	Per	Tariff Values.	Standard rate of duty.	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of—	
						The United Kingdom.	A British Colony.
		III.—Articles wholly or mainly manufactured—*contd.*					
		CUTLERY, HARDWARE, IMPLEMENTS AND INSTRUMENTS—*contd.*					
79	129	ARTICLES, other than cutlery and surgical instruments, plated with gold or silver.*	..	*Ad valorem.*	50 per cent.	....	....
80	128	CLOCKS and Watches and parts thereof ..	..	*Ad valorem.*	50 per cent.	....	....
81	231	CUTLERY plated with gold or silver	..	*Ad valorem.*	50 per cent.	40 per cent. ..	....
81A	183	CUTLERY, all sorts not otherwise specified ..	..	*Ad valorem.*	30 per cent.	20 per cent. ..	....
82	16	The following Dairy and Poultry Farming Appliances, namely, cream separators, milking machines, milk sterilizing or pasteurizing plant, milk aerating and cooling apparatus, churns, butter dryers, butter workers, milkbottle fillers and cappers, apparatus specially designed for testing milk and other dairy produce, and incubators; also component parts of these appliances, provided that they can be readily fitted into their proper places in the appliances for which they are imported, and that they cannot ordinarily be used for other than dairy and poultry farming purposes.	..	..	Free.	....	....
82A	184	DOMESTIC Refrigerators	..	*Ad valorem.*	30 per cent.	20 per cent. ..	....
82B	232	ELECTRIC lighting bulbs	..	*Ad valorem.*	50 per cent.	40 per cent. ..	....

* Under Government of India, Finance Department (Central Revenues), Notification No. 14, dated the 9th April 1932, articles of imitation jewellery (including buttons and other fasteners) which consist of, or include, base metal plated with gold or silver and in which the proportion of precious metal to total metallic contents is less than 1.5 per cent., are liable to duty as "hardware, other" sorts, at the standard rate of 30 per cent. *ad valorem* or the preferential rate of 20 per cent. *ad valorem*, as the case may be, under Serial No. 84-A.

Schedule II—(Import Tariff)—*continued.*

Serial No.	No. in the Statutory Schedule.	Names of Articles.	Per	Tariff values.	Standard rate of duty.	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of—	
						The United Kingdom.	A British Colony.
		III.—Articles wholly or mainly manufactured—*contd.*					
		CUTLERY, HARDWARE, IMPLEMENTS AND INSTRUMENTS—*contd.*					
83	186	The following ELECTRICAL INSTRUMENTS, Apparatus and Appliances, namely :— (*a*) Electrical Control Gear and Transmission Gear, namely, switches (excluding switch-boards), fuses and current-breaking devices of all sorts and descriptions, designed for use in circuits of less than ten amperes and at a pressure not exceeding 250 volts, and regulators for use with motors designed to consume less than 187 watts; bare or insulated copper wires and cables, any one core of which, not being one specially designed as a pilot core, has a sectional area of less than one-eightieth part of a square inch, and wires and cables of other metals of not more than equivalent conductivity; and line insulators, including also cleats, connectors, leading-in tubes and the like, of types and sizes such as are ordinarily used in connection with the transmission of power for other than industrial purposes, and the fittings thereof; (*b*) All other sorts of electrical instruments, apparatus and appliances not otherwise specified, excluding telegraphic and telephonic.	..	*Ad valorem.*	30 per cent.	20 per cent. ..	....

Schedule II—(Import Tariff)—*continued.*

Serial No.	No. in the Statutory Schedule.	Names of Articles.	Per	Tariff values.	Standard rate of duty.	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of—	
						The United Kingdom.	A British Colony.
		III.—Articles wholly or mainly manufactured—*contd.*					
		CUTLERY, HARDWARE, IMPLEMENTS AND INSTRUMENTS—*contd.*					
83A	90	The following ELECTRICAL INSTRUMENTS, apparatus and appliances, namely, telegraphic and telephonic instruments, apparatus and appliances not otherwise specified, flash lights, carbons, condensers, and bell apparatus; and switch-boards designed for use in circuits of less than ten amperes and at a pressure not exceeding 250 volts.*†	..	*Ad valorem.*	25 per cent.	....	....
83B	232A	Gold or gold-plated pen nibs..	..	*Ad valorem.*	50 per cent.	40 per cent.	....
84	89	The following HARDWARE, ironmongery and tools, namely, agricultural implements not otherwise specified, buckets of tinned or galvanised iron, and pruning knives.	..	*Ad valorem.*	25 per cent.	....	....

* Under Government of India, Finance Department (Central Revenues), Notification No. 14, dated the 9th April 1932, the following wireless apparatus is liable to duty at 2½ per cent. *ad valorem*:—

(*i*) apparatus for wireless reception [excluding apparatus specially designed for the reception of broadcast wireless and apparatus of the description specified in clause (*ii*) and component parts of such apparatus, when imported under cover of a certificate issued by the Director-General of Posts and Telegraphs to the effect that he is satisfied that the apparatus will not be used for the reception of broadcast wireless;

(*ii*) apparatus for wireless reception incorporated in a single unit with transmitting apparatus.

(*iii*) wireless transmission apparatus and component parts thereof;

Provided that nothing shall be deemed to be a component part of apparatus for wireless telegraphy or telephony for the purpose of this exemption unless it is essential for the working of such apparatus and has been given for that purpose some special shape or quality that would not be essential for its use for any other purpose.

† Under Government of India Finance Department (Central Revenue), Notification No. 14, dated the 9th April 1932, telegraphic instruments and apparatus and parts thereof imported for supply from bond for use of a Railway Administration are liable to duty at 15§ per cent. *ad valorem*, provided that, (*i*) at the time of delivering the bill-of-entry for warehousing a declaration is made thereon by the importer to the effect that the goods have been imported for supply from bond for the use of a Railway Administration; and (*ii*) a certificate from an Officer of the Railway Administration, duly empowered in that behalf by the Agent, is produced along with the application for clearance out of bond that the goods in question are not merely guaranteed stock, but will be definitely appropriated for the use of such Railway on clearance from bond.

Schedule II—(Import Tariff)—*continued.*

Serial No.	No. in the Statutory Schedule.	Names of Articles.	Per	Tariff values.	Standard rate of duty.	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of—	
						The United Kingdom.	A British Colony.
		III.—Articles wholly or mainly manufactured—*contd.*		Rs. a. p.			
		CUTLERY, HARDWARE, IMPLEMENTS AND INSTRUMENTS—*contd.*					
84A	185	HARDWARE, ironmongery and tools, all sorts not otherwise specified, including incandescent mantles, but excluding machine tools and agricultural implements. *Tariff value*— Crown corks	.. gross.	*Ad valorem.* 0 9 0	30 per cent.	20 per cent.	....
85	17	INSTRUMENTS, apparatus and appliances, imported by a passenger as part of his personal baggage and in actual use by him in the exercise of his profession or calling.	..	..	Free.	....	....
86	130	The following MUSICAL INSTRUMENTS, namely, complete organs and harmoniums and records for talking machines.	..	*Ad valorem.*	50 per cent.	....	....
86A	233	MUSICAL INSTRUMENTS and parts thereof, all sorts not otherwise specified.	..	*Ad valorem.*	50 per cent.	40 per cent.	....
86B	91	OPTICAL INSTRUMENTS, apparatus and appliances.	..	*Ad valorem.*	25 per cent.	....	....
87	59	TELEGRAPHIC INSTRUMENTS and apparatus, and parts thereof imported by, or under the orders of, a Railway Administration.	..	*Ad valorem.*	15§ per cent.	....	....
88	18	WATER-LIFTS, sugar-mills, sugar centrifuges, sugar pugmills, oil-presses, and parts thereof, when constructed so that they can be worked by manual or animal power, and pans for boiling sugar-cane juice.	..	..	Free.	....	....

Schedule II—(Import Tariff)—*continued.*

Serial No.	No. in the Statutory Schedule.	Names of Articles.	Per	Tariff values.	Standard rate of duty.	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of—	
						The United Kingdom.	A British Colony.
		III.—Articles wholly or mainly manufactured—*contd.*		Rs. a. p.			
		CUTLERY, HARDWARE, IMPLEMENTS AND INSTRUMENTS—*concld.*					
88A	234	WIRELESS reception instruments and apparatus and component parts thereof, including all electric valves, amplifiers and loud speakers which are not specially designed for purposes other than wireless reception or are not original parts of and imported along with instruments or apparatus so designed.*	..	*Ad valorem.*	50 per cent.	40 per cent.	....
89	187	INSTRUMENTS, apparatus and appliances, other than electrical, all sorts not otherwise specified, including photographic, scientific, philosophical and surgical.	..	*Ad valorem.*	30 per cent.	20 per cent.	....
		DYES AND COLOURS.					
90	188	CUTCH AND GAMBIER, all sorts	..	*Ad valorem.*	30 per cent.	....	20 per cent.
		Tariff values—					
		Gambier, block and cube	cwt.	13 0 0			
		Gambier in flakes or circular pieces ..	,,	38 0 0			
90A	58A	DYES derived from coal-tar, and coal-tar derivatives, used in any dyeing process.	..	*Ad valorem.*	10 per cent.	....	....

* Under Government of India, Finance Department (Central Revenues) Notification No. 14, dated the 9th April 1932, wireless apparatus is liable to duty at 2½ per cent. *ad valorem.*

Schedule II—(Import Tariff)—*continued.*

Serial No.	No. in the Statutory Schedule.	Names of Articles.	Per	Tariff values.	Standard rate of duty.	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of—	
						The United Kingdom.	A British Colony.
		III.—Articles wholly or mainly manufactured—*contd.*		Rs. a. p.			
90A	58A—*contd.*	DYES AND COLOURS—*contd.*					
—*contd.*		DYES derived from coal-tar, and coal-tar derivatives, used in any dyeing process.—*ctd.*					
		Tariff values—					
		Alizarine, moist—					
		(*a*) not exceeding 16 per cent. ..	cwt.	65 0 0			
		(*b*) over 16 per cent. not exceeding 20 per cent.	,,	80 0 0			
		(*c*) exceeding 20 per cent.	,,	160 0 0			
		Alizarine, dry—					
		(*a*) not exceeding 40 per cent. ..	lb.	1 13 0			
		(*b*) exceeding 40 per cent.	,,	3 10 0			
		Congo red	,,	0 10 6			
		Coupling dyes of the naphthol group—					
		(*a*) Naphthols	,,	5 0 0			
		(*b*) Rapid fast colours (rapid salts) ..	,,	8 0 0			
		(*c*) Bases	,,	4 0 0			
		(*d*) Other salts	,,	2 1 0			
		Vats—					
		(*a*) Indigo	,,	1 8 0			
		(*b*) Carbazole blue	,,	3 13 0			
		(*c*) Other sorts—					
		(*i*) Paste	,,	3 4 0			
		(*ii*) Powder	,,	15 0 0			
		Sulphur black	,,	0 7 0			
		Metanil yellow	,,	1 2 0			
		Auramine of concentration of 15 per cent. or less.	,,	0 12 6			
		Rhodamine of concentration of 15 per cent. or less (Carthamines).	,,	0 12 6			
		Aniline salts	,,	0 6 6			
		All others	,,	1 12 0			

Schedule II—(Import Tariff)—*continued.*

Serial No.	No. in the Statutory Schedule.	Names of Articles.	Per	Tariff values.	Standard rate of duty.	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of—	
						The United Kingdom.	A British Colony.
		III.—Articles wholly or mainly manufactured—*contd.*		Rs. a. p.			
		DYES AND COLOURS—*contd.*					
90B	92	DYEING AND TANNING SUBSTANCES, all sorts not otherwise specified.	..	*Ad valorem.*	25 per cent.	....	....
		Tariff values—					
		Cochineal	lb.	0 15 6			
		Gallnuts, Persian	cwt.	46 0 0			
91	93	The following PAINTS, Colours and Painters' materials, namely, barytes, reduced dry red lead and white lead, moist white lead, reduced dry zinc white and moist zinc white, turpentine, turpentine substitute, and varnish not containing dangerous petroleum within the meaning of the Indian Petroleum Act 1899.	..	*Ad valorem.*	25 per cent.	....	....
91A	190	Plumbago and graphite	..	*Ad valorem.*	30 per cent.	....	20 per cent.
91B	189	PAINTS, colours and painters' materials, all sorts not otherwise specified, including paints, solutions and compositions containing dangerous petroleum within the meaning of the Indian Petroleum Act, 1899.	..	*Ad valorem.*	30 per cent.	20 per cent.	....
		Tariff values—					
		Cuttle fish bone	cwt.	3 7 0			
		Gamboge	lb.	1 0 0			
		Vermillion from China	,,	2 4 0			

Schedule II—(Import Tariff)—*continued.*

Serial No.	No. in the Statutory Schedule.	Names of Articles.	Per	Tariff values.	Standard rate of duty.	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of—	
						The United Kingdom.	A British Colony.
		III.—Articles wholly or mainly manufactured—*contd.*		Rs. a. p.			
		FURNITURE AND CABINETWARE.					
92	192	FURNITURE and cabinetware of all materials, excluding mouldings.	..	*Ad valorem.*	30 per cent.	20 per cent.	....
		GLASSWARE, EARTHENWARE AND PORCELAIN.					
93	94A	EARTHENWARE pipes and sanitary ware ..	..	*Ad valorem.*	25 per cent.	....	....
93A	191	EARTHENWARE, china and porcelain, all sorts not otherwise specified.	..	*Ad valorem.*	30 per cent.	20 per cent.	....
94	94	GLASS AND GLASSWARE, lacquered ware, all sorts except glass bangles and beads and false pearls (see Serial No. 1290).	..	*Ad valorem.*	25 per cent.	....	....
		Tariff values—					
		Aerated water bottles, empty—					
		Codd's pattern—					
		Under 10 ozs...	gross.	23 0 0			
		10 ozs.	,,	24 0 0			
		Over 10 ozs.	,,	26 0 0			
		Crown cork pattern—					
		7 ozs. and under	,,	14 0 0			
		Over 7 ozs. up to and including 10 ozs.	,,	15 0 0			
		Over 10 ozs.	,,	17 8 0			

Schedule II—(Import Tariff)—*continued.*

Serial No.	No. in the Statutory Schedule.	Names of Articles.	Per	Tariff values.	Standard rate of duty.	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of—	
						The United Kingdom.	A British Colony.
		III.—Articles wholly or mainly manufactured - *contd.*					
		HIDES AND SKINS AND LEATHERS.					
95	95	HIDES AND SKINS not otherwise specified, and the following leather manufactures, namely, saddlery, harness, trunks and bags.	..	*Ad valorem.*	25 per cent.	....	....
95A	193	SKINS, tanned or dressed, unwrought leather, leather cloth including artificial leather, and other manufactures of leather not otherwise specified.	..	*Ad valorem.*	30 per cent.	20 per cent.	....
		MACHINERY.					
96	59A	MACHINERY, namely, such of the following articles as are not otherwise specified :—	..	*Ad valorem.*	10 per cent.	....	....
		(1) prime-movers, boilers, locomotive engines and tenders for the same, portable engines (including power-driven road rollers, fire engines and tractors), and other machines in which the prime-mover is not separable from the operative parts;					
		(2) machines and sets of machines to be worked by electric, steam, water, fire or other power, not being manual or animal labour, or which before being brought into use require to be fixed with reference to other moving parts;					

Schedule II—(Import Tariff)—*continued.*

Serial No.	No. in the Statutory Schedule.	Names of Articles.	Per	Tariff values.	Standard rate of duty.	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of—	
						The United Kingdom.	A British Colony.
		III.—Articles wholly or mainly manufactured—*contd.*					
		MACHINERY—*contd.*					
96—*contd.*	59A	MACHINERY—*contd.*					
		(3) apparatus and appliances, not to be operated by manual or animal labour, which are designed for use in an industrial system as parts indispensable for its operation and have been given for that purpose some special shape or quality which would not be essential for their use for any other purpose;					
		(4) control gear, self-acting or otherwise, and transmission-gear designed for use with any machinery above specified, including belting of all materials (other than cotton, hair and canvas ply) and driving chains, but excluding driving ropes not made of cotton;					
		(5) bare hard-drawn electrolytic copper wires and cables and other electrical wires and cables, insulated or not and poles, troughs, conduits and insulators designed as parts of a transmission system, and the fittings thereof.					
		NOTE.—The term 'industrial system' used in sub-clause (3) means an installation designed to be employed directly in the performance of any process or series of processes necessary for the manufacture, production or extraction of any commodity.					

Schedule II—(Import Tariff)—*continued.*

Serial No.	No. in the Statutory Schedule.	Names of Articles.	Per	Tariff values.	Standard rate of duty.	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of—	
						The United Kingdom.	A British Colony.
		III.—Articles wholly or mainly manufactured—*contd.*					
		MACHINERY—*contd.*					
97	59B	The following TEXTILE MACHINERY and apparatus by whatever power operated, namely, healds, heald cords and heald knitting needles; reeds and shuttles; warp and weft preparation machinery and looms; bobbins and pirns; dobbies; Jacquard machines; Jacquard harness linen cards; Jacquard cards; punching plates for Jacquard cards; warping mills; multiples box sleys; solid border sleys; tape sleys; swivel sleys; tape looms; wool carding machines; wool spinning machines; hosiery machinery; coir mat shearing machines; coir fibre willowing machines; heald knitting machines; dobby cards; lattices and lags for dobbies; wooden winders; silk looms; silk throwing and reeling machines; cotton yarn reeling machines; sizing machines; doubling machines; silk twisting machines; cone winding machines; piano card cutting machines; harness building frames; card lacing frames; drawing and denting hooks; sewing thread balls making machines; cumbli finishing machinery; hank boilers; cotton carding and spinning machines; mail eyes, lingoes, comber boards and comber board frames; take-up motions, temples and pickers; picking bands; picking sticks; printing machines; roller cloth; clearer cloth; sizing flannel; and roller skins.	..	*Ad valorem.*	10 per cent.	....	....

Schedule II—(Import Tariff)—*continued.*

Serial No.	No. in the Statutory Schedule.	Names of Articles.	Per	Tariff values.	Standard rate of duty.	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of—	
						The United Kingdom.	A British Colony.
		III.—Articles wholly or mainly manufactured—*contd.*					
		MACHINERY—*contd.*					
98	59C	Printing and Lithographic Material, namely, presses, lithographic plates, composing sticks, chases, imposing tables, lithographic stones, stereo-blocks, wood blocks, half-tone blocks, electrotype blocks, process blocks and highly polished copper or zinc sheets specially prepared for making process blocks, roller moulds, roller frames and stocks, roller composition, lithographic nap rollers, standing screw and hot presses, perforating machines, gold blocking presses, galley presses, proof presses, arming presses, copper plate printing presses, rolling presses, ruling machines, ruling pen making machines, lead cutters, rule cutters, slug cutters, type casting machines, type setting and casting machines, paper in rolls with side perforations to be used after further perforation for type-casting, rule bending machines, rule mitreing machines, bronzing machines, stereotyping apparatus, paper folding machines, paging machines and clarified liquid glue but excluding ink and paper.	..	*Ad valorem.*	10 per cent.	....	....
99	59D	Component Parts of Machinery, as defined in Serial Nos. 96, 97 and 98, namely, such parts only as are essential for the working of the machine or apparatus and have been given for that purpose some special shape or quality which would not be essential for their use for any other purpose:		*Ad valorem.*	10 per cent.	....	....

Schedule II—(Import Tariff)—*continued.*

Serial No.	No. in the Statutory Schedule.	Names of Articles.	Per	Tariff values.	Standard rate of duty.	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of—	
						The United Kingdom.	A British Colony.
		III.—Articles wholly or mainly manufactured—*contd.*					
		MACHINERY—*concld.*					
		Provided that articles which do not satisfy this condition shall also be deemed to be component parts of the machine to which they belong if they are essential to its operation and are imported with it in such quantities as may appear to the Collector of Customs to be reasonable.					
99A	43A	COTTON, hair and canvas ply belting for machinery.	..	*Ad valorem.*	6¼ per cent.	....	....
99B	43B	Rubber-Insulated Copper Wires and Cables, no core of which, other than one specially designed as a pilot core, has a sectional area of less than one-eightieth part of a square inch, whether made with any additional insulating or covering material or not.	..	*Ad valorem.*	6¼ per cent.	....	....
100	194	MACHINERY and component parts thereof, meaning machines or parts of machines to be worked by manual or animal labour, not otherwise specified, and any machines (except such as are designed to be used exclusively in industrial processes) which require for their operation less than one-quarter of one brake-horse-power.	..	*Ad valorem.*	30 per cent.	20 per cent.	....

Schedule II—(Import Tariff)—*continued.*

Serial No.	No. in the Statutory Schedule.	Names of Articles.	Per	Tariff values.	Standard rate of duty.	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of—	
						The United Kingdom.	A British Colony.
		III.—Articles wholly or mainly manufactured—*contd.*		Rs. a. p.			
		METALS, IRON AND STEEL.					
101*a*	235	IRON alloys	..	*Ad valorem.*	20 per cent.	10 per cent.	....
101*b*	143	IRON ANGLE, channel and tee—					
		(*a*) fabricated, all qualities—					
		(*i*) of British manufacture	ton	..	Rs. 26-4 or 21¼ per cent. *ad valorem*, whichever is higher.	....	....
		(*ii*) not of British manufacture ..	ton	..	Rs. 26-4 or 21¼ per cent. *ad valorem*, whichever is higher plus Rs. 18-12 per ton.	....	....
		(*b*) not fabricated, kinds other than galvanised, tinned or lead-coated and other than Crown or superior qualities—					
		(*i*) of British manufacture	ton	..	Rs. 23-12.	....	....
		(*ii*) not of British manufacture ..	ton	..	Rs. 37-8.	....	....
101*c*	235	IRON ANGLE, channel and tee not otherwise specified.	..	*Ad valorem.*	20 per cent.	10 per cent.	....
		Tariff values—					
		Angle, channel and tee—					
		Crown and superior qualities, not fabricated.	ton	210 0 0			
		Other kinds, not fabricated, if galvanized, tinned, or lead-coated.	„	200 0 0			

Schedule II—(Import Tariff)—*continued.*

Serial No.	No. in the Statutory Schedule.	Names of Articles.	Per	Tariff values.	Standard rate of duty.	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of—	
						The United Kingdom.	A British Colony.
		III.—Articles wholly or mainly manufactured—*contd.*		Rs. a. p.			
		METALS, IRON AND STEEL—*contd.*					
101*d*	144	IRON, common bar not galvanised, tinned or lead-coated if not of any shape and dimension specified in clause (*a*) or clause (*c*) of Serial No. 102*c*—					
		(*i*) of British manufacture	ton	..	Rs. 32-8.	....	....
		(*ii*) not of British manufacture ..	ton		Rs. 46-4.	....	....
101*e*	235	IRON BAR AND ROD not otherwise specified..	..	*Ad valorem.*	20 per cent.	10 per cent.	....
		Tariff values—					
		Bar and rod—					
		Qualities superior to Grade A of the British Engineering Standard Association.	ton	385 0 0			
		Grade A of the British Engineering Standard Association and Crown quality and intermediate qualities—					
		Over ½ inch in diameter or thickness.	,,	225 0 0			
		½ inch and under in diameter or thickness.	,,	235 0 0			
		Common, if galvanized, tinned, or lead-coated.	,,	220 0 0			
101*f*	235	IRON, pig	..	*Ad valorem.*	20 per cent.	10 per cent.	....
		Tariff value—					
		Iron, pig	ton	70 0 0			

Schedule II—(Import Tariff)—*continued.*

Serial No.	No. in the Statutory Schedule.	Names of Articles.	Per	Tariff values.	Standard rate of duty.	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of—	
						The United Kingdom.	A British Colony.
		III.—Articles wholly or mainly manufactured—*contd.*		Rs. a. p.			
101*g*	235	METALS, IRON AND STEEL—*contd.* IRON rice bowls	..	*Ad valorem.*	20 per cent.	10 per cent.	....
102*a*	237	STEEL, angle and tee, if galvanized, tinned or lead-coated. *Tariff value*—	..	*Ad valorem.*	20 per cent.	10 per cent.	....
102*b*	151	Angle and tee, if galvanized, tinned or lead-coated, not fabricated. STEEL, angle and tee, not otherwise specified (see Serial No. 102*a*) and beam, channel, zed, trough and piling—	ton	200 0 0			
		(*a*) fabricated—					
		(*i*) of British manufacture ..	ton	..	Rs. 26-4 or 21¼ per cent *ad valorem*, whichever is higher.	....	....
		(*ii*) not of British manufacture ..	ton	..	Rs. 26-4 or 21¼ per cent. *ad valorem*, whichever is higher plus Rs. 18-12 per ton.	....	....
		(*b*) not fabricated—					
		(*i*) of British manufacture ..	ton	..	Rs. 23-12.	....	....
		(*ii*) not of British manufacture ..	ton	..	Rs. 37-8.	....	....
102*c*	237	STEEL, bar and rod, the following kinds— (*a*) shapes specially designed for the reinforcement of concrete, if the smallest dimension is under ¼ inch;	..	*Ad valorem.*	20 per cent.	10 per cent.	....

Serial No.	No. in the Statutory Schedule.	Names of Articles.	Per	Tariff values.	Standard rate of duty.	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of—	
						The United Kingdom.	A British Colony.
		III.—Articles wholly or mainly manufactured—*contd.*		Rs. a. p.			
		METALS, IRON AND STEEL—*contd.*					
		(*b*) all shapes and sizes, if—					
		(*i*) of alloy, crucible, shear, blister or tub steel, or					
		(*ii*) galvanized or coated with other metals, or					
		(*iii*) planished or polished, including bright steel shafting;					
		(*c*) other qualities, if of any of the following shapes and sizes—					
		(*i*) rounds not over 7/16 inch diameter,					
		(*ii*) squares not over 7/16 inch side,					
		(*iii*) flats, if under 1 inch wide and not over $\frac{1}{8}$ inch thick,					
		(*iv*) flats not under 8 inches wide and not over $\frac{1}{2}$ inch thick,					
		(*v*) ovals, if the dimension of the major axis is not less than twice that of the minor axis,					
		(*vi*) all other shapes, any size.					
		Tariff values—					
		Bar and rod—					
		Galvanized or coated with other metals, all shapes and sizes.	ton	200 0 0			
		Planished or polished, including bright steel shafting, all shapes and sizes.	,,	190 0 0			
102*d*	152	STEEL, BAR AND ROD, not otherwise specified (see Serial No. 102*c*)—					
		(*i*) of British manufacture	ton	..	Rs. 32-8.	....	....
		(*ii*) not of British manufacture ..	ton	..	Rs. 46-4.	....	....

Schedule I —(Import Tariff)—*continued.*

Serial No.	No. in the Statutory Schedule.	Names of Articles.	Per	Tariff values.	Standard rate of duty.	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of—	
						The United Kingdom.	A British Colony.
		III.—Articles wholly or mainly manufactured—*contd.*					
		METALS, IRON AND STEEL—*contd.*					
102*e*	237	STEEL (other than bars), alloys, crucibles, shear, blister and tub.*	..	*Ad valorem.*	20 per cent.	10 per cent.	....
102*f*	237	STEEL (other than bars) made for springs and cutting tools by any process.	..	*Ad valorem.*	20 per cent.	10 per cent.	....
102*g*	153	STEEL, ingots, blooms and billets, and slabs of a thickness of $1\frac{1}{2}$ inches or more.	..	*Ad valorem.*	20 per cent.	10 per cent.	....
102*h*		STEEL Structures, fabricated partially or wholly, not otherwise specified, if made mainly or wholly of steel bars, sections, plates or sheets, for the construction of buildings, bridges, tanks, well curbs, trestles, towers and similar structures or for parts thereof, but not including builders' hardware (see Serial No. 84A) or any of the articles specified in Serial Nos. 75A, 76B, 77, 96, 99 or 159—					
		(*i*) of British manufacture	ton	..	Rs. 26-4 or $21\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. *ad valorem*, whichever is higher.	..	....
		(*ii*) not of British manufacture ..	ton	..	Rs. 26-4 or $21\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. *ad valorem*, whichever is higher, plus Rs. 18-12 per ton.	..	....

* Under Government of India, Finance Department (Central Revenues) Notification No. 14, dated the 9th April 1932, crucible steel is liable to duty at the standard rate of 20 per cent. *ad valorem* or the preferential rate of 10 per cent. *ad valorem* as the case may be.

Schedule II—(Import Tariff)—*continued.*

Serial No.	No. in the Statutory Schedule.	Names of Articles.	Per	Tariff values.	Standard rate of duty.	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of—	
						The United Kingdom.	A British Colony.
		III.—Articles wholly or mainly manufactured—*contd.*		Rs. a. p.			
		METALS, IRON AND STEEL—*contd.*					
102*i*	154	STEEL tinplates and tinned sheets, including tin taggers and cuttings of such plates, sheets or taggers.	ton	..	Rs. 60.	....	....
103*a*	236	IRON or Steel anchors and cables	..	*Ad valorem.*	20 per cent.	10 per cent.	....
103*b*	145	IRON or Steel bolts and nuts, including hook-bolts and nuts for roofing and fish bolts and nuts.	cwt.	..	Rs. 2-13.	....	....
103*c*	236	IRON OR STEEL expanded metal	..	*Ad valorem.*	20 per cent.	10 per cent.	....
103*d*	236	IRON OR STEEL hoops and strips	..	*Ad valorem.*	20 per cent.	10 per cent.	....
103*e*	145A	IRON OR STEEL rivets	cwt.	..	Rs. 2-8.	....	....
103*f*	236	IRON OR STEEL nails and washers, all sorts not otherwise specified.	..	*Ad valorem.*	20 per cent.	10 per cent.	...
		Tariff values—					
		Nails, and washers—					
		Nails, rose, deck, and flat-headed ..	cwt.	12 8 0			
		Nails, bullock and horse shoe ..	,,	38 0 0			
		Washers, black, structural	,,	9 0 0			

Schedule II—(Import Tariff)—*continued.*

Serial No.	No. in the Statutory Schedule.	Names of Articles.	Per	Tariff values.	Standard rate of duty.	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of—	
						The United Kingdom.	A British Colony.
		III.—Articles wholly or mainly manufactured—*contd.*					
		METALS, IRON AND STEEL—*contd.*					
103*g*	146	IRON or STEEL pipes and tubes and fittings therefor, if riveted or otherwise built up of plates or sheets—					
		(*a*) galvanized*					
		(*b*) not galvanized—					
		(*i*) not under ⅛ inch thick—					
		of British manufacture.. ..	ton	..	Rs. 41-4 or 21½ per cent. *ad valorem*, whichever is higher.	....	....
		not of British manufacture ..	ton	..	Rs. 26-4 or 21½ per cent. *ad valorem*, whichever is higher.	....	....
		(*ii*) under ⅛ inch thick—	ton	..	Rs. 26-4 or 21½ per cent. *ad valorem*, whichever is higher, plus Rs. 18-12 per ton.	...	....
		of British manufacture.. ..	ton	..	Rs. 48-12 or 21½ per cent. *ad valorem*, whichever is higher.	....	....
		not of British manufacture ..	ton	..	Rs. 48-12 or 21½ per cent. *ad valorem*, whichever is higher, plus Rs. 32-8 per ton.	....	....

* Under Government of India, Commerce Department Notification No. 260-T. (127), dated the 30th December 1930, as amended subsequently, and read with section 4 of the Indian Finance (Supplementary and Extending) Act, 1931, galvanized iron or steel pipes and tubes and fittings therefor, if riveted or otherwise built up of plates or sheets are liable to duty at Rs. 91-4 per ton or 21½ per cent. *ad valorem*, whichever is higher, till the 31st March 1934.

Schedule II—(Import Tariff)—*continued.*

Serial No.	No. in the Statutory Schedule.	Names of Articles.	Per	Tariff values.	Standard rate of duty.	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of—	
						The United Kingdom.	A British Colony.
		III.—Articles wholly or mainly manufactured—*contd.*		Rs. a. p.			
		METALS, IRON AND STEEL—*contd.*					
103*h*	236	IRON or STEEL pipes, and tubes; also fittings therefor, that is to say, bends, boots, elbows, tees, sockets, flanges, plugs, valves, cocks and the like, excluding pipes, tubes and fittings therefor otherwise specified.	..	*Ad valorem.*	20 per cent.	10 per cent.	....
103*i*	147	IRON or STEEL plates or sheets (including cuttings, discs and circles) not under $\frac{1}{8}$ inch thick and not of cast iron—					
		(*a*) fabricated, all qualities—					
		(*i*) of British manufacture	ton	..	Rs. 26-4 or 21¼ per cent. *ad valorem*, whichever is higher.	....	....
		(*ii*) not of British manufacture ..	ton	..	Rs. 26-4 or 21¼ per cent. *ad valorem*, whichever is higher, plus Rs. 18-12 per ton.	....	....
		(*b*) not fabricated, chequered and ship, tank, bridge and common qualities—					
		(*i*) of British manufacture	ton	..	Rs. 25.	....	....
		(*ii*) not of British manufacture ..	ton	..	Rs. 45.	....	....
103*j*	236	IRON or STEEL plates and sheets (including cuttings, discs and circles) not under $\frac{1}{8}$ inch thick not otherwise specified, whether fabricated or not.	..	*Ad valorem.*	20 per cent.	10 per cent.	....
		Tariff values—					
		Plates and sheets (including cuttings, discs and circles) not under $\frac{1}{8}$ inch thick—					
		Boiler fire-box and special qualities, not fabricated.	ton	220 0 0			
		Galvanized, plain, not fabricated ..	,,	190 0 0			

Schedule II—(Import Tariff)—*continued.*

Serial No.	No. in the Statutory Schedule.	Names of Articles.	Per	Tariff values.	Standard rate of duty.	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of—	
						The United Kingdom.	A British Colony.
		III.—Articles wholly or mainly manufactured—*contd.*					
		METALS, IRON AND STEEL—*contd.*					
103*k*	236	IRON or STEEL sheets (including cuttings, discs and circles) under $\frac{1}{8}$ inch thick, whether fabricated or not, if coated with metals other than tin or zinc.	..	*Ad valorem.*	20 per cent.	10 per cent.	....
103*l*	148	IRON or STEEL sheets (including cuttings, discs and circles) under $\frac{1}{8}$ inch thick—					
		(*a*) fabricated—					
		(*i*) galvanized*	ton	..	Rs. 41-4 or 21$\frac{1}{4}$ per cent. *ad valorem*, whichever is higher.	....	....
		(*ii*) all other sorts not otherwise specified (see Serial No. 103*k*)—					
		of British manufacture	ton	..	Rs. 48-12 or 21$\frac{1}{4}$ per cent. *ad valorem*, whichever is higher.	....	....
		not of British manufacture ..	ton	..	Rs. 48-12 or 21$\frac{1}{4}$ per cent. *ad valorem*, whichever is higher, plus Rs. 32-8 per ton.	....	....
		(*b*) not fabricated, all sorts not otherwise specified—					
		of British manufacture	ton	..	Rs. 43-12.	....	....
		not of British manufacture ..	ton	..	Rs. 73-12.		

* Under Government of India, Commerce Department Notification No. 260-T. (127), dated the 30th December 1930, as amended subsequently, and read with section 4 of the Indian Finance (Supplementary and Extending) Act, 1931, fabricated galvanized iron or steel sheets (including cuttings, discs and circles) under $\frac{1}{8}$ inch thick are liable to duty at Rs. 91-4 per ton or 21$\frac{1}{4}$ per cent. *ad valorem*, whichever is higher, till the 31st March 1934.

Schedule II—(Import Tariff)—*continued.*

Serial No.	No. in the Statutory Schedule.	Names of Articles.	Per	Tariff values.	Standard rate of duty.	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of—	
						The United Kingdom.	A British Colony.
		III.—Articles wholly or mainly manufactured—*contd.*					
		METALS, IRON AND STEEL—*contd.*					
103*m*	148A	IRON OR STEEL sheets (including cuttings, discs and circles) under $\frac{1}{8}$ inch thick, galvanized, not fabricated—					
		of British manufacture—					
		(*i*) if made from Indian sheet bar imported into the United Kingdom after the 23rd day of December, 1932.	ton	..	Rs. 30.	....	....
		(*ii*) if made from sheet bar other than Indian sheet bar imported into the United Kingdom after the 23rd day of December, 1932.	ton	..	Rs. 53.	....	....
		not of British manufcture	ton	..	Rs. 83.	....	....
103*n*	150	IRON OR STEEL Railway Track material—					
		A. Rails (including tramway rails the heads of which are not grooved)—					
		(*a*) (*i*) 30 lbs. per yard and over ..	ton	..	Rs. 16-4.	....	....
		(*ii*) fish-plates therefor	ton	..	Rs. 7-8 or 12½ per cent. *ad valorem*, whichever is higher.	....	....
		(*b*) under 30 lbs. per yard, and fish-plates therefor—					
		if of British manufacture ..	ton	..	Rs. 32-8.	....	....
		if not of British manufacture ..	ton	..	Rs. 46-4.	....	....

Schedule II—(Import Tariff)—*continued.*

Serial No.	No. in the Statutory Schedule.	Names of Articles.	Per	Tariff values.	Standard rate of duty.	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of—	
						The United Kingdom.	A British Colony.
		III.—Articles wholly or mainly manufactured—*contd.*					
103*n*—*contd.*	150	METALS, IRON AND STEEL—*contd.*					
		IRON OR STEEL Railway Track material—*contd.*					
		B. Switches and crossings including stretcher bars and other component parts, and switches and crossings including stretcher bars and other component parts for tramway rails the heads of which are not grooved—					
		(*i*) for rails 30 lbs. per yard and over.	ton	..	Rs. 17-8 or 21½ per cent. *ad valorem*, whichever is higher.	..	....
		(*ii*) for rails under 30 lbs. per yard—					
		of British manufacture	ton	..	Rs. 36-4 or 21½ per cent. *ad valorem*, whichever is higher.	....	....
		not of British manufacture ..	ton	..	Rs. 36-4 or 21½ per cent. *ad valorem*, whichever is higher, plus Rs. 15 per ton.	....	....
		C. Sleepers, other than cast iron ..	ton	..	Rs. 12-8 or 12½ per cent. *ad valorem*, whichever is higher.	....	....
		D. Spikes (other than dogspikes) and tie-bars—					
		of British manufacture	ton	..	Rs. 32-8.	....	....
		not of British manufacture ..	ton	..	Rs. 46-4.	....	....
		E. Dogspikes	cwt.	..	Rs. 2-13.	....	....
		F. Gibs, cotters, keys, distance pieces and other fastenings for use with iron or steel sleepers.	cwt.	..	Rs. 2-8.	....	....

Schedule II—(Import Tariff)—*continued.*

Serial No.	No. in the Statutory Schedule.	Names of Articles.	Per	Tariff values.	Standard rate of duty.	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of—	
						The United Kingdom.	A British Colony.
		III.—Articles wholly or mainly manufactured—*contd.*					
		METALS, IRON AND STEEL—*contd.*					
103*o*	236	IRON or Steel Railway track materials not otherwise specified, including bearing plates, cast iron sleepers and lever boxes.	..	*Ad valorem.*	20 per cent.	10 per cent. ..	....
103*p*	236	IRON or Steel Tramway track materials not otherwise specified, including rails, fish-plates, tie-bars, switches, crossings and the like materials of shapes and sizes specially adapted for tramway tracks.	..	*Ad valorem.*	20 per cent.	10 per cent. ..	....
103*q*	236	IRON or Steel barbed or stranded fencing wire and wire-rope.	..	*Ad valorem.*	20 per cent.	10 per cent. ..	....
103*r*	149	IRON or Steel— (*a*) wire, other than barbed or stranded fencing-wire, wire-rope or wire-netting; and (*b*) wire nails.	ton	..	Rs. 45.	....	....
103*s*	236	IRON or Steel (other than bar or rod) specially designed for the reinforcement of concrete.	..	*Ad valorem.*	20 per cent.	10 per cent. ..	....
103*t*	149A	IRON or Steel, the original material (but not including machinery) of any ship or other vessel intended for inland or harbour navigation which has been assembled abroad taken to pieces and shipped for reassembly in India: Provided that articles dutiable under this item shall not be deemed to be dutiable under any other item.	ton	..	Rs. 28-12 or 12½ per cent. *ad valorem*, whichever is higher.	..	....

Schedule II—(Import Tariff)—*continued.*

Serial No.	No. in the Statutory Schedule.	Names of Articles.	Per	Tariff values.	Standard rate of duty.	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of—	
						The United Kingdom.	A British Colony.
		III.—Articles wholly or mainly manufactured—*contd.*		Rs. a. p.			
		METALS, IRON AND STEEL—*concld.*					
104	195	ALL SORTS of Iron and Steel and manufactures thereof not otherwise specified. *	..	*Ad valorem.*	30 per cent.	20 per cent. ..	....
		Tariff values—					
		Iron and Steel cans or drums—					
		When imported containing kerosene and motor spirit, namely :—					
		Cans, tinned, of four gallons capacity	can	0 6 0			
		Cans or drums, not tinned, of two gallons capacity—					
		(*a*) with faucet caps	can or drum	1 8 0			
		(*b*) ordinary	,,	0 6 0			
		Drums of four gallons capacity—					
		(*a*) with faucet caps	drum	2 0 0			
		(*b*) ordinary	,,	1 0 0			
		METALS, OTHER THAN IRON AND STEEL.					
105	19	CURRENT coin of the Government of India ..	..	..	Free.	....	....
106	20	GOLD bullion and coin and gold sheets and plates which have undergone no process of manufacture subsequent to rolling.	..	..	Free.	....	....
107	131	GOLD PLATE, gold leaf, and gold manufactures, all sorts not otherwise specified.	..	*Ad valorem.*	50 per cent.	....	....
107A	43BB	SILVER bullion and coin, not otherwise specified, and silver sheets and plates which have undergone no process of manufacture subsequent to rolling.	ounce	..	Seven annas and six pies.	....	....
108	132	SILVER plate, and silver manufactures, all sorts not otherwise specified.	..	*Ad valorem.*	50 per cent.	....	....

* Under Government of India, Finance Department (Central Revenues) Notification No. 14, dated the 9th April 1932, crucible steel is liable to duty at the standard rate of 20 per cent. *ad valorem* or the preferential rate of 10 per cent. *ad valorem* as the case may be.

Schedule II—(Import Tariff)—*continued.*

Serial No.	No. in the Statutory Schedule.	Names of Articles.	Per	Tariff values.	Standard rate of duty.	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of—	
						The United Kingdom.	A British Colony.
		III.—Articles wholly or mainly manufactured—*contd.*		Rs. a. p.			
		METALS, OTHER THAN IRON AND STEEL—*contd.*					
108A	154A	SILVER thread and wire (including so-called gold thread and wire mainly made of silver) and silver leaf; including also imitation gold and silver thread and wire, lametta and metallic spangles and articles of a like nature, of whatever metal made.†	..	*Ad valorem.*	62½ per cent.	....	....
109	39A	TIN, block	ton	..	Rs. 312-8.	....	....
110	20A	ZINC, unwrought, including cakes, ingots, tiles (other than boiler tiles), hard or soft slabs and plates, dust, dross and ashes; and broken zinc.	..	..	Free.	....	....
111	19G	METALS and manufactures thereof, namely :— (*a*) Aluminium—circles, sheets and other manufactures not otherwise specified. (*b*) Brass, bronze and similar alloys wrought, and manufactures thereof not otherwise specified. (*c*) Copper wrought, and manufactures of copper, all sorts not otherwise specified. (*d*) German silver including nickel silver. (*e*) Lead wrought—the following articles, namely, pipes and tubes and sheets other than sheets for tea chests. (*f*) Zinc or spelter wrought or manufactured not otherwise specified.	..	*Ad valorem.*	30 per cent.	20 per cent.	....
		Tariff values— Aluminium circles .. .. .. Aluminium sheets, plain	lb.	0 9 6			
			,,	0 8 6			

† Under Government of India, Finance Department (Cental Revenues) Notification No. 14, dated the 9th April 1932, all the articles included in this item are liable to duty at 50 per cent. *ad valorem.*

Schedule II—(Import Tariff)—*continued.*

Serial No.	No. in the Statutory Schedule.	Names of Articles.	Per	Tariff values.	Standard rate of duty.	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of—	
						The United Kingdom.	A British Colony.
		III.—Articles wholly or mainly manufactured—*contd.*		Rs. a. p.			
		METALS, OTHER THAN IRON AND STEEL—*contd.*					
111—*contd.*	196	Metal and manufactures thereof—*contd.*					
		Tariff values—contd.					
		Brass, patent or yellow metal, sheets and sheathing, weighing 1 lb. or above per square foot, and braziers, and plates.	cwt.	26 0 0			
		Brass, patent or yellow metal, circles weighing 1 lb. or above per square foot.	,,	30 0 0			
		Copper, braziers, sheets, plates and sheathing	,,	30 0 0			
		Copper, circles	,,	35 0 0			
		Copper, foil or dankpara, plain, white, 10 to 11 in. × 4 to 5 in.	hundred leaves.	1 2 0			
		Copper, foil or dankpara, plain, coloured, 10 to 11 in. × 4 to 5 in.	,,	1 2 0			
111A	98	ALL SORTS OF METALS OTHER THAN IRON AND STEEL, and manufactures thereof, not otherwise specified including unwrought ingots, blocks and bars of aluminium, scrap copper, and lead sheets for tea chests.*	..	*Ad valorem.*	25 per cent.	....	....
		Tariff values—					
		Brass, patent or yellow metal (including gun metal) ingots.	cwt.	18 0 0			
		Brass, patent or yellow metal (including gun metal), old.	,,	17 0 0			
		Copper, old..	,,	24 0 0			

* Under Government of India, Finance Department (Central Revenues) Notification No. 14, dated the 9th April 1932, radium is exempt from payment of Import duty.

Schedule II—(Import Tariff)—*continued.*

Serial No.	No. in the Statutory Schedule.	Names of Articles.	Per	Tariff values.	Standard rate of duty.	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of—	
						The United Kingdom.	A British Colony.
		III.—Articles wholly or mainly manufactured—*contd.*		Rs. a. p.			
		METALS, OTHER THAN IRON AND STEEL—*concld.*					
111 A—*contd.*	98	ALL SORTS OF METALS OTHER THAN IRON AND STEEL—*contd.*					
		Tariff values—contd.					
		Copper, pigs, tiles, ingots, cakes, bricks, and slabs.	cwt.	26 8 0			
		Lead, pig	,,	10 12 0			
		Quicksilver	lb.	2 8 0			
		PAPER, PASTEBOARD AND STATIONERY.					
112	197	PAPER, INCLUDING CHROME, MARBLE, FLINT, POSTER AND STEREO PRINTING PAPER; ARTICLES made of paper and papier maché; pasteboard, mill-board and cardboard, all sorts other than strawboard; and stationery including drawing and copy books, labels, advertising circulars, sheet or card almanacs and calendars, Christmas, Easter, and other cards, including cards in booklet form; including also waste paper but excluding paper and stationery otherwise specified.	..	*Ad valorem.*	30 per cent.	20 per cent. ..	....
		Tariff values—					
		Packing and wrapping paper—					
		Machine-glazed pressings	lb.	0 1 6			
		Manilla, machine-glazed or unglazed, and sulphite envelope.	,,	0 1 6			
		Kraft and imitation kraft	,,	0 1 6			

Schedule II—(Import Tariff)—*continued.*

Serial No.	No. in the Statutory Schedule.	Names of Articles.	Per	Tariff values.	Standard rate of duty.	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of—	
						The United Kingdom.	A British Colony.
		III.—Articles wholly or mainly manufactured—*contd.*		Rs. a. p.			
		PAPER, PASTEBOARD AND STATIONERY—*contd.*					
113	155	PRINTING PAPER (excluding chrome, marble, flint, poster and stereo), all sorts which contain no mechanical wood pulp or in which the mechanical wood pulp amounts to less than 70 per cent. of the fibre content.	lb.	..	One anna and three pies.	....	....
113 A	99	PRINTING PAPER, all sorts, not otherwise specified which contain mechanical wood pulp amounting to not less than 70 per cent. of the fibre content; and Strawboards, all sorts.	..	*Ad valorem.*	25 per cent.	....	....
		Tariff values—					
		Printing paper, not on reels (excluding chrome, marble, flint, poster and stereo) in which the mechanical wool pulp amounts to not less than 70 per cent. of the fibre content, glazed or unglazed, white or grey.	lb.	0 1 3	....	....	....
		Strawboards, not lined	cwt.	4 8 0	....	....	....
114	156	WRITING PAPER—					
		(*a*) Ruled or printed forms (including letter paper with printed headings) and account and manuscript books and the binding thereof.	lb.	..	One anna and three pies or 18¾ per cent. *ad valorem*, whichever is higher.	....	....
		(*b*) All other sorts	lb.	..	One anna and three pies.	....	....
115	21	TRADE CATALOGUES and advertising circulars imported by packet, book, or parcel post.	..	..	Free.	....	....
116	21A	POSTAGE STAMPS, whether used or unused ..	..	..	Free.	....	....
116 A	21B	PAPER MONEY	..	..	Free.	....	....

Schedule II—(Import Tariff)—*continued.*

Serial No.	No. in the Statutory Schedule.	Name of Articles.	Per	Tariff values.	Standard rate of duty.	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of—	
						The United Kingdom.	A British Colony.
		III.—Articles wholly or mainly manufactured—*contd.*					
		RAILWAY PLANT AND ROLLING-STOCK.					
117	63	RAILWAY MATERIALS for permanent-way and rolling-stock, namely, sleepers, other than iron and steel, and fastenings therefor; bearing plates, chairs, interlocking apparatus, brake-gear, shunting skids, couplings and springs, signals, turn-tables, weigh-bridges, carriages, wagons, traversers, rail removers, scooters, trollies, trucks; also cranes, water-cranes and water-tanks when imported by or under the orders of a railway administration: Provided that for the purpose of this entry 'railway' means a line of railway subject to the provisions of the Indian Railways Act, 1890, and includes a railway constructed in a State in India and also such tramways as the Governor-General in Council may, by notification in the *Gazette of India*, specifically include therein: Provided also that articles of machinery as defined in Serial No. 96 or No. 99 shall not be deemed to be included hereunder.	..	*Ad valorem.*	15⅝ per cent.	....	....
118	63A	COMPONENT PARTS OF RAILWAY MATERIALS, as defined in Serial No. 117, namely, such parts only as are essential for the working of railways and have been given for that purpose some special shape or quality which would not be essential for their use for any other purpose: Provided that articles which do not satisfy this condition shall also be deemed to be component parts of the railway material to which they belong, if they are essential to its operation and are imported with it in such quantities as may appear to the Collector of Customs to be reasonable.	..	*Ad valorem.*	15⅝ per cent.	....	....

Schedule II—(Import Tariff)—*continued.*

Serial No.	No. in the Statutory Schedule.	Names of Articles.	Per	Tariff values.	Standard rate of duty.	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of—	
						The United Kingdom.	A British Colony.
		III.—Articles wholly or mainly manufactured—*contd.*					
		YARNS AND TEXTILE FABRICS.					
119	43*c*	ARTIFICIAL SILK YARN AND THREAD	..	*Ad valorem.*	25 per cent. or 3 annas per lb. whichever is higher.	....	....
119 A	45	Artificial silk piece-goods other than fents of not more than nine yards in length.	..	*Ad valorem.*	50 per cent. or four annas per square yard, whichever is higher.	....	....
120	158	COTTON PIECE-GOODS (other than fents of not more than nine yards in length)—					
		(*a*) plain grey, that is, not bleached or dyed in the piece, if imported in pieces which either are without woven headings or contain any length of more than nine yards which is not divided by transverse woven headings—					
		(*i*) of British manufacture.. ..	..	*Ad valorem.*	25 per cent. or $4\frac{3}{8}$ annas per pound, whichever is higher.	....	....
		(*ii*) not of British manufacture* ..	..	*Ad valorem.*	$31\frac{1}{4}$ per cent. or $4\frac{3}{8}$ annas per pound, whichever is higher.	....	....
		(*b*) others—					
		(*i*) of British manufacture.. ..	..	*Ad valorem.*	25 per cent.	....	....
		(*ii*) not of British manufacture† ..	..	*Ad valorem.*	$31\frac{1}{4}$ per cent.	....	....
121	44	COTTON TWIST AND YARN, and cotton sewing or darning thread.	..	*Ad valorem.*	$6\frac{1}{4}$ per cent. or $1\frac{7}{8}$ annas per lb., whichever is higher.	....	....
121 A	198	HABERDASHERY AND MILLINERY, all sorts, including lace and embroidery, but excluding towels not in the piece and articles made of wool or of silk or artificial silk or of silk or artificial silk mixtures.	..	*Ad valorem.*	30 per cent.	20 per cent. ..	....

* Under Government of India, Commerce Department Notification No. 341-T. (8)-33, dated the 7th June 1933, cotton piece-goods assessable under this sub-head are liable to duty at 75 per cent. *ad valorem* or $6\frac{1}{4}$ annas per pound, whichever is higher.

† Under Government of India, Commerce Department Notification No. 341-T. (8)-33, dated the 7th June 1933, cotton piece-goods assessable under this sub-head are liable to duty at 75 per cent. *ad valorem.*

Schedule II—(Import Tariff)—*continued.*

Serial No.	No. in the Statutory Schedule.	Names of Articles.	Per	Tariff values.	Standard rate of duty.	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of—	
						The United Kingdom.	A British Colony.
		III.—Articles wholly or mainly manufactured—*contd.*					
		YARNS AND TEXTILE FABRICS—*contd.*					
122	22	SECOND-HAND or used gunny bags or cloth made of jute.	..	..	Free.	....	....
122 A	238	WOOLLEN CARPETS, floor rugs, hosiery, piece-goods, shawls and other manufactures of wool not otherwise specified, including felt.‡	..	*Ad valorem.*	35 per cent.	25 per cent. ..	....
122 B	199	WOOLLEN YARN for weaving and knitting	..	*Ad valorem.*	30 per cent.	20 per cent. ..	....
122 C	45B	YARN (excluding cotton yarn) such as is ordinarily used for the manufacture of belting for machinery.	..	*Ad valorem.*	6¼ per cent.	....	....
123	100	YARNS AND TEXTILE FABRICS, that is to say :—	..				
		Cotton thread other than sewing or darning thread.					
		Flax, twist and yarn.					
		Hemp manufactures.					
		Jute, twist and yarn, and jute excluding second-hand or used gunny bags or cloth.					
		Blankets and rugs (other than floor rugs), excluding blankets and rugs made wholly or mainly from artificial silk.	..	*Ad valorem.*	25 per cent.	....	....
		Fabrics not otherwise specified, containing not more than 10 per cent. silk or 10 per cent. artificial silk or 10 per cent. wool or 50 per cent. cotton.					

‡ Under Government of India, Finance Department (Central Revenues) Notification No. 14, dated the 9th April 1932, woollen waste and rags are exempt from payment of import duty.

Schedule II—(Import Tariff)—*continued.*

Serial No.	No. in the Statutory Schedule.	Names of Articles.	Per	Tariff values.	Standard rate of duty.	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of—	
						The United Kingdom.	A British Colony.
		III.—Articles wholly or mainly manufactured—*contd.*					
		YARNS AND TEXTILE FABRICS—*contd.*					
124	100A	SILK or artificial silk goods used or required for medical purposes, namely:—silk or artificial silk ligatures; elastic silk or artificial silk hosiery, elbow pieces, thigh pieces, knee caps, leggings, socks, anklets, stockings, suspensory bandages, silk or artificial silk, abdominal belts, silk or artificial silk, web catherter tubes, and oiled silk or artificial silk.	..	*Ad valorem.*	25 per cent.	....	....
125	45A	SILK or artificial silk mixtures, that is to say:— (*a*) fabrics composed in part of some other textile than silk or artificial silk and in which any portion either of the warp or of the weft but not of both is silk or artificial silk; (*b*) fabrics not being silk or artificial silk on which silk or artificial silk is superimposed such as embroidered fabrics;	..	*Ad valorem.*	35 per cent. or 2 annas 3 pies per square yard whichever is higher.	....	....
		(*c*) articles made from such fabrics and not otherwise specified (see Serial No. 124).	..	*Ad valorem.*	35 per cent.	....	....
		Provided that the duty on fents of not more than 9 yards in length of fabrics specified in sub-items (*a*) and (*b*) shall be 35 per cent. *ad valorem*. *N.B.*—For tariff values under this item *see* those marked with an asterisk (*) under Serial No. 126 below.					

Schedule II—(Import Tariff)—*continued.*

Serial No.	No. in the Statutory Schedule.	Names of Articles.	Per.	Tariff values.	Standard rate of duty.	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of—	
						The United Kingdom.	A British Colony.
		III.—Articles wholly or mainly manufactured—*contd.*		Rs. a. p.			
26	133	YARNS AND TEXTILE FABRICS—*contd.*					
		MANUFACTURES OF SILK or artificial silk not otherwise specified.	..	*Ad valorem.*	50 per cent.	....	....
		Tariff values—					
		Silk piece-goods (white or coloured, plain or figured, all lengths and all widths) and other manufactures of silk from Japan and China (including Hongkong)—					
		Japan—					
		Paj, all kinds, including Habutai, Thama, Junken and Nankin, and including striped, printed, woven so-called (*i.e.*, swivel weave-work or Khakho embroidered), embossed and pineapples but excluding all kinds of Shioji or Shin Paj.	lb.	8 12 0			
		Satins, Taffetas, and Kohakus, all kinds, including striped, printed, woven so-called (*i.e.*, swivel weave-work or Khakho embroidered), and embossed.	,,	8 12 0			
		Fugi and Boseki—					
		(*a*) Plain, coloured or printed, whether woven with silk stripes or silk flowers and all other kinds not falling under (*b*).	,,	4 8 0			
		(*b*) Woven so called (*i.e.*, swivel weave-work or Khakho embroidered in artificial silk or embellished with artificial silk).	,,	4 0 0			

Schedule II—(Import Tariff)—*continued.*

Serial No.	No. in the Statutory Schedule.	Names of Articles.	Per	Tariff values.	Standard rate of duty.	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of—	
						The United Kingdom.	A British Colony.
		III.—Articles wholly or mainly manufactured—*contd.*		Rs. a. p.			
		YARNS AND TEXTILE FABRICS—*contd.*					
126—*contd.*	133	MANUFACTURES OF SILK, ETC.—*contd.*					
		Tariff values—contd.					
		Fancies—					
		(*a*) Plain coloured or printed including Georgettes, Crepes, ninons, gauzes and Shioji or Shin Paj, whether woven with silk stripes or silk flowers and all other kinds not falling under (*b*) but excluding silk embroidered piece-goods.	Lb.	13 0 0			
		(*b*) Woven so-called (*i.e.*, swivel weave-work or Khakho embroidered in artificial silk or embellished with artificial silk), including Georgettes, Crepes, ninons, gauzes and Shioji or Shin Paj.	,,	11 8 0			
		Spun crepe—					
		(*a*) Kembo, striped and plain ..	,,	6 0 0			
		(*b*) All other kinds excluding Kembo.	,,	8 0 0			
		Burmese scarves—					
		(*a*) Paj or Habutai	,,	31 0 0			
		(*b*) Other kinds	,,	38 0 0			
		*Cotton and silk mixed satins, other than embroidered.	,,	3 8 0			
		*Cotton and silk mixed Fugi and Boseki, all kinds.	,,	3 0 0			
		Silk Fents	,,	3 8 0			

Schedule II—(Import Tariff)—*continued.*

Serial No.	No. in the Statutory Schedule.	Names of Articles.	Per	Tariff values.	Standard rate of duty.	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of—	
						The United Kingdom.	A British Colony.
		III.—Articles wholly or mainly manufactured—*contd.*		Rs. a. p.			
		YARNS AND TEXTILE FABRICS—*concld.*					
126 *contd.*	133	MANUFACTURES OF SILK, ETC.—*contd.*					
		Tariff values—contd.					
		China (including Hongkong but excluding Canton)—					
		Corded, all kinds, excepting white cords.	lb.	2 12 0			
		Crepe, gauge, and paj, all kinds ..	,,	10 8 0			
		Fugi and Boseki, all kinds	,,	4 8 0			
		N.B.—The tariff values marked with an asterisk (*) are also applicable to silk mixtures under Serial No. 125 above.					
		MISCELLANEOUS.					
127	53	AEROPLANES, aeroplane parts, aeroplane engines, aeroplane engine parts and rubber tyres and tubes used exclusively for aeroplanes.	..	*Ad valorem.*	2½ per cent.	....	....
128	23	ART, the following works of:—(1) statuary and pictures intended to be put up for the public benefit in a public place, and (2) memorials of a public character intended to be put up in a public place, including the materials used, or to be used in their construction, whether worked or not.	..	..	Free.	....	....
129	101	ART, works of, excluding those specified in Serial No. 128 and Serial No. 155.	..	*Ad valorem.*	25 per cent.	....	....
129 A	200	ASBESTOS MANUFACTURES, not otherwise specified.	..	*Ad valorem.*	30 per cent.	20 per cent.	....
129 B	239	ASPHALT	..	*Ad valorem.*	25 per cent.	....	15 per cent.

Schedule II—(Import Tariff)—*continued.*

Serial No.	No. in the Statutory Schedule.	Names of Articles.	Per	Tariff values.	Standard rate of duty.	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of—	
						The United Kingdom.	A British Colony.
		III.—Articles wholly or mainly manufactured—*contd.*		Rs. a. p.			
		MISCELLANEOUS—*contd.*					
	134	BANGLES, beads and false pearls	..	*Ad valorem.*	50 per cent.	....	....
		Tariff values—					
		Celluloid bangles—					
		Celluloid, plain, flat, with border and without border and grooved but excluding double border and double grooved and those under ¼ inch (*i.e.*, 2 lines) width.	doz. pairs.	0 10 6			
		Celluloid (rubber) rings excluding coils.	,,	0 2 6			
		Celluloid, zigzag, all colours	,,	0 2 0			
		Glass bangles—					
		China—					
		Nimuchi and pasalal	100 pairs.	2 0 0			
		Bracelet, Jadi and fancy, all kinds .	,,	4 0 0			
		Rajawarakh, all kinds	,,	5 8 0			
		Japan—					
		Reshmi or lustre, all colours—					
		Fancy (including all kinds of Vakmel or zigzag but excluding hexagonal bangles).	doz. pairs.	0 1 3			
		Fancy hexagonal	,,	0 0 9			
		All others	,,	0 0 8			
		Hollow or tube, all colours	,,	0 1 9			
		Sonerikada (golbala)—					
		Containing gold in their composition.	,,	0 12 0			
		All others	,,	0 2 0			

Schedule II—(Import Tariff)—*continued.*

Serial No.	No. in the Statutory Schedule.	Names of Articles.	Per	Tariff values.	Standard rate of duty.	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of—	
						The United Kingdom.	A British Colony.
		III.—Articles wholly or mainly manufactured—*contd.*		Rs. a. p.			
		MISCELLANEOUS—*contd.*					
130	24	BOOKS PRINTED, including covers for printed books, maps, charts, and plans, proofs, music manuscripts, and illustrations specially made for binding in books.	..	..	Free.	....	....
131	201	BRUSHES, all sorts	..	*Ad valorem.*	30 per cent.	20 per cent.	....
132	103	The following Building and Engineering materials, namely, bricks, chalk, lime and clay.	..	*Ad valorem.*	25 per cent.	....	....
132 A	202	Building and Engineering materials, all sorts not of iron, steel or wood not otherwise specified, including cement (excluding Portland cement other than white Portland cement), tiles other than glass tiles, and firebricks not being component parts of any article included in Serial No. 96 or No. 117.	..	*Ad valorem.*	30 per cent.	20 per cent.	....
132 B	203	BUTTONS, metal..	..	*Ad valorem.*	30 per cent.	20 per cent.	....
133	104	CANDLES	..	*Ad valorem.*	25 per cent.	....	....
134	240	CINEMATOGRAPH FILMS not exposed		*Ad valorem.*	25 per cent.	15 per cent.	....
135	134A	CINEMATOGRAPH FILMS, exposed .. .. *Tariff value*—		*Ad valorem.*	37½ per cent.	....	....
		Exposed standard positive films, new or used.					
		Feature films	foot	0 7 0			
		Other films	"	0 3 0			

Schedule II—(Import Tariff)—*continued.*

Serial No.	No. in the Statutory Schedule.	Names of Articles.	Per	Tariff values.	Standard rate of duty.	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of—	
						The United Kingdom.	A British Colony.
		III.—Articles wholly or mainly manufactured—*contd.*		Rs. a. p.			
		MISCELLANEOUS—*contd.*					
136	204	COIR FIBRE, coir yarn and coir mats and matting. *Tariff values*— Coir fibre .. .. Coir yarn	..	*Ad valorem.*	30 per cent.	....	20 per cent.
136 A	205	CORDAGE, rope and twine of vegetable fibre other than jute and cotton, not otherwise specified.	cwt. ,, ..	4 0 0 12 0 0 *Ad valorem.*	30 per cent.	20 per cent. ..	....
137	206	CORK manufactures not otherwise specified ..	..	*Ad valorem.*	30 per cent.	20 per cent. ..	....
138	106A	FIREWORKS specially prepared as danger or distress lights for the use of ships.	..	*Ad valorem.*	25 per cent.	....	....
138 A	135	FIRE-WORKS not otherwise specified (see Serial No. 138).	..	*Ad valorem.*	50 per cent.	....	....
139	107	FURNITURE tackle and apparel, not otherwise described, for steam-sailing, rowing and other vessels.	..	*Ad valorem.*	25 per cent.	....	....
139 A	240A	The following glass-making materials, namely, liquid gold, and covered crucibles for glass-making.	..	*Ad valorem.*	25 per cent.	15 per cent.	....
139 B	207	GLUE, all sorts other than clarified liquid glue.	..	*Ad valorem.*	30 per cent.	20 per cent.	....
140	136	IVORY, manufactured not otherwise specified	..	*Ad valorem.*	50 per cent.	....	....
141	137	JEWELLERY AND JEWELS*	..	*Ad valorem.*	50 per cent.	....	....

* Under Government of India, Finance Department (Central Revenues) Notification No. 14, dated the 9th April 1932, articles of imitation jewellery (including buttons and other fasteners) which consist of, or include, base metal plated with gold or silver and in which the proportion of precious metal to total metallic contents is less than 1.5 per cent. are liable to duty as 'hardware, other sorts' at the standard rates of 30 per cent. *ad valorem* or the preferential rate of 20 per cent. *ad valorem* as the case may be, under Serial No. 84A.

Schedule II—(Import Tariff)—*continued.*

Serial No.	No. in the Statutory Schedule.	Names of Articles.	Per	Tariff values.	Standard rate of duty.	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of—	
						The United Kingdom.	A British Colony.
		III.—Articles wholly or mainly manufactured—*contd.*		Rs. a. p.			
		MISCELLANEOUS—*contd.*					
142	24A	LIGHT SHIPS	..	..	Free.	....	....
143	159	Matches, undipped splints and veneers—					
		(*a*) Matches—					
		(1) In boxes containing on the average not more than 100 matches.	gross of boxes.	..	Rs. 1-14.	....	....
		(2) In boxes containing on the average more than 100 matches.	For every 25 matches or fraction thereof in each box, per gross of boxes.	..	Seven annas and six pies.	....	....
		(*b*) Undipped Splints such as are ordinarily used for match making.	lb.	..	Five annas and seven and half pies.	....	....
		(*c*) Veneers such as are ordinarily used for making boxes, including boxes and parts of boxes made of such veneers.	lb.	..	Seven annas and six pies.	....	....
144	108	MATS AND MATTINGS not otherwise specified	..	*Ad valorem.*	25 per cent.	....	....
145	108A	NEWSPAPERS, old, in bales and bags ..	..	*Ad valorem.*	25 per cent.	....	....
		Tariff value— Old newspapers in bales and bags ..	cwt.	3 14 0			
146	109	OILCAKES	..	*Ad valorem.*	25 per cent.	....	....
147	208	OIL CLOTH AND FLOOR CLOTH	..	*Ad valorem.*	30 per cent.	20 per cent. ..	....

Schedule II—(Import Tariff)—*continued.*

Serial No.	No. in the Statutory Schedule.	Names of Articles.	Per	Tariff values.	Standard rate of duty.	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of—	
						The United Kingdom.	A British Colony.
		III.—Articles wholly or mainly manufactured—*contd.*		Rs. a. p.			
		MISCELLANEOUS—*contd.*					
148	209	PACKING—Engine and Boiler—all sorts not otherwise specified.	..	*Ad valorem.*	30 per cent.	20 per cent.	....
149	112	PERFUMERY, not otherwise specified ..	..	*Ad valorem.*	25 per cent.	....	....
		Tariff values—					
		Gowla, husked and unhusked	cwt.	58 0 0			
		Kapurkachri (zedoary)	,,	18 0 0			
		Patch leaves (patchouli)	,,	17 0 0			
		Rose-flowers, dried	,,	17 4 0			
150	113	PITCH and tar	..	*Ad valorem.*	25 per cent.	....	....
		Tariff values—					
		Coal pitch	cwt.	2 8 0			
		Stockholm pitch	,,	14 0 0			
151	114	POLISHES and compositions	..	*Ad valorem.*	25 per cent.	....	....
152	241	PORTLAND CEMENT excluding white Portland cement.	ton	..	Rs. 18-4.	Rs. 13-12.	....
153	46D	PRINTERS' ink	..	*Ad valorem.*	10 per cent.	....	....
53 A	46	PRINTING Type	lb.	..	One anna and three pies.	....	....
154	54	The following printing material, namely, leads, brass rules, wooden and metal quoins, shooting sticks and galleys and metal furniture.	..	*Ad valorem.*	2½ per cent.	....	....

Schedule II—(Import Tariff)—*continued.*

Serial No.	No. in the Statutory Schedule.	Names of Articles.	Per	Tariff values.	Standard rate of duty.	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of—	
						The United Kingdom.	A British Colony.
		III.—Articles wholly or mainly manufactured—*contd.*		Rs. a. p.			
		MISCELLANEOUS—*contd.*					
155	138	PRINTS, Engravings and Pictures (including photographs and picture post cards), not otherwise specified.*	..	*Ad valorem.*	50 per cent.	....	....
156	55	RACKS for the withering of tea leaf	..	*Ad valorem.*	2½ per cent.	....	....
157	24B	ROPES, cotton	..	..	Free.	....	....
158	210	RUBBER TYRES and tubes and other manufactures of rubber not otherwise specified, excluding apparel and boots and shoes.	..	*Ad valorem.*	30 per cent.	20 per cent.	....
		Tariff values—					
		Cycle tyres from Japan and the Far East.	dozen.	10 8 0			
		Cycle tubes from Japan and the Far East.	..	2 8 0			
159	64	SHIPS and other vessels for inland and harbour navigation including steamers, launches, boats and barges imported entire or in sections:	..	*Ad valorem.*	15⅝ per cent.	....	....
		Provided that articles of machinery as defined in Serial No. 96 or No. 99 shall, when separately imported, not be deemed to be included hereunder.					
159 A	115	SLATE PENCILS	..	*Ad valorem.*	25 per cent.	....	....

Schedule II—(Import Tariff)—*continued.*

Serial No.	No. in the Statutory Schedule.	Names of Articles.	Per.	Tariff Values.	Standard rate of duty.	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of—	
						The United Kingdom.	A British Colony.
		III.—Articles wholly or mainly manufactured—*contd.*		Rs. a. p.			
		MISCELLANEOUS—*contd.*					
160	243	SMOKERS' requisites excluding tobacco and matches.	..	*Ad valorem.*	50 per cent.	40 per cent.	...
161	116	SOAP	..	*Ad valorem.*	25 per cent.	....	....
161 A	242	SOAP, toilet	..	*Ad valorem.*	35 per cent.	25 per cent.	....
162	24C	STARCH AND FARINA	..	..	Free.	....	....
162 A	24D	STONE PREPARED AS FOR ROAD METALLING ..	..	..	Free.	....	....
163	118	STONE AND MARBLE, and articles made of stone and marble but excluding stone prepared as for road metalling.	..	*Ad valorem.*	25 per cent.	....	....
163 A	119	TEA CHESTS and parts and fittings thereof ..	..	*Ad valorem.*	25 per cent.	....	....
164	211	TOILET requisites not otherwise specified ..	..	*Ad valorem.*	30 per cent.	20 per cent.	....
165	244	TOYS, GAMES, PLAYING CARDS and requisites for games and sports, birdshot, toy cannons, air guns and air pistols for the time being excluded in any part of British India from the operation of all the prohibitions and directions contained in the Indian Arms Act, 1878, and bows and arrows.	..	*Ad valorem.*	50 per cent.	40 per cent.	....
		Tariff value—					
		Birdshot	cwt.	25 0 0			

Schedule II—(Import Tariff)—*continued.*

Serial No.	No. in the Statutory Schedule.	Names of Articles.	Per	Tariff Values.	Standard rate of Duty.	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of—	
						The United Kingdom.	A British Colony.
		III.—Articles wholly or mainly manufactured—*concld.*		Rs. a. p.			
		MISCELLANEOUS—*concld.*					
165 A	160	WOOD PULP	ton	..	Rs. 56-4.	....	....
166	120	ALL OTHER ARTICLES wholly or mainly manufactured, not otherwise specified.	..	*Ad valorem.*	25 per cent.	....	....
		IV.—Miscellaneous and Unclassified.					
167	25	ANIMALS, living, all sorts	..	..	Free.	....	....
167 A	245	BETELNUTS	..	*Ad valorem.*	45 per cent.	....	37½ per cent.
		Tariff values—					
		Betelnuts (husked)—					
		Whole from Straits, Dutch East Indies and Siam.	cwt.	6 0 0			
		Whole from Goa and Ceylon ..	,,	10 0 0			
		Split from Ceylon—					
		(*a*) Mature	,,	14 0 0			
		(*b*) Immature	,,	28 0 0			
		All other articles including split not specified and sliced.	,,	8 0 0			
168	121	CORAL	..	*Ad valorem.*	25 per cent.	....	....
169	57	FODDER, bran and pollards	..	*Ad valorem.*	2½ per cent.	....	....
169 A	25A	INSIGNIA AND BADGES of official British and Foreign Orders.	..	..	Free.	....	....

Schedule II—(Import Tariff)—*concluded.*

Serial No.	No. in the Statutory Schedule.	Names of Articles.	Per	Tariff Values.	Standard rate of duty.	Preferential rate of duty if the article is the produce or manufacture of—	
						The United Kingdom.	A British Colony.
		IV.—Miscellaneous and Unclassified—*concld.*		Rs. a. p.			
169 B	25B	PLANTS, living, all sorts	..	..	Free.	....	....
170	26	SPECIMENS, Models and Wall Diagrams illustrative of natural science, and medals and antique coins.*	..	..	Free.	....	....
171	212	Umbrellas including parasols and sunshades, and fittings therefor.	..	*Ad valorem.*	30 per cent.	20 per cent.	....
		Tariff values—					
		UMBRELLAS ribs other than nickelled, brassed, fluted or metal tipped—					
		Solid Flexus, all sizes—					
		From Japan	dozen sets of 8.	1 2 0			
		From other countries	,,	2 4 0			
		Solids, 23, 25 and 27 inches—					
		From Japan	dozen sets of 12.	1 5 0			
		From other countries	,,	2 10 0			
		Solids, 16, 19 and 21 inches—					
		From Japan	dozen sets of 8.	0 12 0			
		From other countries	,,	1 4 0			
172	123	ALL OTHER ARTICLES not otherwise specified, including articles imported by post.	..	*Ad valorem.*	25 per cent.	....	....

* Under Government of India, Finance Department (Central Revenues) Notification No. 14, dated the 9th April 1932, wall pictures and diagrams such as are ordinarily used for instructional purposes are also exempt from payment of import duty.

Schedule III—(Export Tariff).

No. in the Statutory Schedule.	Names of Articles.	Per	Tariff Values.	Duty.
	JUTE, OTHER THAN BIMLIPATAM JUTE.		Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.
1	RAW JUTE— (1) Cuttings	Bale of 400 lb.	..	1 4 0
2	JUTE MANUFACTURES, when not in actual use as coverings, receptacles or bindings, for other goods— (1) Sacking (cloth-bags, twist, yarn, rope and twine)*	,,	..	4 8 0
	(2) Hessians and all other descriptions of jute manufactures not otherwise specified.† ..	Ton of 2,240 lbs.	..	20 0 0
	HIDES AND SKINS.	,,	..	32 0 0
3	RAW HIDES AND SKINS § *Tariff values*— .. .. If exported from Burma—	..	*Ad valorem.*	5 per cent.
	(1) Arsenicated and air-dried hides— (*a*) Cows (including calf skins) .. .. (*b*) Buffaloes (including calf skins)	Lb.	0 2 9	
	(2) Dry salted hides— (*a*) Cows (including calf skins)	,,	0 1 6	
	(*b*) Buffaloes (including calf skins)	,,	0 2 6	
	(3) Wet salted hides— (*a*) Cows (including calf skins)	,,	0 1 9	
	(*b*) Buffaloes (including calf skins)	,,	0 1 6	
	(4) Goat and kid skins	,,	0 1 0	
	(5) Sheep skins	Piece.	0 8 0	
		,,	0 6 0	

* Under Government of India, Finance Department (Central Revenues) Notification No. 14 dated the 9th April 1932, bagging for raw cotton made from Cadis rove of not less than 190 lbs. per spyndle (14,400 yards) weighing not less than 1¼ lbs. per square yard and having a total of not more than 125 single or double warp and weft threads per square yard and bagging for raw cotton made from rove (containing not less than 85 per cent. Cadis) of not less than 150 lbs. per spyndle (14,400 yards) weighing not less than 1¼ lbs. per square yard and having a total of not more than 140 or less than 126 single or double warp and weft threads per square yard, are exempt from payment of export duty.

† Under Government of India, Finance Department (Central Revenues) Notification No. 14, dated the 9th April 1932, Jute Rags such as are used for paper making are exempt from payment of export duty provided that the Customs Collector is satisfied that they are useless for any purpose to which cloth or rope is ordinarily put.

§ Under Government of India, Finance Department (Central Revenues) Notification No. 14, dated the 9th April 1932, hide and skin cuttings and fleshings such as are used for glue-making are exempt from payment of export duty.

Schedule III—(Export Tariff)—*concluded.*

No. in the Statutory Schedule.	Names of Articles.	Per.	Tariff Values.	Duty.
	HIDES AND SKINS—*contd.*			
3—*contd.*	RAW HIDES AND SKINS—*contd.*			
	Tariff values—contd.		Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.
	If exported from any place in British India other than Burma—			
	(1) Arsenicated and air-dried hides—			
	(*a*) Cows (including calf skins). Framed	Lb.	0 5 0	
	Unframed	Lb.	0 5 0	
	(*b*) Buffaloes (including calf skins). Framed	,,	0 3 3	
	Unframed	,,	0 3 6	
	(2) Dry salted hides—			
	(*a*) Cows (including calf skins)	,,	0 2 6	
	(*b*) Buffaloes (including calf skins)	,,	0 3 6	
	(3) Wet salted hides—			
	(*a*) Cows (including calf skins)	,,	0 2 0	
	(*b*) Buffaloes (including calf skins)	,,	0 2 0	
	(4) Goat and kid skins	,,	0 2 0	
	(5) Sheep skins	,,	0 1 6	
	RICE.			
4	RICE, husked or unhusked, including rice flour but excluding rice bran and rice dust, which are free.	Piece.	0 14 0	
		,,	0 8 0	
		Indian maund of 82⅔ lbs.	..	Two annas and three pies.

Finance.

The gradual evolution of the present financial organisation of India is in many respects a reflection of her constitutional development. Those who take a broad view of the history of Federal States—and by whatever name it may be called India must in its political structure be a Federal State—nothing is more impressive than the ebb and flow in what may be called the adjustment of Federal and State rights. There is a constant mutation in the powers of the central government and the federal components, though in India we use the terms "Government of India" and "Provincial Governments" to describe them. In the earliest days of British rule, the Provinces, and especially the older Presidencies, were for all practical purposes independent of the central government and responsible only to the authority sitting in London. After the middle of the nineteenth century the process was reversed, and the Government of India was all-powerful, controlling the Provinces down to the smallest items of their expenditure. This centralisation reached its highest point during the long Viceroyalty of Lord Curzon, who was so jealous of his supreme authority that he sought to deprive the Presidency Governors of their right to correspond direct with the Secretary of State for India. This system was found top-heavy in the days of his successors, and a continuous process of devolution set in. In the matter of finance the measures took the form of long-term "contracts" with the Provincial Governments, and later in the assignment of definite heads of revenue to the Provincial Governments, thus removing the dual authority and responsibility which had clogged progress. A much clearer cut was made when the great reform scheme embodied in the Government of India Act of 1919 was passed. Here, for all practical reasons, Provincial finance was entirely separated from the finances of the Government of India, and with one reservation the Local Governments were made masters in their own financial houses. The reservation arose from the circumstance that the funds of the Government of India did not then permit them to do entirely without contributions from the Provinces. These contributions were fixed in the shape of definite sums, which the Provincial Governments had to find from their own resources and pay to the Government of India in cash. They varied between Province and Province, on a scale which at first sight seemed inequitable, but which had a definite logical basis. The total of these contributions was a little less than ten crores of rupees. This was admittedly a temporary expedient, to last only so long as was necessary for the Government of India to reduce its post-war expenditure and develop its revenues to the point when they would balance without drawing from the Provinces. They were an open sore, each Province claiming that it paid an undue proportion of the total contribution, and that it was starved in consequence. There was no possibility of adjusting these differences, so the contributions were reduced as fast as the finances of the Government of India permitted. They finally disappeared from the Budget in 1928-29.

But this did not end the discussion; indeed it was only the first phase. A large issue remains, and despite the extinction of the Provincial contributions the finances of some of the Provinces are in an unsatisfactory state. Broadly the issue may be put in this way. The Government of India has taken the growing heads of revenue those which issue from taxes on income and customs. The Provinces are left with resources which are either almost static, like land revenue, or which are actually declining, as with excise where steps are being taken to reduce the consumption of alcoholic liquor in response to the strong Indian sentiment towards prohibition. At the same time the Provinces are confronted with the great growing sources of expenditure, like those on education and sanitation which bulk largely in Provincial budgets. The burden is heaviest in the industrial provinces, such as Bombay and Bengal. The standard of living is high; wages and costs are a good deal above those of the agricultural provinces. This means an expensive administration. On the other hand the industrial progress which induces this costlier administration pours all its taxable product into the coffers of the Government of India. Rules made to give Bombay and Bengal some share in the Income Tax receipts have been inoperative in practice. Whilst therefore relief is felt at the abolition of the Provincial Contributions under the 1919 settlement, it is felt that this does not go far enough, and there is still this pressure for some share in the revenues from the taxes on income which, it is believed, alone can put the industrial Provinces on a satisfactory basis.

A Review.

The financial organisation was, of course, reviewed as part of the work of the Round Table Conference. A sub-committee of the Federal Structure Committee was appointed under the chairmanship of Lord Peel to examine the question of federal finance and the principles embodied in the sub-committee's report were endorsed by the parent Committee as a suitable basis. A Federal Finance Committee with Lord Eustace Percy as Chairman was appointed at the end of 1931 to subject to the test of figures, the suggested classification of revenues by the Peel Committee and to estimate the probable financial position of the Federal and of the Provincial Governments under the proposed scheme. In the course of their report the Federal Finance Committee said that the transfer to the Provinces of taxes on income though defensible in principle would leave the Centre in deficit. Therefore the Peel Committee suggested a method of transferring to each Province a percentage of the share of income tax estimated to be attributable to it. But in view of the incomplete data on which the estimates were made a special review is said to be necessary at the time federation is established in order to fix the initial percentages. A strict allocation on a percentage basis would still leave some Provinces in deficit and so as to right their finances the committee suggested spreading the charge over the other Provinces by giving them back less in income tax than they were entitled to.

Regarding possible new sources of revenue, Federal or Provincial, the Federal Finance Committee reported as follows :—

Federal.

Excise on Tobacco.—The present position in regard to this tax appears to be that a substantial revenue may be expected from a system of vend licenses and fees, but that an excise duty imposed in the near future could not be relied on to yield a substantial revenue. There is general agreement that such a duty could not be imposed on the cultivator, and it is doubtful whether a duty on the manufactured product could be successful while manufacture continues to be so largely carried on in small establishments and even as a domestic industry. Vend licenses and fees can obviously be imposed only by the Governments of the Units, and their imposition by the Provincial Governments is now being encouraged by the Government of India. The difficulties in the way of a federal excise may be overcome in course of time, but it would be unsafe for us to rely on this in the near future.

Excise on Matches—The imposition of an excise duty on matches is already under active consideration, and we feel justified in contemplating the existence of such a duty from the outset of federation. We are advised that the probable net yield of the tax for all-India at a reasonable rate, with due allowance for reduced consumption, would be about 3 crores, of which at least 2.50 crores would be raised in British India.

Other Excises.—It is possible that other excise duties may occupy an important place in the fiscal Policy of India in the future, but we do not feel warranted in relying upon the introduction of such measures in the early years of federation.

Monopolies.—We have examined the suggestion, made at the Round Table Conference, that federal revenues should be augmented by a few selected monopolies. From the fiscal point of view it is only in very special circumstances that a monopoly, whether of production, manufacture or sale, is to be preferred to an excise duty as a means of raising revenue. Except in so far as the proposals already noticed in regard to tobacco may be regarded as a monopoly, we can suggest no new commodity to which the monopoly method could be applied with advantage. The manufacture of arms and explosives, which has been suggested as a possible monopoly, is already subject to license. Public utility monopolies stand on rather a different footing; but the only new federal monopoly of this kind that has been suggested to us is broadcasting, the revenue from which must be entirely problematical.

Commercial Stamps.—In the Peel Report it was observed that "There is much to be said for federalising Commercial Stamps on the lines of various proposals made in the past," but no definite recommendation was made. We have examined this suggestion, but on the whole we cannot recommend it, at least as an immediate measure.

The yield of certain stamp duties which might be placed in this category was, in 1930-31, slightly more than one crore. This was a sub-normal year, and the normal yield should be somewhat higher. In 1930-31 about 40 per cent. of the yield was received by Bombay (one-eight of this being attributable to Sind), 27 per cent. by Bengal and 12 per cent. by Madras. The loss of revenue resulting from the federalisation of these duties would therefore be unevenly distributed, and their federalisation would not ease the problem of distributing income-tax.

Further, there are obvious difficulties in the way of separating stamp duties into two classes, commercial and non-commercial. It could only be done by means of a schedule, and a large element of purely arbitrary selection would be involved. The simple constitutional solution would be to class all stamp duties as provincial sources of revenue.

We have given some attention to the question, considered by the Federal Structure Committee whether the Provincial Governments should be given power also to fix the rates of duty on all stamps, or whether legislation on this subject should be reserved, wholly or partially, to the Federal Government. We suggest that the Federal Government should retain the power to legislate on behalf of the Provinces in regard to those stamp duties which are the subject of legislation by the Central Government at the date of federation. The duties which are now the subject of central legislation are those on acknowledgments, bills of exchange, share certificates, cheques (not now dutiable), delivery orders in respect of goods, letters of allotment of shares, letters of credit, insurance policies, promissory notes, proxies, receipts and shipping orders. We understand that proposals have been under consideration for adding other duties to this list, and would suggest that, if any such additions are contemplated, that should be made before the establishment of the Federation.

We ought to add, in this connection, that difficulties already arise in estimating the share of each Province in the proceeds from the sale of postage stamps for use on taxed documents, and these difficulties may be expected to lead to considerable friction with the Provincial Governments unless a more satisfactory system can be devised.

Finally, in proposing that the proceeds of commercial stamps should be assigned to the Units, we have to some extent been influenced by a doubt whether the problems arising from the imposition of federal stamp duties in the States might not be disproportionate to the revenue involved. We do not, however, wish to prejudge the possibility that, as part of the general federation settlement with the States, it might be found desirable to include these duties among the sources of federal revenue. This consideration might well outweigh the reasons which have led us to recommend that commercial stamps should not be made a source of federal revenue.

Corporation Tax.—From the financial point of view, it seems clear that, if a corporation tax were imposed on companies registered in the States on the same basis as the present super-tax on companies in British India, the yield at present would be negligible.

Provincial.

Taxation of Tobacco.—We have already dealt briefly with this question and have suggested that the taxation of tobacco, otherwise than by excise on production or manufacture, should rest with the Units, but that the Federal Government should be given the right to impose a general federal excise. This distinction is, we think, justified by the fact that *ex hypothesi* the introduction of excise duties on manufacture will be difficult, if not impossible, until manufacture becomes more highly industrialised; and as that development takes place an excise levied at the factory by one Unit of the Federation would be a tax on consumers in other Units. It will be seen from our later proposals in regard to powers of taxation that the federalisation of tobacco excise would not preclude the Federal Government from assigning the proceeds to the Units, if it so desired.

There is, unfortunately, no material which would enable us to estimate the yield of any of these forms of taxation. The provincial taxes will take some time to mature, but eventually they may be expected to form at least a very useful additional source of provincial revenue.

Succession Duties.—Bombay is, we believe, the only Provincial Government which has attempted legislation for the imposition of succession duties, and the attempt was unsuccessful. We understand that even that Government would have preferred that legislation should have been undertaken by the Government of India. We propose elsewhere that succession duties should be classed among taxes leviable by the Federal Government for the benefit of the Units; but clearly the facts would not justify reliance on them as a source of revenue in the near future.

Terminal Taxes.—We have been asked to weigh the issues which arise from the proposal to introduce terminal taxes generally as an additional source of revenue for the Provinces. As the arguments for and against this proposal have been so fully set forth in previous reports, it scarcely seems necessary to re-state them here. The feature of such taxation which has impressed us most seriously is its operation as, in effect, a surcharge on railway freights. Where municipal octrois are in force, there appears to be a tendency to substitute for the general levy of dues on all goods entering the municipal boundaries the simpler alternative of a terminal tax collected at the railway station, and there is already a danger that this habit may result in diversion of traffic to the roads. We therefore recommend that, if terminal taxes are to be regarded as a permanent part of the financial structure, they should be imposed by the Federal Legislature for the benefit of the Units. Such terminal taxes as are already in existence (mainly as municipal taxes) will fall into much the same category as other taxes classed as federal which, at the time of federation, are being levied by certain Units; but though it may be necessary for this reason to authorise the municipalities and Provinces concerned to continue to raise these taxes, they should be allowed to do so only within limits laid down by the Federal Legislature. Assam and Bihar and Orissa are the two Provinces which, having few or no municipal taxes of the kind at present, are most desirous of deriving provincial revenue from this source. While we do not rule out the possibility of terminal taxes in these two Provinces and elsewhere as a temporary expedient, in view of the practice which has grown up in various parts of India, we are not prepared to regard terminal taxes as a normal source of revenue.

Taxation of Agricultural Incomes.—We have not considered the broad issues of policy involved in the taxation of agricultural incomes, but we have considered, as we were commissioned to do, the more limited question of "the possibility of empowering individual Provinces, if they so desire, to raise, or appropriate the proceeds of a tax on agricultural incomes." In view of the close connection between this subject and land revenue, we agree that the right to impose such taxation should rest with the Provinces. For the same reason, we think that this right should be restricted to the taxation of income originating in the Province concerned. There will presumably be no difficulty in drafting into the constitution a definition of agricultural income which has so long been recognised in Indian income-tax law and practice.

We are not prepared to express a final opinion as to whether agricultural and non-agricultural income should be aggregated for the purpose of determining the right of the assessee to exemption and the rate of taxation to which he is liable on either section of his income; and we doubt whether any provision need be inserted in the constitution on this point since we are advised that, in practice, it would scarcely be possible for either the Federal or a Provincial Government to take into consideration income not liable to taxation by it, except with the consent and co-operation of the other Government.

We are aware of no reliable data for estimating the yield of such taxation.

Conclusion.—In this survey of possible sources of additional revenue, we have deliberately left out of account the question whether or to what extent it would be possible to increase the yield of existing taxes. We have confined ourselves to an examination of new sources, and in this field the results of our survey are not encouraging. We have found that such provincial taxes as appear to be within the sphere of practical politics in the immediate future cannot be relied on to yield any substantial early additions to provincial revenues. In using the phrase "practical politics," we are not, of course, expressing an opinion as to whether this or that tax ought or ought not to be imposed, or even as to whether it is or is not likely to be imposed by the legislatures of autonomous Provinces when these are constituted. We are only noting the fact that the opposition to certain forms of taxation, or the difficulty of their imposition, is still so great that they are not likely to be adopted soon enough to influence the financial situation at the time when the Federation comes into being. In the federal sphere, the excise on matches is the only tax which we feel justified in taking into account as an immediate reinforcement of federal revenues.

Railway Finance.—The year 1924-25 was marked by a step of great importance in the better organisation of Indian finance. As is explained in detail under the section Railways (*q.v.*) the Government of India is a great railway owner. It owns and operates itself a very large proportion of the railway system through what are called State Railways; it is the principal shareholder in other lines which are leased to Companies which operate them. Prior to the year in question, the railway finances were incorporated in the general finances of the country. The effects of this were unfortunate. As the finances of a State are not managed on commercial lines, the railways were not conducted on commercial principles. Then the annual allotments to railway expenditure were not determined by the needs of the railways themselves, but by the amount at the disposal of the Government of India. The evil effects of this policy were forcibly exposed in the report of a strong committee of investigation, usually called after the name of its chairman, the Acworth Committee, which recommended the entire separation of the Railway Budget from the general finances. Some delay incurred in giving effect to this recommendation, but it was carried out in the year 1924-25. The bases of the settlement were complete separation of finance; a definite annual contribution from the railways revenues to the general revenues; and the creation of a Standing Finance Committee of the Legislative Assembly to review estimates of railway expenditure before they are placed before the Assembly. The railway contribution was settled on the basis of one per cent. on the capital at charge, plus one-fifth of the surplus profits; further, if after the payment of the contributions so fixed the amount available for transfer to Railway Reserves exceeds the sum of Rs. 3 crores, one-third of the excess should be paid to the General Revenues. The effects of this change are expected to yield to the General Revenues a fixed contribution from the railway property instead of a varying figure destructive of accurate budgetting, and to give to the railways the usufruct of their operation and secure management and development on commercial principles.

In the past few years, owing to the economic depression, the railways have been unable to make the contribution to general revenues.

I. RECENT INDIAN FINANCE.

The year 1924 marked a distinct and very important stage in the finances of India. Those who have studied the history of Indian finance will remember the general trend of the country's balance sheet. Up to the outbreak of the war it was a record of very careful finance, with a general surplus of revenue over expenditure, all such surpluses, save when they were in the nature of "windfalls" going to the avoidance of debt. Throughout the war the finances were carefully handled and with certain moderate increases in taxation the accounts were made to balance. But commencing in 1919 a lamentable change came over the situation. The wanton invasion of India by Afghanistan meant a war which cost the exchequer directly some 34 crores of rupees. Nor was this all. Whilst the military resistance of Afghanistan to the Indian forces was contemptible, and Kabul lay open to easy seizure if it had been thought worth while to occupy it, the effect of this attack was to set a large part of the North-West Frontier ablaze and to thrust on the Government of India a series of costly expeditions. When these were completed, there remained the necessity of establishing a new Frontier system to take the place of that which collapsed in 1919. This especially in the notoriously troublesome country of Waziristan, (*q. v.* Frontier) involved the occupation of certain dominating posts and of connecting them with each other and with the advanced military stations of India by a series of very expensive roads. This abnormal expenditure dislocated the financial equilibrium of the whole country. Nor is it possible to acquit the Finance Department of the Government of India in the difficult post-war period of a relaxation of that close control of expenditure which in previous years had balanced the accounts, even in the years of famine and plague. The result was that the accumulated deficits of the Government of India reached the very high figure of Rs. 100 crores. This led to two results.

Retrenchment and Taxation.—Owing to the insistent demand for retrenchment the Government of India appointed in 1922 a retrenchment committee, on the model of the Geddes Committee which overhauled the extravagant post-war expenditure of the British Government. This committee is generally called after its chairman, the Inchcape Committee. It sat in 1923, and presented a report which recommended reductions in expenditure which amounted in the aggregate to Rs. 18 crores.

Financial equilibrium was established and a surplus realised in the Budget of 1923-24.

Statement comparing the actual Revenue and Expenditure of the Central Government since 1921-22.

In lakhs of Rupees.

Year.	Revenue.	Expenditure.	Surplus(+) Deficit(−)
1921-22 ..	1,15,21	1,38,40	−27,65
1922-23 ..	1,21,41	1,31,88	−15,62
1923-24 ..	1,33,17	1,27,16	+ 2,39
1924-25 ..	1,38,04	1,28,58	+5,68
1925-26 ..	1,33,33	1,25,05	+3,31
1926-27 ..	1,31,70	1,23,77	(*a*)
1927-28 ..	1,25,04	1,22,22	(*a*)
1928-29 ..	1,28,24	1,23,88	−32
1929-30 ..	1,32,69	1,26,68	+27
1930-31 ..	1,24,60	1,30,04	−11,58
1931-32 ..	1,21,64	1,26,50	−11,75
1932-33 ..	1,26,40	1,18,01	+1,55
1933-34 (Revised) ..	1,19,31	1,15,02	(*b*)
1934-35 (Budget) ..	1,20,43	1,15,10	+19

(*a*) Whole surplus placed to provision for reduction or avoidance of debt.

(*b*) Surplus to Earthquake Fund.

II. THE PRESENT FINANCIAL POSITION.

India, in common with other countries of the world, felt the full force of the economic blizzard which began in 1930 and attained its maximum the following year. The net result from the Government of India's point of view was the introduction during 1931 of two Budgets, the ordinary Budget in the spring of the year and a supplementary Budget containing fresh taxation proposals in September. When Sir George Schuster faced the Legislative Assembly at the end of February, he had a sorry tale to tell. Trade depression, coupled with civil disobedience movement, had completely vitiated the estimates made for 1930-31. These estimates showed a surplus of Rs. 86 lakhs; the revised estimates worked upto a deficit of Rs. 13.56 crores, which the Finance Member said would remain uncovered and would be added to the unproductive debt. The main items of deterioration as compared with the Budget can be summarised as follows :—

	Lakhs.
Important revenue heads, viz., Customs, Taxes on Income, Salt and Opium (net) ..	12,10
Posts and Telegraphs (including the Indo-European Telegraph Department)	89
Finance headings, viz., Debt services, Currency and Mint.	1,38
Other heads	5
Total Rs.	14,42

Turning to the estimates for 1931-32, the Finance Member said they must face a fall in tax revenue, as compared with the current Budget estimates, of no less than Rs. 13.16 crores, including a drop of Rs. 8 crores in Customs and 4¼ crores in income tax. The total deterioration under Finance headings was Rs. 376 lakhs and on commercial departments Rs. 118 lakhs. This meant a total deterioration of Rs. 18.10 crores as compared with the Budget estimates for the current year, and as those provided for a surplus of Rs. 86 lakhs the net deficit would be Rs. 17.24 crores. To meet this deficit the Finance Member announced a cut of Rs. 175 lakhs in army expenditure and retrenchment to the extent of Rs. 98 lakhs in civil expenditure, making a total saving of Rs. 273 lakhs. The estimated deficit was reduced thereby to Rs. 14.51 crores, which he proposed to cover by fresh taxation.

New Taxation Proposals.—His proposals are grouped under two heads, Customs and Income Tax. Referring to the first the Finance Member said : "The heads in respect of which I propose alterations of the substantive tariff itself, are liquors, sugar, silver bullion, betelnuts, spices and exposed cinematograph films. The liquor duties are to be enhanced appreciably; the duty on beer and the like is at present undoubtedly low relatively to those on other alcoholic beverages and will be raised by about 66 per cent. above the present level, while those on wines and spirits (except denatured spirit and spirit used in drugs and medicines) will be raised by between 30 and 40 per cent. The duty on silver bullion I propose to increase from 4 to 6 annas per ounce. The other items mentioned will be transferred from the general rate of duty (now 15 per cent. *ad valorem*) to the "luxury" rate at 30 per cent. Of the surcharges, we have at a stroke added to the 10 per cent. schedule a surcharge of 2½ per cent., to the general or 15 per cent. schedule one of 5 per cent., and to the "luxury" or 30 per cent. schedule one of 10 per cent. By far the most important of these surcharges is that 5 per cent. on the general revenue schedule of 15 per cent., and connected with this, I must mention a feature of particular importance. We propose for this purpose to treat the basic duty of 15 per cent. on cotton piece-goods on the same lines as the general 15 per cent. schedule and to place the surcharge of 5 per cent. on these goods also. The surcharge on the 15 per cent schedule is expected to yield 90 lakhs for cotton piece-goods and 2,63 lakhs for other goods. Coming now to the schedule of non-protective special duties, here we have made additions appropriate to the general scheme, and I need only mention specially the surcharges that I propose to levy upon kerosene and motor spirit. Both customs and excise duty on kerosene are to be raised by 9 pies per gallon, while motor spirit is to bear a surcharge of 2 annas per gallon. Finally, I must explain my proposals as regards sugar. The position is special, because, while I am now proposing an increase in the duty for revenue purposes, we had received, just when my budget proposals were on the point of completion, the recommendations of the Tariff Board for the protection of sugar. Summarised, the Board's recommendations are :—(1) a basic duty of Rs. 6-4-0 per cwt. on all classes of sugar, including sugar candy, to be imposed for 15 years; (2) an additional duty of Re. 1 per cwt. on all classes of sugar to be imposed for the first 7 years; (3) power to be taken to add 8 annas per cwt. to the duty at any time if the landed price of sugar at Calcutta ex-duty falls below Rs. 4 per maund; (4) no protective duty on molasses. My own proposals for revenue purposes had been very close to this, for I had actually contemplated an extra duty round about Re. 1 to Rs. 1-8-0 per cwt. What I have now included is an increase of Rs. 1-4-0 per cwt. on all grades of sugar. This, as I have said, must be regarded purely as a revenue

measure pending consideration of the Tariff Board's recommendations. The combined effect of all these proposals as regards Custom duties will be to produce an additional revenue next year of 9.32 crores. We shall also obtain about 50 lakhs more from the increased import duties on galvanized pipes and sheets which the House discussed on 28th January last. This will raise the additional yield to 9.82 crores. Incidentally, the new duties, which will operate from 1st March, and the increased duties on galvanized pipes and sheets, which came into force on 30th December, will add to our revenue for the current year a sum estimated at 88 lakhs, thus reducing the current year's deficit to 12.68 crores."

Increased Income Tax.—Dealing with his proposed new tax on incomes, the Finance Member said: "The taxable minimum income for income-tax—Rs. 2,000—will not be lowered. The rate of tax on the lowest zone up to Rs. 4,999 will be raised by 4 pies. The rates on higher grades up to Rs. 39,999 will be raised in some cases by 5 pies, in some cases by 6 pies, and in the highest of these grades by 7 pies. At present the highest rate is reached at Rs. 40,000. It is now 19 pies. I propose a rate of 25 pies on incomes from Rs. 40,000 to Rs. 99,999, and a maximum rate of 26 pies on incomes of Rs. 1 lakh and over. The estimated yield of these increases is 5,07 lakhs gross or, deducting 53 lakhs on account of increased refunds, 4,54 lakhs net. In addition to this, I propose certain changes as regards super-tax. At present all assessees except Hindu undivided families are allowed a deduction of Rs. 50,000 in computing the income liable to super-tax. This will be lowered to Rs. 30,000 except for Hindu undivided families and companies, which will be allowed, as at present, a deduction of Rs. 75,000 and Rs. 50,000 respectively. In the new zone, Rs. 30,001 to Rs. 50,000 the super-tax rate will be 9 pies. Above Rs. 50,000 the graduated scales will be increased by 2 pies throughout. The flat rate for companies will be 1 anna as at present. These changes will yield, it is estimated, 46 lakhs. Thus the total estimated additional net revenue from taxes on income will be 5 crores. Briefly they will add an extra charge of about 2 to 5 per cent. on all incomes. The rates of additional tax have been so adjusted as to produce, in the final result, an evenly graduated scale of burden increasing as the income increases, and this object must be borne in mind in interpreting our proposals. The total yield from the proposed changes in Customs duties and taxes on income thus amounts to Rs. 14.82 crores, as against which the gap to be filled is Rs. 14.51 crores, so that I am left with a small surpuls of Rs. 31 lakhs.

Silver Duty.—Referring to silver, the Finance Member said:—"It is necessary for me to make a special reference to the proposed increase in the tax on silver because this has a general bearing on the whole question of our policy in relation to silver and its effect on the world position. The increase of two annas an ounce which we are proposing is estimated to produce 75 lakhs from the import duty and 7 lakhs from the excise or 82 lakhs in all. In itself it is a clearly justifiable form of raising revenue as part of the general plan designed to meet the situation which confronts us this year. The only possible objection to it might be based on broad grounds, that is to say, on a fear that it might tend to check consumption of silver in India and thus further weaken the price of silver to the disadvantage not only of India but of the whole world. We have given the fullest weight to this consideration, but with the very moderate increase in the duty which we now propose we do not think that the fear is justified. Similar apprehensions were expressed in certain quarters last year when we imposed the duty of 4 annas. But although this weakened the price for a few days, the market almost immediately recovered, and in spite of the duty and of the great decline of India's purchasing power, the consumption of silver in the current year is keeping up to the normal level. In fact, we anticipate a consumption, taking all sources of supply into account, of between 100 and 110 million ounces. India's consumption should not therefore this year be seriously affected by the increased duty, while, as regards helping to maintain the price of silver, we are prepared to consider action in other ways. I announced in my budget speech last year that the Government of India would be prepared to co-operate with other silver interests if any practical scheme could be devised for controlling the production of new silver and the sale of and new existing stocks. Unfortunately, the only response to my offer has been on the lines indicated in certain utterances which have appeared in the press by representatives of the main producing interests in America. In general, these gentlemen propose that their own production of new silver should remain unrestricted, but that Governments and others who hold large stocks of silver should refrain from realising their holdings, and leave the world's markets free for the new production. Now, whatever criticisms non-official members in this House may have made in the past on our policy of selling silver, I am sure that they would not expect the Government of India to part with the country's rights by acceding to any such one-sided arrangement. The demand that the Government of India should refrain from selling is, indeed, an astonishing proposition when the facts are studied. For, in fact, the whole world depends on India as a consumer. In the five years ending March 31, 1930, India absorbed about 540 million ounces of silver or 108 million ounces per annum. According to present indications, her absorption, even in the current year, will be up to this average, so that the total absorption in 6 years will be about 650 million ounces. As against this, the Government of India have sold out of their own holdings a total of only about 90 million ounces since 1926. Yet it is suggested that even this moderate realisation is to stop, and that India is to stand aside and keep her own home market free to absorb the production from the Mines of Mexico and the United States. This is a clearly unacceptable idea, and however anxious we may be—as indeed we are—to help, we must, as a condition of co-operation, secure fair consideration of India's interests. In the meanwhile, we must retain a free hand."

WAYS AND MEANS.

The following is a summary of the estimates of ways and means in India during 1933-34 and 1934-35 :—

(In crores of rupees.)

	Budget, 1933-34.	Revised, 1933-34.	Budget, 1934-35.
RECEIPTS.			
1. Excess of Revenue of the Central Government over Expenditure charged to Revenue.. ..	35.82	32.56	32.96
2. Unfunded Debt incurred—			
(*a*) Post Office Cash Certificates (net)	5.00	7.80	5.50
(*b*) Post Office Savings Bank deposits (net) ..	3.40	9.10	6.00
(*c*) Other Savings Bank deposits (net)	4.80	5.40	5.99
3. Appropriation for reduction or avoidance of debt.	6.88	3.00	3.00
4. Railway and Posts and Telegraphs Depreciation Funds	.42	.09	—.35
5. Post Office Cash Certificate Bonus Fund ..	1.35	.70	1.10
6. Miscellaneous Deposits and Remittances (net) ..	.24	.41	1.67
TOTAL RECEIPTS	57.91	59.06	55.87
DISBURSEMENTS.			
7. Capital Expenditure not charged to Revenue—			
(*a*) State Railways	2.00	—.75	2.96
(*b*) Posts and Telegraphs	.16	.16	.40
(*c*) Other items	1.06	1.41	1.29
8. Permanent Debt discharged (net)	28.95	42.54	13.24
9. Floating Debt discharged (net)	8.00	13.82	....
10. Loss on revaluation, sale transfer, etc., of assets of the Paper Currency Reserve (net)	....	7.89	.05
11. Loans by the Central Government—			
(*a*) To Provincial Loans Fund	3.91	3.68	6.00
(*b*) Other Loans	—.19	.28	1.49
12. Remittances between England and India—			
(*a*) Remittance from India for financing Home Treasury	28.00	50.00	35.60
(*b*) Transfers through the Gold Standard Reserve and the Paper Currency Reserve	—.50	—31.75	....
(*c*) Sale of silver	.50	5.08	....
(*d*) Other transactions (net)	1.39	1.57	.70
13. Balances of Provincial Governments	—2.76	—2.90	—2.91
TOTAL DISBURSEMENTS ..	70.52	91.03	58.82
NET DISBURSEMENTS	12.61	31.97	2.95
New Loan	12.00	30.82	.....
Reduction (+) or increase (—) of cash balance ..	+.61	+1.15	+2.95
Opening Balance	11.73	14.59	13.44
Closing Balance	11.12	13.44	10.49

Reception by the Assembly.—Strong opposition was manifested in the Assembly to the new income tax and super tax rates, and on the plea that Government's duty was to retrench expenditure still further, an amendment was passed reducing the proposed revenue from this source by Rs. 240 lakhs. Government found themselves unable to accept this cut, and the Finance Bill was returned to the Assembly by the Governor-General with the recommendation that it should be passed with an amendment to the Finance Member's original scheme involving a reduction in the lowest grades of income tax and leaving the higher grades untouched. The estimated decrease in revenue was about a crore of rupees compared with nearly two and a half crores created by the Assembly's vote. The following were the rates recommended by the Governor-General :—

In the case of every individual, Hindu undivided family, unregistered firm and other association of individuals not being a registered firm or a company :—

	Rate.
When the total income is less than Rs. 2,000	*Nil.*
When the total income is Rs. 2,000 or upwards, but is less than Rs. 5,000	Six pies in the rupee.
When the total income is Rs. 5,000 or upwards, but is less than Rs. 10,000	Nine pies in the rupee.
When the total income is Rs. 10,000 or upwards, but is less than Rs. 15,000	One anna in the rupee.
When the total income is Rs. 15,000 or upwards, but is less than Rs. 20,000	One anna and four pies in the rupee.
When the total income is Rs. 20,000 or upwards, but is less than Rs. 30,000	One anna and seven pies in the rupee.
When the total income is Rs. 30,000 or upwards, but is less than Rs. 40,000	One anna and eleven pies in the rupee.
When the total income is Rs. 40,000 or upwards, but is less than Rs. 1,00,000	Two annas and one pie in the rupee.
When the total income is Rs. 1,00,000 or upwards	Two annas and two pies in the rupee.
In the case of every company and registered firm, whatever its total income	Two annas and two pies in the rupee.

The Bill in its recommended form was, however, rejected by the Assembly by 60 votes to 56, and was sent to the Council of State where it was passed. It became law on being certified by the Governor-General. The gap of Rs. 105 lakhs caused by the amended income tax figures was partly filled by reduction of military expenditure to the extent of Rs. 60 lakhs and by Rs. 15 lakhs cut in civil expenditure.

Other cuts made by the Assembly and accepted by Government included token reductions of Rs. 100 in the demands for Customs, Income Tax, Executive Council and Army Department. Two cuts of Rs. one lakh and Rs. 100 were made in the Railway Board demand and were accepted.

Supplementary Budget.—It soon became evident that the worsening of the trade depression had seriously vitiated the revenue estimates in the February budget, and in September Sir George Schuster came before the Legislative Assembly with a Supplementary Finance Bill. The Finance Member said that the returns for the first five months indicated that they would fall short of their budget estimates for customs by at least Rs.10 crores, the heaviest reductions being under cotton piece-goods, sugar, silver, spirits and liquor, excise on motor spirit, iron and steel and in the jute export duty, while they expected a deficit of Rs. 1¼ crores on income-tax. Income from Railways and Posts and Telegraphs showed a similar decline. The total deterioration in income amounted to Rs. 11.33 crores in tax revenue, Rs.5.48 crores on commercial departments, Rs.2.29 crores in general finance headings, Rs. 23 lakhs under extraordinary receipts and Rs. 23 lakhs under other heads. As the budget provided for a small surplus of Rs. 1 lakh on the basis of the present estimates there would be a net deficit of Rs.19.55 crores. Putting the deficit for the current year and next year together they had a gap to fill of Rs. 39.05 crores. He proposed

to deal with the situation on three distinct lines, firstly, to reduce expenditure; secondly, to impose an emergency cut in salaries; and thirdly, to impose fresh taxation. Retrenchment measures in civil expenditure he estimated would save about Rs.30 lakhs in the current year, and Rs. 250 lakhs next year, while military expenditure next year would be curtailed by Rs.450 lakhs. A ten per cent cut in pay in both civil and military departments would lead to a saving of Rs. 60 lakhs in the current year and Rs.190 lakhs next year. Turning to new methods of raising revenue the Finance Member said his first proposal would be an immediate increase in the salt revenue by abolishing the credit system, which would mean that the revenue would be increased by a crore of rupees each year on this account. The main plank of his new taxation proposals was to put a temporary surcharge on all existing taxes with the exception of Customs export duties, the surcharge being 25 per cent on the existing rates in each case. He proposed that the surcharge for the current year in income-tax should only be 12½ per cent, but it would be collected at this rate on the whole year's income. Government held that in the present emergency they were justified in reducing the income-tax exemption limit and imposing a small tax of four pies in the rupee on incomes between Rs. 1,000 and Rs.2,000 per annum. Dealing with special increases and new taxes, the Finance Member said: "We propose to increase the import duty on artificial silk piece-goods from 20 to 40 per cent. and on artificial silk yarn from 10 per cent. to 15 per cent. We also propose to increase the duty on brown sugar from Rs.6-12-0 to Rs.7-4-0 per cwt. This follows the Tariff Board's recommendation. As regards boots and shoes, we propose that there should be imposed as an alternative to the 20 per cent. duty a minimum of 4 annas per pair. The duty will thus be 20 per cent. or 4 annas a pair, whichever is the higher. We also propose to increase the duty on camphor and on electric bulbs from 20 to 40 per cent. As regards all these articles the surcharge wil lbe levied on the increased duty."

"Then there are three items formerly on the free list on which we think it justifiable to impose a small duty on revenue grounds. The result of the surcharges imposed in last Budget and proposed now is that the level of the general revenue tariff has been increased from 15 to 25 per cent. There is, therefore, some justification for adding a 10 per cent. duty to articles hitherto free. We propose to put duties of 10 per cent. on machinery and dyes, and of ¼ anna per lb. on raw cotton. I must expect criticism of these duties especially from the cotton mills, and I must acknowledge that their imposition may appear to be in some ways inconsistent with previous policy. The justification must be the need for revenue, while as regards the cotton mills we may claim that on balance their position will be improved by our surcharge proposals, for under these the import duties on cotton piece-goods will be increased by one quarter. This more than offsets the burden of ¼ anna per lb. on goods made from imported cotton, and affords an effective answer to possible criticisms on the grounds to which I have referred. I have one more word to say as regards the income-tax proposals. In considering the cut to be applied to the salaries of Government officials we considered what total reduction of their emoluments could fairly be imposed. If the general rate of reduction is to be 10 per cent., that represents what we think fair, and if further increases of income-tax were to be added, that would go beyond the reasonable limit. We therefore propose that increases of income-tax both by way of surcharge on existing rates or by way of imposition of a tax for the first time on salaries from Rs.1,000 to Rs.2,000 should be merged in any general cut which we are imposing or which the Provincial Governments may impose."

The Finance Member's final proposal was to increase the postage for inland letters to 1½ annas instead of 1 anna and for postcards to 9 pies instead of 6 pies. That enhancement was expected to produce Rs.73 lakhs in a full year and go a long way to cover the deficit of Rs.92 lakhs in the working results of the Posts and Telegraphs Department which would be left even if the recommendations of the Posts and Telegraphs Accounts Enquiry Committee were accepted.

Need for Solvency.—The net result for the current year was an estimated increase in taxation of Rs. 711 lakhs which, together with Rs. 37 lakhs from increased postal charges and Rs. 100 lakhs from salt revenue, meant, with retrenchment measures, an improvement of Rs. 938 lakhs as against an estimated deficit of Rs. 19.55 crores. They would thus close the year with a deficit of Rs. 10.17 crores. On the other hand, in 1932-33 they would feel the full benefit of the retrenchment measures and the extra taxaion, making a total improvement of Rs. 24.73 crores against an estimated deficit of Rs. 19.50 crores They should thus close the year with a surplus. of Rs. 5·23 crores. The combined result of the two years would be a deficit of Rs. 4·94 crores, which they were justified in regarding as covered by making during this period of exceptional stress a reduction of about Rs. 247 lakhs in each year for the provision for reduction or avoidance of debt. The net administrativen expenditure would, according to their plans, prooceed as follows :—

1930-31	..	Rs.79.67 crores.
1931-32	..	Rs.74.66 crores.
1932-33	..	Rs.65.95 crores.

Concluding his speech Sir George Schuster said: "I referred at the outset of my speech to the dangers, now that we are divorced from a gold standard, of any inflationary action for the purposes of meeting the current expenditure of the Government. If once that process starts, it may be impossible to save the country from a complete collapse of its currency. That has been the experience of all countries whose currencies collapsed after the War. They all went through the same process. Budgetary deficits, met first by borrowing; then a reluctance of the public to subscribe to government loans or treasury bills, then recourse to the note-printing press and inflation to provide funds to meet current public expenditure; then collapse in confidence in the currency, notes printed faster and faster until the amounts reached astronomical figures, and finally the complete disappearance of any value to the currency at all. We want to erect a solid

barrier against the possibility of India getting on to that slippery slope. That is the essential justification for our proposals. We have heard much talk in the last days about the disappearance of our currency reserves. But no currency can be large enough to stand up against a lack of confidence in the currency. Reserves are only valuable to tide over temporary difficulties. The real safeguard must be confidence in the soundness of a country's financial situation. If a country meets current expenditure with current revenue, and if, further, it has a favourable balance of trade, then it can face all the vicissitudes of fortune with confidence, and its actual currency reserves are of minor importance.

Assembly Opposition.—The Finance Member's statement and fresh taxation proposals came as a shock to the Assembly, and strong opposition to certain sections of the Bill was manifested from the start. Most of the non-official members maintained that larger cuts in expenditure should be made, instancing the need for still further retrenchment in the Army demands. When the Bill was discussed clause by clause, a motion was carried placing mill machinery, etc., again on the free import list and the proposal to increase postal rates was rejected. Amendments to the income tax increases were carried omitting the reduction of the minimum taxable income from Rs. 2,000 to Rs.1,000, and making the 25 per cent. surcharge levied during 1932-33 applicable only to incomes over Rs.10,000 per annum. When the discussion finished the Bill was returned to the Assembly with a recommendation by the Governor-General that it should be passed in its original form. Lord Willingdon pointed out that the amendments made by the Assembly would reduce the expected revenue by Rs.4 crores over eighteen months, and added "I am satisfied that I cannot consistently with my responsibilities allow this deficiency to remain uncovered." The Bill as amended was, however, rejected by the Assembly by 63 votes to 48. It was taken to the Council of State where it was passed and was thereafter certified as law by the Governor-General.

The 1932-33 Budget.—Presenting the 1932-33 budget on March 7th, 1932, the Finance Member explained that the circumstances were somewhat unusual. The supplementary budget had been introduced only six months earlier. He did not, therefore, propose to ask the House at the present stage to approve any extensions or modifications of the plan for raising revenue put forward in September 1931. On the basis of the supplementary budget in September it was hoped to reduce the deficit for the current year to Rs. 10.17 crores and for the following year to realise a surplus of Rs. 523 lakhs but experience had made it necessary to revise these estimates. A deterioration in the figures by about Rs. 3 crores was to be allowed for each year and it was anticipated that the current year would close with a deficit of Rs. 13.6 crores and that the surplus for 1932-33 would be Rs. 2.15 crores. The Finance Member reminded the House that for the current year and the next year combined no less than Rs. 13.71 crores was being provided from revenue for reduction or avoidance of debt.

Revenue Estimates.—The budget estimates for customs receipts in 1932-33 were put at Rs. 415 lakhs less than in the previous year in spite of the increased duties imposed by the emergency budget and which were expected to bring in an additional revenue of Rs. 9¾ crores. The main deterioration occurred under the heads of sugar, silver, cotton piecegoods and liquors. Referring to the revenue from the commercial departments the Finance Member said that no contributions from the railways were expected either in the current year or the next. As regards Posts and Telegraphs the loss in working in the coming year was expected to be about Rs. 16 lakhs.

Expenditure Estimates.—The total civil and net military expenditure in 1932-33 was estimated at Rs. 67,39 lakhs which was Rs. 11,84 lakhs less than for 1930-31 and Rs. 795 lakhs less than the current budget. On the subject of retrenchment the Finance Member said:

"For the present I would remind Honourable Members of the following broad facts, when they compare what we have achieved with the recommendations of the various Retrenchment Committees. The total recommended by the four civil Sub-Committees was Rs. 4,99 lakhs, and we have against this achieved economies of Rs. 4,33 lakhs or nearly 87 per cent.—before allowing for terminal charges which, of course, the committees did not take into account."

"I would mention two other striking results in this connection. The first is the actual reduction in Expenditure. I have already given the figures from the accounts showing a reduction of 11,84 lakhs for Civil and Military Expenditure (excluding Posts and Telegraphs) since 1930-31. The position may also be stated in another way. If Honourable Members will look at the analytical table which is included in the Financial Secretary's memorandum (which is prepared now on a slightly different basis from that which I circulated in September) they will find that what I may describe as the net controllable administrative expenditure, civil and military (which excludes the cost of collection of taxes and of the administration of salt and Posts and Telegraphs expenditure) has been brought down from just over Rs. 76 crores in 1930-31 to just over Rs. 64 crores for 1932-33, a reduction of about 16 per cent."

The second fact is of a more distressing nature, but it indicates the magnitude of the effect which we have made. In pursuance of the retrenchment campaign the following appointments in the Civil Departments (including Posts and Telegraphs) have been or will shortly come under reduction so far as information is at present available—

Gazetted officers	299
Ministerial establishment and other superior establishment	5,279
Inferior establishment	1,485
Total ..	7,063

Army Expenditure.—On the subject of military expenditure the Finance Member said:—

"In September last I informed the House that His Excellency the Commander-in-Chief had agreed, as the Army's contribution in the national emergency to accept a cut of Rs. 5¼ crores on his 1931-32 budget. I have now only to say that His Excellency has made good his undertaking in full, and that the estimate for the military budget in 1932-33, excluding again the special grant for the Territorial Force, stands at 46.65 crores."

"Honourable Members will find among their budget documents an Army Department paper giving a detailed account of the methods by which this reduced figure has been reached. The total reduction, which is raised to 5½ crores to allow for certain unavoidable new items such as the establishment of the Indian Sandhurst, is made up of first, 1.40 crores from cuts in pay, secondly, 3.10 crores from retrenchment measures in recurrent expenditure, and thirdly, 1 crore from postponement of progress with the special re-equipment programme. It is necessary to appreciate the exact significance of these savings. To take the first—the cut in pay, this, except for certain categories of British Army personnel (in regard to whom the reduction, following what has been done in England, is permanent), represents the general 10 per cent. cut which we have imposed on all Government servants, and, as we have undertaken that this cut will be restored as soon as conditions permit, most of this part of the reduction must be regarded as purely temporary. Turning to the second class, the retrenchment in recurrent expenditure, this to some extent is accounted for by special temporary savings, such as the eating down of stocks and postponement of essential buildings. As regards the third class, the postponement of the re-equipment programme, this cannot be regarded as permanently cancelled. It does, however, represent special non-recurring expenditure, and when conditions permit it will be necessary to consider special means for financing the completion of this programme."

"The significance of these remarks may be indicated in the following way. As regards the cut in pay, when the general cut of 10 per cent. is removed this will automatically throw back on to the Army a recurrent liability of 1,23 lakhs—(1,40 *less* 17 which is a permanent cut). As regards the retrenchment in normal expenditure, about 65 lakhs of this represents savings which are not in the strict sense recurrent. About 20 lakhs represents drafts on stocks, etc. and 45 lakhs postponement of the provision for buildings which are regarded by the Army Department as essential. As regards the postponement of the re-equipment programme, the one crore saved on this for next year may have to be found later by some form of special non-recurring provision. The Army authorities have throughout made it clear that they have only agreed to postponement in order to help in meeting the present national emergency, and that the permanent cancellation of these measures could not—consistently with maintaining the efficiency of the Army—be effected."

"His Excellency the Commander-in-Chief has given an assurance that he will not relax his efforts to secure further reductions in recurrent expenditure both by pressing on with measures already accepted, and by developing any further lines that may present themselves, but he has made it clear that he does not see any hope of being able to find economies in normal expenditure, that is to say, economies from measures other than the reduction of fighting troops which raises quite different issues, which can go near to balancing the burden of 1,23 lakhs which would arise from restoring cuts in pay combined with the disappearance of the 65 lakhs of special savings on recurrent expenditure from next year. In support of this he points out that in spite of the intensive examination of all sources of economy both by his own officers and by the Retrenchment Committee, it was only possible to work up to the present reduction of 5¼ crores by reducing troops at a saving of 35 lakhs. Further, although provision has been made in the estimates for 1932-33 for some rise in the prices of food grains, as compared with those prevailing in 1931-32, the rates now taken are still far below the recent normal level, and, if prices should rise to, and be stabilised at, something like the 1929 level, this event, though welcome on general grounds, would mean an automatic increase in the military estimates. On these considerations His Excellency wishes it to be made clear that he cannot regard the budget figure of 46.65 crores as representing a new standard level of standing charges, and that the normal cost of the Forces at their present strength when the cut in pay is restored must be recognised to be about 48 crores even if the prevailing low prices for grain, etc., continue. I have thought it right to let Honourable Members know the conclusions which His Excellency has drawn from the facts of the present situation, and I can only add that the Government will continue to press for all possible efforts to secure further recurrent economies, and that the campaign for retrenchment will not be regarded as finally closed with the achievements of this year."

The 1933-34 Budget.—In introducing the budget, the Finance Member summarised the results for the two previous years. The results for 1931-32 had turned out to be Rs. 2 crores better than anticipated in the budget speech and the account for the year showed a deficit after providing nearly Rs. 7 crores for the reduction of debt of Rs. 11¾ crores. For the year 1932-33 the latest revised estimates indicated that the surplus would be Rs. 217 lakhs or Rs. 2 lakhs more than was estimated. He continued to estimate revenue for 1933-34—particularly customs revenue—is, in view of the completely uncertain and abnormal conditions, a task of quite unprecedented difficulty. Indeed I may say that accurate estimation is impossible. In these circumstances and for the reasons which I have explained, we have thought that the most reasonable course is to assume that the general position next year will be the same as for the current year, neither better nor worse, and in particular that India will be able to maintain the same purchasing power for commodities imported from abroad.

Customs.—The assumption, however, that the value of imports will be maintained does not necessarily imply that the value of the import duties will also remain the same.

I have already explained the special position as regards sugar, showing how the present development of the Indian industry is affecting our revenue. On these considerations we think it necessary to allow for a drop of one crore in receipts from the sugar import duties which will not be offset by any increase under other heads.

In regard to cotton piece-goods also, for reasons which I have explained, we think it necessary to regard the revenue from import duties—at least on Japanese goods—as to some extent abnormal and not likely to be repeated. Here therefore we have allowed for a drop of 30 lakhs.

As against these reductions we have thought it safe to count on a small revenue (25 lakhs) from silver imports—because having closed the gap in our land customs line on the Burmese frontier, through which a large trade in silver from China was suddenly developing in the course of the last year, we think it reasonable to expect a moderate resumption of dutiable imports.

Making allowance for these and other minor variations, our customs revenue estimates for next year are put at 51,25 lakhs showing a reduction of 104 lakhs from the revised estimates of the current year.

The position as regards net receipts may be summarised as follows :—

	Revenue (Lakhs).
Budget Estimate, 1932-33 ..	52,31.27
Revised Estimate, 1932-33 ..	52,28.55
Budget Estimate, 1933-34 ..	51,24.60

Debt Service—Regarding the service of debt the Finance Member said :—

"In the first place, as regards interest payments, the reductions shown are satisfactory, namely, 204 lakhs as compared with 1931-32, and 51 lakhs as compared with the revised estimate for 1932-33. I must however explain that the full result of the conversion operations recently undertaken is not yet revealed. The results indeed of the latest operation were not known at the time our estimates had to be compiled; but apart from this there are other special reasons. Although our main conversion scheme has been directed to substituting one form of permanent debt for another, the process has been a continuous one which is not yet completed, and the first actual result in the current year has been to reduce treasury bills held by the public and the Paper Currency Reserve by approximately Rs. 34 crores. Current rates for treasury bills had fallen so low that this aspect of the conversion actually represents, initially at least, an increase in the interest charges. It must be remembered however, that this large reduction in our treasury bill outstandings is not only a sound operation in itself, but by strengthening the Government position enables it to reduce interest rates both for the remaining volume of treasury bills and for its permanent debt."

Civil Expenditure.—"The budget estimate of Civil expenditure for the current year (1932-33), *i.e.*, excluding military expenditure, expenditure on Commercial departments and Debt services, was 20,65 lakhs. Our revised estimate now gives the figure as 20,89 lakhs. There is thus an apparent increase of 24 lakhs. But a closer examination shows that this increase does not denote any increase in real expenditure, and, indeed, that the economy in recurrent expenditure has been greater than that which we promised. The figure of expenditure as shown in our accounts has had to be increased because special items amounting in all to 68½ lakhs, but the great bulk of which do not denote real expenditure, have had to be included.

"Under the other heads of real expenditure we shall have achieved during this year economies of Rs. 45 lakhs more than we promised. It may be remembered that in my budget speech in March last I stated that, broadly speaking, against a total retrenchment in expenditure of Rs. 499 lakhs recommended by the four civil sub-committees, Government had achieved economies of 433 lakhs, or nearly 87 per cent. before allowing for terminal charges which the committees did not take into account. The results according to the revised estimate for the current year which I have just given show that the actual economies achieved in normal expenditure amount to 45 lakhs more than this, that is to say, to a total of 478 lakhs, or nearly 96 per cent. of the amount recommended by the retrenchment committees.

"Turning to the estimates of expenditure under these civil heads for next year, I am glad to be able to report a still further improvement. As compared with the current year with its budget estimate of 20,65 lakhs and the revised estimate of 20,89 lakhs, the estimates for 1933-34 are 20,53 lakhs, that is to say, a reduction of 36 lakhs on the current year in spite of the following facts; first, that we have allowed for reducing the cut in pay to 5 per cent. thereby incurring extra charges of 28 lakhs on these particular civil heads, secondly that we have to meet the normal increments in time scale pay which still involve an annual addition of something like 15 lakhs, and thirdly, that we have to meet new obligatory expenditure amounting to about 17 lakhs, the nature of which I shall shortly explain. If all these items are taken into account it will be seen that the total of the net reductions otherwise effected under the normal heads of expenditure amount to no less than 96 lakhs. Honourable Members may say that they are not concerned with this figure but only with the saving of 36 lakhs actually effected, but I have given these explanations in order to show how we are continuing the retrenchment effort and what a constant effort is required 'merely to prevent expenditure from growing."

Military Expenditure.—"When I turn to the provision for the Military or Defence Budget the results are equally, or even more, satisfactory. For the current year (1932-33) allowing for the full effects of the 10 per cent. cut in pay, the net budgetary allotment was Rs. 46.74 crores. For next year the net expenditure provided for in the estimates, after allowing for an extra charge of Rs. 52½ lakhs due to the reduction in the cut in pay to 5 per cent. is Rs. 46.20 crores. That is to say although the pay bill is increased by Rs. 52½ lakhs the net expenditure is to be reduced by Rs. 54 lakhs."

Financial Summary, 1933-34.

	Rs. lakhs. Better.	Worse.
REVENUE—		
Customs.—(Reduction due to fall allowed for in imports of sugar and cotton piece-goods)		1,04
Income-tax.—(Increase due to removal of exemption from surcharge on Government servants)	53	..
Salt.—(Reduction mainly due to termination of temporary increase in receipts on termination of credit system)		1,63
Opium	25	..
Finance heads.—Net changes including additional expenditure of 1 on account of part restoration of cut in pay		15
Commercial departments.—Net revenue		11
Miscellaneous.—(Reduction of 30 due to no provision being included in next year's estimates for Gain by Exchange)		45
EXPENDITURE—		
Military : Civil heads.—Net reduction effected in spite of part restoration of pay cut costing 79½ lakhs under these heads as compared with the revised estimates. (This net reduction together with the reduction of 5 under Irrigation and Currency and Mint taken on the revenue side gives a total reduction of 90 as mentioned in para. 61) ..	85	..
Total ..	163	338

As a result of the changes thus summarised the net deterioration for next year is estimated at 175 lakhs, and thus the surplus of 217 lakhs shown in the revised estimate for the current year will be reduced to surplus of 42 lakhs.

The Cut in Pay.—Concerning the Government's decision to restore half the cut in pay the Finance Member said that the total cost was Rs. 108 lakhs.

As against this the Central budget will recover as a result of the withdrawal of the exemption of income-tax surcharges and the tax on incomes below Rs. 2,000 from Government officials—not only officials paid against the Central budget, but officials of the Railways and officials serving under the Provincial Governments—a net increase in income-tax receipts of 53 lakhs.

The net cost of the proposal to the Central Government is thus 55 lakhs.

Changes in Duties.—The budget announced changes in the import duties on boots and shoes and artificial silk goods.

Assembly Decisions.

The assembly threw out the proposal for a stamp duty on cheques and by 59 votes to 33 carried a resolution to reduce the rate of income tax from 4 pies to 2 pies on incomes between Rs. 1,000 and Rs. 1,500.

The 1934-35 Budget.—Summing up the results for 1933-34 when introducing the 1934-35 budget the Finance Member said that with the arrangement to provide Rs. 3 crores for debt reduction instead of the Rs. 6.89 crores due under the debt reduction convention the year would close with a surplus of Rs. 129 lakhs. This sum Government proposed to set aside as a special fund to cover relief measures in respect of earthquake damage. For 1934-35 Government were expecting a drop of Rs. 280 lakhs in revenue which was more than accounted for by the anticipated falling off in sugar import duties, while expenditure would be Rs. 2 lakhs higher. In order to provide an even balance for 1934-35 it was necessary to find means of improving the position to the extent of Rs. 153 lakhs.

Customs.—On the subject of the likely yield from customs revenue the Finance Member said :—

The most important single item is sugar, in the case of which the very rapid development of local manufacture, to which I have already referred and to which I shall refer again, seems to be leading towards the early extermination of imports on a substantial scale. Indeed it is no exaggeration to say that the success of our protective policy for sugar is the main cause of our budgetary difficulties. In 1930-31 we raised over 10½ crores from sugar. Even in 1932-33 we got nearly 7 crores. In the current year we budgeted for 6,10 lakhs and we actually expect to receive no more than 5,00 lakhs, while for next year we cannot count on more than 2,05 lakhs. Indeed we should normally only have allowed for 1,80 lakhs next year (or an import of about 100,000 tons) but as a result of the earthquake in Bihar the operation of seven factories may be altogether stopped or seriously curtailed and on this account we have increased our estimate of imports. Even so this item accounts for a loss of 2,95 lakhs as compared with the revised estimates for 1933-34 and of 4,05 lakhs as compared with the budget estimate.

Closely connected with this is the item of Land Customs which has hitherto mainly represented duty on sugar imports over the Viramgam line. In this case our revised estimate for

1933-34 at 1 crore is 30 lakhs higher than the budget, the increase being mainly due to the receipt of a large payment of arrears. For next year we are only budgeting for 35 lakhs owing to declining sugar imports so that under this head there is a loss of 65 lakhs as compared with the revised estimate for 1933-34.

Then we must be prepared for a substantial drop in the machinery import duty. We expect to get 1,32 lakhs from this in the current year, or 17 lakhs more than our budget estimate but these high receipts are to the exceptionally large imports of sugar machinery. We cannot count on their continuance and we have reduced next year's estimated to 1 crore which means a drop of 32 lakhs on the revised estimates of the current year.

Another item which I will select for special mention, because I have some proposals to make about it later, is manufactured tobacco. Here the operation of our duties as a result of recent changes and surcharges has given a protective stimulus to the local manufacture of a class of cigarette which was hitherto imported. We budgeted for 50 lakhs in the current year, but on our revised estimates expect to get only 28 and on this we have to allow for a further loss of 8 lakhs next year unless a change is made.

The special items which I have selected for mention account for a loss in import duties next year of 4,0(lakhs as compared with the revised estimates for the current year. On all the other customs items combined we are budgeting for a net increase of 1,75 lakhs, so that the net deterioration under customs as compared with the revised estimates for the current year is 2,25 lakhs.

Other Revenue.—The changes in other heads of Revenue do not call for any detailed comment. We are allowing for a slight recovery of 12 lakhs in Taxes on Income to a total of 17¼ crores, and we should have put this 25 lakhs higher if it had not been for the losses which must be anticipated from the earthquake. We are also allowing for an increase of 18 lakhs on salt and for a drop in the gross receipts from Opium of 64 lakhs. The declining revenue from the latter item owing to the policy adopted in 1925 has been another cause of budgetary difficulties. Altogether the total drop to be allowed for in Revenue as compared with the Revised estimates for the current year is 2,74 lakhs, which is more than accounted for by the loss on sugar.

Expenditure.—On the subject of expenditure Sir George Schuster said:—

So far as concerns expenditure, we are still searching for further economies, and have regidly maintained our rule that no new item of expenditure shall be admitted unless it is absolutely obligatory or unless it is likely to be economically productive. We have also, as I have already announced, decided that the 5 per cent. cut in pay ought to be retained for another year. As a result there is a very satisfactory reduction of 2,12 lakhs in the Budget provision for next year as compared with the Budget for the current year, and of 2,90 lakhs as compared with the actuals for last year (1932-33) for, while expenditure on Civil Administration has been kept practically unchanged in spite of the normal increments in pay, there is a substantial saving on interest charges due to conversion schemes and the improvement in Government credit, while the military contribution from His Majesty's Government means a big reduction in the Army Budget.

The demand under the Defence head stands for next year at 44.38 crores. This is 4 lakhs less than the Revised estimates for the current year and 1,82 lakhs better than the Budget estimate. The latter big reduction is of course due to the payment now made by His Majesty's Government as a result of the finding of the Capitation Tribunal, to which I have already referred. The House is fully informed as to the facts in this case, and I need not add further explanations, but I wish to take this occasion to review the course of military expenditure during the period of my office as Finance Member. The salient fact is that the total demand has been reduced by no less than 10.72 crores, from 55.10 crores in 1929-30 to the present figure of 44.38 crores. This is a remarkable reduction and I venture to think that if I had prophesied its achievement in 1929, my prophecy would have been greeted either with incredulity or, among those who gave credence to it, with extreme satisfaction. In the debates at that time the great demand was always that we should get Defence expenditure down to the so-called Inchcape figure of 50 crores. Yet now we are nearly six crores below that.

Debt Services.—Regarding the interest on debt, the Finance Member said:—It is a notable fact that the net figure for 1934-35 under Interest on Ordinary debt is less than nothing—in fact a surplus balance of about 1 lakh. This is a reduction of 1,17 lakhs on the budget for 1933-34, though it is actually about the same as for the revised estimates. The comparison is complicated by the position as regards war debt payments. In the budget of 1933-34 we provided 88 lakhs against this liability, but as no payment was made this amount was saved, and, as I have already explained, is the main reason for the saving on the revised estimates. As regards 1934-35, His Majesty's Government has already agreed to the postponement of the instalment due in June 1934, but we have made provision for the second half year's instalment, and we have also assumed that the outstanding arrears, excluding the amount in suspense, will be capitalised and the total discharged by equated payments ending 1952 to cover principal and interest. On this basis we are making provision for 58 lakhs in the 1934-35 budget. Excluding these War Debt provisions the comparison between 1933-34 and 1934-35 works out as follows:—

1933-34 Budget	..	28 lakhs.
1933-34 Revised	..	*Nil.*
1934-35 Budget	..	—59 lakhs (*i.e.*, net surplus).

There is thus really an improvement of 87 lakhs on the budget for 1933-34 and of 59 lakhs on the Revised.

Under Interest on Other Obligations there is an increase in the budget provision for 1934-35 of 72 lakhs over the budget for 1933-34 and 68

lakhs over the Revised estimate. This is accounted for by an extra charge of 50 lakhs in respect of bonus on Post Office Cash Certificates, while the balance represents mainly interest on the increased amount of Post Office Savings Bank deposits.

I might sum up the result by saying that as regards Interest charges, including both Interest on Ordinary Debt and Interest on Other Obligations, we have to provide next year 45 lakhs less than was allowed for in the budget of 1933-34, but 68 lakhs more than we are allowing in the revised estimates, and that as against the latter increase we are providing 58 lakhs more on War Debt and 50 lakhs more on Post Office Cash Certificates.

Changes in Duties.—The Finance Member announced the imposition of an excise duty on sugar in the following words :—

After careful consideration we have decided to propose a dual policy ; on the one hand the imposition of an *excise duty on factory produced sugar*, and on the other hand the introduction of legislation by the Central Government which will enable the Provincial Governments to apply schemes for enforcing a minimum price for cane to be paid by the factory to the grower. As I have already stated, the present duty of Rs. 9-1-0 per cwt. is Re. 1-13-0 above the basic duty of Rs. 7-4-0 recommended by the Tariff Board. In their report, however, the Tariff Board recommended that there should be power for Government to increase the measure of protection by 8 annas per cwt. when Java sugar was being imported at a price less than Rs. 4 per maund to Calcutta. We propose to assume that the conditions justifying this extra margin of protection are likely to continue in existence for the present, and therefore to leave a protective margin of Rs. 7-12-0 per cwt. and to impose an excise *duty of Re.* 1-5-0 *per cwt.* We assume that this will yield Rs. 1,47 lakhs, and out of this we propose to set aside an amount equivalent to 1 anna per cwt., representing about 7 lakhs, as a fund to be distributed among the Provinces where white sugar is produced for the purpose of assisting the organisation and operation of co-operative societies among the cane growers so as to help them in securing fair prices, or for other purposes directed to the same end.

Tobacco Duties.—The Finance Member said :—

Under our present tariff, as modified by the two surcharges, the duty on cigarettes works out at something like double the duty on the tobacco used in making similar cigarettes in India ; and the result has been to divert the manufacture of the great majority of the leading brands of cigarettes to factories in India belonging to the same interests as previously imported these brands from abroad. Such an industrial development has never made a claim—and I do not think it could make a good claim—that it satisfies the principles of discriminatory protection and should therefore receive abnormal encouragement from the tariff. We have now decided to fix the relation between the duty on cigarettes and the duty on raw tobacco on a more rational basis, and we have considerable hopes that, while not depriving the interest concerned of reasonable assistance, it will bring back the class of cigarette concerned into the field of open competition between the imported and locally made article, and result, without detriment to the interest of the consumer, in some increase of revenue from import duties. We propose to take for cigarettes a specific duty roughly corresponding to the identical amount that would have been paid on the quantity of leaf contained in the cigarettes and to add to this specific duty the normal revenue duty of 25 per cent. *ad valorem*, thus leaving the local industry with no more than the benefit which is enjoyed by every non-protected industry engaged in the manufacture of goods which are subject to our present normal revenue duty of 25 per cent. The details are as follows.

At present what I may call the basic rate of duty on cigarettes is Rs. 10-10 per thousand, while there are smaller classes which are assessed at Rs. 15 and Rs. 8-8 per thousand, the division between these classes being dependent upon values. The present rate of duty on raw tobacco is Rs. 2 per lb. standard and Re. 1-8 preferential. (Imports entitled to the benefit of preferential duty are negligible). The revised rates that we propose are :—

On raw tobacco : Rs. 2-6-0 per lb. standard and Re. 1-14-0 per lb. preferential.

On cigarettes : Rs. 5-15-0 per thousand *plus* 25 per cent. *ad valorem*.

Silver.—Announcing a reduction in the silver import by 2½ annas to 5 annas per ounce Sir George Schuster said :—

At present the imports of silver have for all practical purposes ceased, so that against our budget estimate for the current year of 25 lakhs we only expected to receive 1 lakh, and there is no reason, if the present duty continues, to anticipate more next year. The decline in the import of silver is of course primarily due to the lack of purchasing power in the country which has turned India into an exporter of gold instead of an importer to the extent of many crores per annum of gold and silver. Therefore in pesent conditions the existence of this high duty can hardly be regarded as having any appreciable effect on the normal trade, though it is probably encouraging some smuggling, and it is certainly attracting movements of silver through any graps which exist in out land customs regime. Last year I mentioned that we were taking steps to deal with this on the Burma frontier, and further steps in respect of other places are now under consideration. While this is an undesirable condition we think that the time has come on general grounds to take account of the fact that if India's purchasing power for silver were to revive the existence of a duty at the present level would not only provide an increased incentive to smuggling, but would also act as a serious obstacle to legitimate trade. Moreover we must also take into account our general policy in this matter. The part which the Indian delegates played in bringing about the silver agreement at the World Economic Conference, which has already been ratified by the Indian Legislature must be regarded as indicating our desire to co-operate with other countries and especially with the United States

of America in measures designed to improve its price. Although we must reserve our liberty to impose a duty on silver for revenue purposes, we must on the other hand recognise that a duty which is so high as to operate as a serious impediment to trade may also be unprofitable from the revenue point of view. Therefore, both as a measure of co-operation with the United States of America and other countries interested in silver, and also for the purpose of improving the prospects of our own revenue, we think the time has come to make a reduction in the silver duties.

The only consideration which can weigh with us on the other side is the effect of any such reduction on local prices. There can be no doubt that the existence of our duty throughout the last few years has done something to protect the internal price of a commodity which is an important store of value to the poorest classes. We do not wish to disturb this position, but as the facts are to-day we think we can lower the duty without risk of doing so. Taking the prices of silver which have been ruling recently in London (about 19½*d.* to 20⅛*d.* per standard ounce), the prices in Bombay have been ruling round about Rs. 55 per 100 tolas as against 19½*d.* per ounce in London. On the basis of a London price of 19½*d.* was calculated that the parity price in Bombay allowing for import duty and other charges, ought to be Rs. 61-11-9 per hundred tolas, so that it looks as if the Bombay prices have been keeping at a level at least Rs. 6-11-9 per 100 tolas below the full parity. The duty of 7½ annas per ounce is equivalent to Rs. 17-9-3 per 100 tolas. It appears therefore that we might reduce the duty by one-third *i.e.*, by 2½ annas per ounce without thereby necessarily affecting the Bombay price at all, for it would still be somewhat below the London parity.

Export Duty on Hides.—The export duty on raw hides was abolished by the 1934-35 budget.

Excise on Matches.—Announcing that the Government intended to hand over half the jute export duty to the jute producing Provinces, the Finance Member said that the Government of India would recoup their losses by imposing a levy on matches at the rate of Rs. 2-4-0 per gross of boxes on matches made in British India.

Assembly Decisions.

The assembly accepted the whole of the financial plan except to the extent that government themselves accepted a change in the match excise duty. The changes as summed up by the Select Committee which examined the Bill, were the most important question which confronted us was whether the duty as fixed by the Bill would so react on the retail selling price of matches as to bring about a very serious diminution of sales. In order to avoid this it seemed to us essential that the duty be so regulated as to make it possible a reasonable sized box of matches retailed singly in bazaars at the price of one pice.

After very careful consideration we have come to the conclusion that if this result is to be achieved and a sufficient margin of profit left for retailers and manufacturers, the rate of excise duty initially, at least, should not be fixed higher than one rupee per gross of boxes containing on average 40 matches.

We hold that the duty could be fixed at corresponding rates for matches in boxes of 60 or 80, and that the classification of matches according to these standards is most suitable and convenient from the administrative standpoint.

From matches packed otherwise we have left the duty to be fixed by the Governor-General-in-Council.

Posts and Telegraphs.—The following changes in postal and telegraph charges were announced :—

Postal.—(*a*) In the postal tariff we propose to lower the initial weight of inland letters from 2½ tolas to ½ a tola coupled with a reduction in the charge from 1½ anna to one anna. For heavier letters the charges will continue to be 1½ anna for letters not exceeding 2½ tolas, with additional 1½ anna for successive weights of 2½ tolas or fractions. This change introduces a lighter unit of weight and will undoubtedly benefit the poor citizens and the business community. Allowing for a recovery of 10 per cent. in traffic we estimate that in the first year this reduction will involve a loss in revenue of 27 lakhs, but we have good reasons to hope that in the second year this loss will practically disappear, and that thereafter there will be a gradually increasing net gain.

(*b*) As a second change in postal charges we propose the remission of the extra pie per five pice embossed envelope which was imposed in 1931 to recover the cost of manufacturing the envelope. This is more of the nature of an administrative reform considered necessary on general grounds than a regrading of the rate, but it is again a reform which will benefit the ordinary citizen. We estimate a loss of revenue of two and a half lakhs from this change.

(*c*) Thirdly, as regards Postal rates, we propose a small change in a contrary direction, namely, that the initial charge on inland book packets not exceeding 5 tolas in weight should be raised from 6 to 9 pies. The book packet method of transmission is undoubtedly being abused, and a change is urgently necessary to stop the diversion, with consequent loss of revenue, that is occurring of post card traffic to the book packet category. We estimate a gain of a little over 5 lakhs in revenue from this change.

Telegrams.—The last change which we propose is as regards Telegrams. Instead of having, as at present, a minimum charge for ordinary telegrams of 12 annas with a surcharge of one anna for a message of 12 words, we propose to introduce a minimum charge for a telegram of 8 words of 9 annas, while that for an express telegram of the same length will be one rupee and two annas. For each additional word in the two classes of telegrams the additional charge will be one and two annas respectively. We estimate a loss during the first year of 3 lakhs from this change, but here also, as in the case of the postal rates, we hope that in the second year this loss will disappear, while without making this change we consider that there is a prospect of a continuous decline in telegraph receipts.

Statement showing the interest-bearing obligations of the Government of India, outstanding at the close of each financial year.

	31st March 1929.	31st March 1930.	31st March 1931.	31st March 1932.	31st March 1933.	31st March 1934.
In India—						
Loans	390.73	405.11	417.24	422.69	446.89	435.17
Treasury Bills in the hands of the public	4.00	36.04	55.38	47.53	26.09	30.00
Treasury Bills in the Paper Currency Reserve	39.15	29.21	5.89	49.67	35.48	17.75
Total Loans, etc. ..	433.88	470.25	478.51	529 39	508.46	482.92
Other Obligations—						
Post Office Savings Banks ..	34.49	37.13	37.03	38.20	43.40	52.50
Cash Certificates	32.30	35.00	38.43	44.58	55.64	63.44
Provident Funds, etc.	60.52	65.41	70.33	73.04	76.74	82.14
Depreciation and Reserve Funds	31.09	30.18	21.39	17.65	15.22	15.36
Provincial Balances	10.43	10.21	6.09	4.32	7.02	4.42
Total Other Obligations ..	168.83	177.93	173.27	177.79	198.02	217.86
Total in India ..	602.71	648.28	651·78	707.18	706.18	700.78

Statement showing the interest-bearing obligations of the Government of India, outstanding at the close of each financial year—concld.

	31st March 1929.	31st March 1930.	31st March 1931.	31st March 1932.	31st March 1933.	31st March 1934.
In England—						
Loans	283.31	289.03	316.81	313.60	314.32	320.61
War Contribution	16.72	16.72	16.72	16.72	16.72	16.72
Capital value of liabilities undergoing redemption by way of terminable railway annuities ..	53.35	51.86	50.32	48.72	47.06	45.35
India bills	..	6.00	4.05	..	..	..
Provident Funds, etc.	.43	2.54	.70	.80	1.91	1.02
Total in England ..	353.81	366.15	387.76	379.84	379.02	383.70
Equivalent at 1*s.* 6*d.* to the Rupee	471.75	488.20	518.12	506.45	505.36	511.60
Total Interest-bearing obligations.	1,074.46	1,136.50	1,169.90	1,213.63	1,211.84	1,212.38
Interest-yielding assets held against the above obligations—						
(i) Capital advanced to Railways	700.69	730.79	745.29	750.73	756.75	757.20
(ii) Capital advanced to other Commercial Departments	21.81	22.70	23.65	24.25	21.89	22.55
(iii) Capital advanced to Provinces	137.52	142.60	151.82	163.64	173.04	176.72
(iv) Capital advanced to Indian States and other interest-bearing loans	15.59	17.65	19.45	20.29	20.92	21.20
Total Interest-yielding assets ..	875.51	913.74	938.90	958.91	972.60	977.67
Cash, bullion and securities held on Treasury account	28.34	45.36	34.03	41.42	35.69	26.88
Balance of total interest-bearing obligations not covered by above assets	170.61	177.40	196.97	213.30	203.55	207.83

General Statement of the Revenue and Expenditure.

Heads of Account.	1933-34. Budget.	1933-34. Revised.	1934-35. Budget.
REVENUE—	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Customs { Petrol tax for Road Fund	1,07	1,17	1,18
Customs { Other items	50,18	45,70	47,30
Taxes on Income	18,06	17,13	17,25
Salt	8,75	8,55	8,73
Opium	1,20	1,59	95
Other principal heads of revenue	1,89	1,86	1,82
Irrigation : Receipts less working expenses	....	....	....
Interest	1,82	1,59	1,86
Civil Administration	83	77	78
Civil Works	22	24	24
Currency and Mint	1,75	1,23	1,27
Miscellaneous	57	68	57
Extraordinary Receipts	....	36	....
Provincial contributions and miscellaneous adjustments between Central and Provincial Governments	....	....	....
Posts and Telegraphs : Receipts less working expenses	30	32	70
Railways : Receipts less working expenses	32,39	32,87	32,58
Defence Receipts	4,32	5,25	5,20
TOTAL	1,24,35	1,19,31	1,20,43
Expenditure—			
Customs	98	99	1,01
Taxes on Income	85	83	85
Salt	1,15	1,14	1,15
Opium	57	72	42
Other heads recording direct demands on the revenue	61	59	58
Irrigation : Interest and Miscellaneous charges	4	4	6
Civil Administration	9,59	9,59	9,59
Currency and Mind	64	61	66
Civil Works { Transfer to Road Fund	1,07	1,17	1,18
Civil Works { Other items	87	90	84
Superannuation Allowances and Pensions	1,81	2,96	3,08
Miscellaneous	1,28	1,30	1,25
Extraordinary payments	9	1,39	3
Posts and Telegraphs : Interest on Debt.	88	83	84
Railways : Interest and Miscellaneous charges	33,39	32,87	32,58
Defence Services	50,52	4,967	49,58
Interest	10,79	9,66	10,34
Reduction or Avoidance of Debt.	6,88	3,00	3,00
Miscellaneous adjustment, etc.	1,000	1,00	3,16
Capital expenditure financed from Revenue—			
Posts and Telegraphs	4	4	4
Other Works	3	2	2
Commutation of Pensions	2	—1	—2
TOTAL	1,24,10	1,19,31	1,20,24

THE LAND REVENUE.

The principle underlying the Land Revenue system in India has operated from time immemorial. It may be roughly formulated thus—the Government is the supreme landlord and the revenue derived from the land is equivalent to rent. On strictly theoretical grounds, exception may be taken to this statement of the case. It serves, however, as a substantially correct description of the relation between the Government and the cultivator. The former gives protection and legal security. The latter pays for it according to the value of his holding. The official term for the method by which the Land Revenue is determined is "Settlement." There are two kinds of settlements in India—Permanent and Temporary. Under the former the amount of revenue has been fixed in perpetuity, and is payable by the landlord as distinguished from the actual cultivator. The Permanent Settlement was introduced into India by Lord Cornwallis at the close of the eighteenth century. It had the effect intended of converting a number of large revenue farmers in Bengal into landlords occupying a similar status to that of landowners in Europe. The actual cultivators became the tenants of the landlords. While the latter became solely responsible for the payment of the revenue, the former lost the advantage of holding from the State. This system has prevailed in Bengal since 1795 and in the greater part of Oudh since 1859. It also obtains in certain districts of Madras.

Temporary Settlements.

Elsewhere the system of Temporary Settlements is in operation. At intervals of thirty years, more or less, the land in a given district is subjected to a thorough economic survey, on the basis of the trigonometrical and topographic surveys carried out by the Survey Department of the Government of India. Each village area, wherever the Temporary Settlement is in vogue, has been carefully mapped, property-boundaries accurately delineated, and records of rights made and preserved. Under the Permanent Settlement in Bengal the occupant does not enjoy these advantages. The duty of assessing the revenue of a district is entrusted to Settlement Officers, members of the Indian Civil Service specially delegated for this work. The duties of a Settlement Officer are thus described in Strachey's *India* (revised edition, 1911):—"He has to determine the amount of the Government demand and to make a record of all existing rights and responsibilities in the land. He has a staff of experienced subordinates, almost all of whom are natives of the country, and the settlement of the district assigned to him is a work which formerly required several years of constant work. The establishment of agricultural departments and other reforms have however led to much simplification of the Settlement Officer's Proceedings, and to much greater rapidity in the completion of the Settlements. All the work of the Settlement Officer is liable to the supervision of superior officers, the assessments proposed by him require the sanction of the Government before they become finally binding: and his judicial decisions may be reviewed by the Civil Courts. It is the duty of the settlement officer to make a record of every right which may form the subject of future dispute, whether affecting the interests of the State or of the people. The intention is to alter nothing, but to maintain and place on record that which exists."

The Two Tenures.

Under the Temporary Settlement land tenures fall into two classes—peasant-holdings and landlord-holdings, or *Ryotwari* and *Zemindari* tenures. Broadly speaking, the difference between the two in a fiscal sense is that in Ryotwari tracts the *ryot* or cultivator pays the revenue direct: in *Zemindari* tracts the landlord pays on a rental assessment. In the case of the former, however, there are two kinds of *Ryotwari* holdings—those in which each individual occupant holds directly from Government, and those in which the land is held by village communities, the heads of the village being responsible for the payment of revenue on the whole village area. This latter system prevails in the North. In Madras, Bombay, Burma and Assam, ryotwari tenure is on an individual basis, and the Government enters into a separate agreement with every single occupant. The basis of assessment on all classes of holdings is now more favourable to the cultivator than it used to be. Formerly what was believed to be a fair average sum was levied on the anticipated yield of the land during the ensuing period of settlement. Now the actual yield at the time of assessment alone is considered, so that the cultivator gets the whole of the benefit of improvements in his holding subsequently brought about either by his own enterprise or by "unearned increment." The Government, however, may at a new settlement re-classify a holding so as to secure for itself a fair share in an increment that may have resulted from public works in the vicinity, such as canals and railways, or from a general enhancement of values. But the principle that improvements effected by private enterprise shall be exempt from assessment is now accepted by the Government and provided for in definite rules.

Incidence of the Revenue.

The incidence of the revenue charges varies according to the nature of the settlement, the class of tenure, and the character and circumstances of the holding. Under the Permanent Settlement in Bengal Government derive rather less than £3,000,000 from a total rental estimated at £12,000,000. Under Temporary

Settlements, 50 per cent. of the rental in the case of *Zemindari* land may be regarded as virtually a maximum demand. In some parts the impost falls as low as 35 and even 25 per cent. and only rarely is the proportion of one-*half* the rental exceeded. In regard to *Ryotwari* tracts it is impossible to give any figure that would be generally representative of the Government's share. But one-fifth of the gross produce is the extreme limit, below which the incidence of the revenue charge varies greatly. About sixteen years ago the Government of India were invited in an influentially signed memorial to fix one-fifth of the gross produce as the maximum Government demand. In reply to this memorial and other representations the Government of India (Lord Curzon being Viceroy) issued a Resolution in defence of their Land Revenue Policy. In it was stated that "under the existing practice the Government is already taking much less in revenue than it is now invited to exact" and "the average rate is everywhere on the down grade." This Resolution, together with the statements of Provincial Governments on which it was based, was published as a volume; it is still the authoritative exposition of the principles controlling the Land Revenue Policy of the Government of India. In a series of propositions claimed to be established by this Resolution the following points are noted:—(1) In *Zemindari* tracts progressive moderation is the key-note of the Government's policy, and the standard of 50 per cent. of the assets is more often departed from on the side of deficiency than excess; (2) in the same areas the State does not hesitate to interfere by legislation to protect the interests of the tenants against oppression at the hands of the landlords; (3) in *Ryotwari* tracts the policy of long-term settlements is being extended, and the proceedings in connection with new settlements simplified and cheapened; (4) local-taxation (of land) as a whole is neither immoderate nor burdensome; (5) over-assessment is not, as alleged, a general or widespread source of poverty, and it cannot fairly be regarded as a contributory cause of famine. At the same time the Government laid down as principles for future guidance—(*a*) large enhancements of revenue, when they occur, to be imposed progressively and gradually, and not *per saltum*; (*b*) greater elasticity in revenue collection, suspensions and remissions being allowed according to seasonal variations and the circumstances of the people; (*c*) a more general resort to reduction of assessments in cases of local deterioration.

Protection of the Tenants.

In regard to the second of the five propositions noted above, various Acts have been passed from time to time to protect the interests of tenants against landlords, and also to give greater security to the latter in possession of their holdings. The Oudh Tenancy Act of 1886 placed important checks on enhancement of rent and eviction, and in 1900 an Act was passed enabling a landowner to entail the whole or a portion of his estate, and to place it beyond the danger of alienation by his heirs. The Punjab Land Alienation Act, passed at the instance of Lord Curzon, embodied the principle that it is the duty of a Government which derives such considerable proportion of its revenue from the land, to interfere in the interests of the cultivating classes. This Act greatly restricted the credit of the cultivator by prohibiting the alienation of his land in payment of debt. It had the effect of arresting the process by which the Punjab peasantry were becoming the economic serfs of money-lenders. A good deal of legislation affecting land tenure has been passed from time to time in other provinces, and it has been called for more than once in Bengal where under the Permanent Settlement (in the words of the Resolution quoted above), "so far from being generously treated by the Zemindars, the Bengal cultivator was rack-rented, impoverished, and oppressed."

Government and Cultivator.

While the Government thus interferes between landlord and tenant in the interests of the latter, its own attitude towards the cultivator is one of generosity. Mention has already been made of the great advantage to the agricultural classes generally of the elaborate systems of Land Survey and Records of Rights carried out and maintained by Government. In the Administration Report of Bombay for 1911-12, it is stated:—"The Survey Department has cost the State from first to last many lakhs of rupees. But the outlay has been repaid over and over again. The extensions of cultivation which have occurred (by allowing cultivators to abandon unprofitable lands) have thus been profitable to the State no less than to the individual; whereas under a *Zemindari* or kindred system the State would have gained nothing, however much cultivation had extended throughout the whole of 30 years' leases." On the other hand, the system is of advantage to the *ryots* in reducing settlement operations to a minimum of time and procedure. In the collection of revenue the Government consistently pursues a generous policy. In times of distress, suspensions and remissions are freely granted after proper inquiry.

Land revenue is now a provincial head of revenue and is not shown in the All-India accounts. It may be taken roughly at £28 million, as compared with £84 million said to have been raised annually by Aurungzebe from a much smaller Empire.

The literature on the subject is considerable. The following should be consulted by readers who require fuller information:—"Land Revenue Policy of the Indian Government," 1902 (Superintendent of Government Printing); Baden Powell's "Land Systems of British India"; Sir John Strachey's "India, its Administration and Progress, 1911," (Macmillan & Co.); M. Joseph Chailley's "Administrative Problems of British India" (Macmillan & Co., 1910), and the Annual Administration Reports of the respective Provincial Governments.

EXCISE.

The Excise revenue in British India is derived from the manufacture and sale of intoxicating liquors, hemp drugs, toddy and opium. It is a common place amongst certain sections of temperance reformers to represent the traffic in intoxicating liquors as one result of British rule. There is, however, abundant evidence to show that in pre-British days the drinking of spirituous liquors was commonly practised and was a source of revenue.

The forms of intoxicating liquor chiefly consumed are country spirit; fermented palm juice; beer made from grain; country brands of rum, brandy, etc., locally manufactured malt beer and imported wine, beer and spirits. Country spirit is the main source of revenue, except in the Madras Presidency, and yields about two-thirds of the total receipts from liquors. It is usually prepared by distillation from the Mhowra flower, molasses and other forms of unrefined sugar, fermented palm juice and rice. In Madras a very large revenue is derived from fresh toddy. The British inherited from the Native Administration either an uncontrolled Out-Still System or in some cases a crude Farming System and the first steps to bring these systems under control were the limitation of the number of shops in the area farmed, and the establishment of an improved Out-Still System under which the combined right of manufacture and sale at a special shop was annually granted. This of course was a kind of control, but it only enabled Government to impose haphazard taxation on the liquor traffic as a whole by means of vend fees. It did not enable Government to graduate the taxation accurately on the still-head duty principle nor to insist upon a standard of purity or a fixed strength of liquor. Moreover for political and other reasons the extent of control could not at first be complete. There were tribes of aborigines who regarded the privilege of making their own liquor in their private homes as a long established right and who believed that liquor poured as libations to their god should be such as had been made by their own hands. The introduction of any system amongst those peoples had to be worked very cautiously. Gradually as the Administration began to be consolidated the numerous native pot-stills scattered all over the country under the crude arrangements then in force began to be collected into Central Government enclosures called Distilleries, thus enabling Government to perfect its control by narrowing the limits of supervision; and to regularize its taxation by imposing a direct still-head duty on every gallon issued from the Distillery. Under Distillery arrangements it has also been possible to regulate and supervise thoroughly the manufacture of its liquor and its disposal subsequent to leaving the Distillery by means of a system of transport passes, establishment supervision, improved distribution and vend arrangements.

Various Systems.

The Out-Still System may be taken to include all systems prior in order of development to the imposition of Still-head duty. Briefly stated the stages of development have been—First: farms of large tracts; Second: farms of smaller areas; Third: farms of the combined right to manufacture and sell at particular places without any exclusive privilege over a definite area; Fourth: farms of similar right subject to control of means and times for distilling and the like. The Provincial Governments have had to deal with the subject in different ways suited to local conditions, and so the order of development from the lower forms of systems to the higher has not been always everywhere identical in details. Yet in its essence and main features the Excise Administration in most provinces of British India has progressed on uniform lines the keynote lying in attempts, where it has not been possible to work with the fixed duty system in its simplest forms, to combine the farming and fixed duty systems with the object of securing that every gallon of spirit should bear a certain amount of taxation. The Out-Still System has in its turn been superseded by either the Free-supply system or the District Monopoly system. The Free-supply system is one of free competition among the licensed distillers in respect of manufacture. The right of vend is separately disposed of. The District monopoly system on the other hand is one in which the combined monopoly of manufacture and sale in a district is leased to a farmer subject to a certain amount of minimum still-head duty revenue in the monopoly area being guaranteed to the State during the term of the lease.

The recommendations of the Indian Excise Committee of 1905-06 resulted in numerous reforms in British India, one of them being that the various systems have been or are gradually being superseded by the Contract Distillery System under which the manufacture of spirit for supply to a district is disposed of by tender, the rate of still-head duty and the supply price to be charged are fixed in the contract and the right of vend is separately disposed of. This is the system that now prevails over the greater portion of British India. The other significant reforms have been the revision of the Provincial Excise Laws and Regulations, and the conditions of manufacture, vend, storage and transport, an improvement in the quality of the spirit, an improved system of disposal of vend licenses, reductions and re-distributions of shops under the guidance and control of Local Advisory Committees and gradual enhancement of taxation with a view to checking consumption.

Excise has now been made over entirely to the Provincial Governments, and the duties vary from province to province. The governing principle in fixing these rates is the highest duty compatible with the prevention of illicit distillation. In the Bombay Presidency the issue of spirit to all country spirit shops has been rationed on the basis of consumption for the year 1920-21.

From that consumption reduced to proof gallons. 10 per cent. is deducted in the case of shops in Bombay City and 5 per cent. elsewhere and the ration is then fixed for each shop according to the issues in the corresponding month of 1920-21. This is the most important step taken by the new Government to reduce consumption. Two large distilleries in the Presidency have been placed entirely under Government management, thus partially superseding the Contract Distilling system.

Sap of the date, palmyra, and cocoanut palms called toddy, is used as a drink either fresh or after fermentation. In Madras and Bombay the revenue is obtained from a fixed fee on every tree from which it is intended to draw the liquor and from shop license fees. In Bengal and Burma the sale of shop licenses is the sole form of taxation. Country brands of rum, and so-called brandies and whiskies, are distilled from grape juice, etc. The manufacture is carried out in private distilleries in various parts of India. A number of breweries has been established, mostly in the hills, for the manufacture of a light beer for European and Eurasian consumption.

Foreign liquor is subject to an import duty at the tariff rates, which are set out in the Customs Tariff (*q.v.*). It can only be sold under a license.

Since the war Brandy and Whisky have been manufactured in considerable quantities at Baroda.

The base used is the Mhowra flower. It is drunk in big towns as a substitute for German spirit, and is excised at tariff rates.

Drugs.—The narcotic products of the hemp plant consumed in India fall under three main categories, namely, ganja or the dry flowering tops of the cultivated female hemp plant charas, or the resinous matter which forms an active drug when collected separately; and bhang, or the dried leaves of the hemp plant whether male or female cultivated or uncultivated. The main features of the existing system are restricted cultivation under supervision, storage in Bonded Warehouses, payment of a quantitative duty before issue, retail sale under licenses and restriction on private possession. Licenses to retail all forms of hemp drugs are usually sold by auction. The sale of charas has been prohibited in the Bombay Presidency except Sindh from the 1st April 1922.

Opium.—Opium is consumed in all provinces in India. The drug is commonly taken in the form of pills; but in some places, chiefly on social and ceremonial occasions, it is drunk dissolved in water. Opium smoking also prevails in the City of Bombay and other large towns. The general practice is to sell opium from the Government Treasury, or a Central Warehouse, to licensed vendors. The right of retail to the public is sold by annual auction to one or several sanctioned shops. Further legislation against opium smoking in clubs and dens is now under contemplation.

The revenue from opium is derived mainly from exports of what is called provision opium to foreign countries and from the sale to Provincial Governments of excise opium for internal consumption in India. The entire quantity is now exported under the system of direct sales to Foreign and Colonial governments, the system of auction sales in Calcutta to traders for export to foreign countries having been stopped with effect from 7th April, 1926. In no case are exports permitted without an import certificate by the Government of the country of import as prescribed by the League of Nations.

It has been decided to reduce the total of the opium exported since the calendar year 1926 by 10 per cent. annually in each subsequent year until exports are totally extinguished at the end of 1935.

Excise opium is sold to Provincial Governments for internal consumption in India at a fixed price based on the cost of production. This opium is retailed to licensed vendors at rates fixed by the Provincial Governments and varying from Province to Province.

SALT.

The salt revenue was inherited by the British Government from Native rule, together with a miscellaneous transit dues. These transit dues were abolished and the salt duty consolidated and raised. There are four great sources of supply; rock salt from the Salt range and Kohat Mines in the Punjab; brine salt from the Sambhar Lake in Rajputana, salt brine condensed on the borders of the lesser Rann of Cutch; and sea salt factories in Bombay, Madras and at the mouth of the Indus.

The Salt Range mines contains an inexhaustible supply. They are worked in chambers excavated in salt strata, some of which are 250 feet long, 45 feet wide and 200 feet high. The Rajputana supply chiefly comes from the Sambhar Lake where brine is extracted and evaporated by solar heat. In the Rann of Cutch the brine is also evaporated by solar heat and the product is known as Baragara salt. Important works for the manufacture of that salt were opened in Dhrangadhra State in 1923. In Bombay and Madras sea water is let into shallow pans on the sea-coast and evaporated by solar heat and the product sold throughout India. In Bengal the damp climate together with the large volume of fresh water from the Ganges and the Brahmaputra into the Bay of Bengal render the manufacture of sea-salt difficult and the bulk of the supply, both for Bengal and Burma, is imported from Liverpool, Germany, Aden, Bombay and Madras.

Broadly, one-half of the indigenous salt is manufactured by Government Agency, and the remainder under license and excise systems,

In the Punjab and Rajputana the salt manufactories are under the control of the Northern India Salt Department, a branch of the Commerce and Industry Department. In Madras and Bombay the manufactories are under the supervision of Local Governments. Special treaties with Native States permit of the free movement of salt throughout India, except from the Portuguese territories of Goa and Damaun on the frontiers of which patrol lines are established to prevent the smuggling of salt into British India.

From 1888-1903 the duty on salt was Rs. 2-8 per maund of 82 lbs. In 1903, it was reduced to Rs. 2; in 1905 to Rs. 1-8-0; in 1907 to Re. 1 and in 1916 it was raised to Rs. 1-4-0. The successive reductions in duty have led to a largely increased consumption, the figures rising by 25 per cent. between 1903-1908. In 1923 the duty was doubled bringing it again to Rs. 2-8. In 1924 it was reduced to Re. 1-4-0. The duty remained at Rs. 1-4-0 from March 1924 to 29th September 1931. It was raised to Rs. 1-9-0 with effect from 30th September 1931. Prior to 17th March 1931, the excise duty and import duty on salt were always kept similar, but by the Indian Salt (Additional Import Duty) Act XIV of 1931, a temporary additional customs duty of 4½ annas per maund was imposed on foreign salt. In March 1933 the customs duty was reduced by 2 annas.

CUSTOMS.

The import duties have varied from time to time according to the financial condition of the country. Before the Mutiny they were five per cent.; in the days of financial stringency which followed they were raised to 10 and in some cases 20 per cent. In 1875 they were reduced to five per cent.; but the opinions of Free Traders, and the agitation of Lancashire manufacturers who felt the competition of the Indian Mills, induced a movement which led to the abolition of all customs dues in 1882. The continued fall in exchange compelled the Government of India to look for fresh sources of revenue and in 1894 five per cent. duties were imposed, yarns and cotton fabrics being excluded. Continued financial stringency brought piece-goods within the scope of the tariff, and after various expedients the demands of Lancashire were satisfied by a general duty of 3½ per cent. on all woven goods—an import duty on goods by sea, an excise duty on goods produced in the country. The products of the hand-looms are excluded. These excise duties are intensely unpopular in India, for reasons set out in the special article dealing with the subject. In 1910-11, in order to meet the deficit threatened by the loss of the revenue on opium exported to China, the silver duty was raised from 5 per cent. to 4d. an ounce, and higher duties levied on petroleum; tobacco, wines, spirits; and beer. These were estimated to produce £1 million annually.

The Customs Schedule was completely recast in the Budget of 1916-17 in order to provide additional revenue to meet the financial disturbance set up by the war. The general import tariff, which had been at the rate of 5 per cent. *ad valorem* since was raised to 7½ per cent. *ad valorem*, except in the case of sugar; as India is the largest producer of sugar in the world the import duty on this staple was fixed at 10 per cent. There was also a material curtailment of the free list. The principal article of trade which was not touched was cotton manufactures. For the past twenty years the position has been that cotton twists and yarns of all kinds are free of duty while a duty at the rate of 3½ per cent. is imposed on woven goods of all kinds whether imported or manufactured in Indian mills. The Budget left the position as it stood. The Government of India would have been glad to see the tariff raised to 5 per cent. without any corresponding alteration of the excise, but were over-ruled by the Cabinet on the ground that this controversial matter must come up for discussion after the war. Finally the Budget imposed export duties on tea and jute. In the case of tea the duty was fixed at Re. 1-8-0 per 100 lbs.; in the case of jute the export duty on raw jute was fixed at Rs. 2-4-0 per bale of 400 lbs., approximately equivalent to an *ad valorem* duty of 5 per cent.; manufactured jute was charged at the rate of Rs. 10 per ton on sacking and Rs. 16 per ton on Hessians.

The Customs Tariff was further materially modified in the Budget for 1917-18. In the previous year an export duty on jute was imposed at the rate of Rs. 2-4-0 per bale of 400 lbs. in the case of raw jute and Rs. 10 per ton on sackings, and Rs. 16 per ton on Hessians; these rates were doubled, with a view to obtaining an additional revenue of £500,000. The import duty on cotton goods was raised from 3½ per cent. to 7½ per cent. without any alteration in the Excise, which remained at 3½ per cent. This change was expected to produce an additional revenue of £1,000,000. The question of the Excise was left untouched, for the reason, amongst others, that the Government could not possibly forego the revenue of £320,000, which it was expected to produce. With these changes in operation the revenue from Customs in 1920-21 was Rs. 32,37,29,000.

The Customs Tariff was further raised in the Budget of 1921-22 in order to provide for the big deficit which had then to be faced. The general *ad valorem* duty was raised from 7½ to 11 per cent.; a special duty was levied on matches of 12 annas per gross boxes in place of the existing *ad valorem* duty of 7½ per cent. the duties on imported liquors was raised to 8 annas per degree of proof per gallon; the *ad valorem* duty of 7½ per cent. was raised to 20 per cent. in the case of certain articles of luxury; the import duty on foreign sugar was increased from 10 to 15 per cent. and the duty on manufactured tobacco was raised by 50 per cent. The Customs duties were further increased in the Budget of 1922-23. The Government proposals in this direction have been described in an early passage. They were to raise the general Customs duty from 11 to 15 per cent., the cotton excise duty from 3½ per cent. to 7½ per cent., the duty on sugar from 15 to 25 per cent., a duty of 5 per cent. on imported yarn, a rising duty on machinery, iron, steel and railway material from 2½ per cent. to 10 per cent. together with the general duty on articles of luxury from 20 per cent. to 30 per cent. In the course of the passage of the Budget through the Legislatures the cotton excise duty was

retained at 3½ per cent., the duty on machinery was retained at 2½ per cent. and the duty on cotton piece-goods at 11 per cent., the other increases being accepted. In 1925 the Cotton Excise duties were finally abolished. Full details with regard to the customs duty are set out in the section on Indian Customs Tariff (*q.v.*). The Customs duties have been repeatedly raised in recent Budgets both as a protective measure and for revenue purposes. The latest duties will be found in detail in the Financial Section of the Year Book. The estimated revenue from the Customs in 1934-35 is Rs. 44,62 lakhs.

The Senior Collectors were Covenanted Civilians specially chosen for this duty, before the introduction of the Imperial Customs Service in 1906. Since that date, of the five Collectorship at the principal ports (Calcutta, Bombay, Madras, Rangoon, and Karachi) three are ordinarily reserved for Members of the I. C. S. (*i. e.*, "Covenanted Civilians"). The other two are reserved for members of the Imperial Customs Service.

Assistant Collectors in the Imperial Customs Service are recruited in two ways: (*a*) from members of the Indian Civil Service—3 vacancies, and (*b*) by the Secretary of State—19 vacancies. There are in addition a few Gazetted Officers in what is known as the Provincial Customs Service. These posts are in the gift of the Government of India, and are usually filled by promotion from the subordinate (in the Government sense of the word) service. The "subordinate" staff is recruited entirely in India.

INCOME TAX.

The income tax was first imposed in India in 1860, in order to meet the financial dislocation caused by the Mutiny. It was levied at the rate of four per cent. or a little more than 9½d. in the pound on all incomes of five hundred rupees and upwards. Many changes have from time to time been made in the system, and the present schedule was consolidated in the Act of 1886. This imposed a tax on all incomes derived from sources other than agriculture which were exempted. On incomes of 2,000 rupees and upwards it fell at the rate of five pies in the rupee, or about 6¼d. in the pound; on incomes between 500 and 2,000 rupees at the rate of four pies in the rupee or about 5d. in the pound. In March 1903 the minimum taxable income was raised from 500 to 1,000 rupees. The income-tax schedule was completely revised, raised, and graduated in the Budget of 1916-17 in the general scale of increased taxation imposed to meet the deficit arising out of war conditions.

Since then the process has been almost continuous and in every financial difficulty the authorities turn to the Income Tax as a means of raising fresh revenue. The last revision was in the Supplementary Finance Bill of 1931, when the scale was fixed as follows :—

(RATES OF INCOME-TAX.)

A. In the case of every *individual, Hindu undivided family, unregistered firm* and other association of individuals not being a registered firm or company :—

	RATE. (*Vide Footnote.*)
(1) When the *total* income is less than Rs. 2,000.	*Six pies* in the rupee.
(2) When the total income is Rs. 2,000 or upwards, but is less than Rs. *5,000*.	*Nine pies* in the rupee
(3) When the total income is Rs. 5,000 or upwards, but is less than Rs. *10,000*.	*One anna* in the rupee.
(4) When the total income is Rs. 10,000 or upwards, but is less than Rs. *15,000*.	*One anna and four pies* in the rupee.
(5) When the total income is Rs. 15,000 or upwards, but is less than Rs. *20,000*.	*One anna and seven pies* in the rupee.
(6) When the total income is Rs. 20,000 or upwards, but is less than Rs. *30,000*.	*One anna and eleven pies* in the rupee.
(7) When the total income is Rs. 30,000 or upwards, but is less than Rs. *40,000*.	*Two annas and one pie* in the rupee.
(8) When the total income is Rs. 40,000 or upwards, but is less than Rs. *100,000*.	*Two annas and two pies* in the rupee.
(9) When the total income is Rs. *100,000 or upwards*.	*Two annas and two pies* in the rupee.

B. In the case of *every company and registered firm* whatever its total income.

N.B.—Additional tax (Sur-charge) for the financial year—

1931-32 at 12½ per cent.
and
1932-33 at 25 per cent.

over the rates prescribed by the Indian Finance Act, 1931, *except* in cases of income between Rs. 1,000 to Rs. 1,999.

Tax at 2 *pies* on incomes between Rs. 1,000 to Rs. 1,999 for the year *1931-32* and

Tax at 4 *pies* for the year *1932-33* on the same income.

The surcharge was continued in the budget of 1933-34, as resolved by the assembly the rate or incomes between Rs. 1,000 & Rs. 1,500 was reduced from 4 pies to 2 pies. The surcharge continues in 1934-35.

RATES OF SUPER-TAX.

In respect *of the excess over thirty thousand* of total income :—

	RATE.
(1) in the case of *every company*—	
(*a*) in respect of the *first twenty thousand* rupees of such excess.	*Nil.*
(*b*) for every rupee of the *remainder* of such excess.	*One anna* in the rupee.
(2) (*a*) in the case of every Hindu undivided family :—	
(*i*) in respect of the *first forty-five thousand* rupees of such excess.	*One anna* in the rupee.
(*ii*) for every rupee of the *next twenty-five thousand* rupees of such excess.	*One anna and three pies* in the rupee.
(*b*) in the case of every *individual, unregistered firm and other* association of individuals not being a registered firm or a company :—	*Nil.*
(*i*) for every rupee of the *first twenty thousand* rupees of such excess.	*Nine pies* in the rupee.
(*ii*) for every rupee of the *next fifty thousand* rupees of such excess.	*One anna and three pies* in the rupee.
(*c*) in the case of every *individual, Hindu undivided family, unregistered firm* and other association of individuals not being a registered firm or a company.	
(*i*) for every rupee of the *next fifty thousand* rupees of such excess.	*One anna and nine pies* in the rupee.
(*ii*) for every rupee of the *next fifty thousand* rupees of such excess.	*Two annas and three pies* in the rupee.
(*iii*) for every rupee of the *next fifty thousand* rupees of such excess.	*Two annas and nine pies* in the rupee.
(*iv*) for every rupee of the *next fifty thousand* rupees of such excess.	*Three annas and three pies* in the rupee.
(*v*) for every rupee of the *next fifty thousand* rupees of such excess.	*Three annas and nine pies* in the rupee.
(*iv*) for every rupee of the *next fifty thousand* rupees of such excess.	*Four annas and three pies* in the rupee.
(*vii*) for every rupee of the *next fifty thousand* rupees of such excess.	*Four annas and three pies* in the rupee.
(*viii*) for every rupee of the *next fifty thousand* rupees of such excess.	*Five annas and three pies* in the rupee.
(*ix*) for every rupee of the *next fifty thousand* rupees of such excess.	*Five annas and nine pies* in the rupee.
(*x*) *for every rupee of the remainder of such excess.*	*Six annas and three pies* in the rupee.

The head of the Income-Tax Department of a province is the Commissioner of Income-tax who is appointed by the Governor-General in Council. The rest of the income-tax staff in a province are subordinate to him and they are appointed and dismissed by him. His power of appointment and dismissal is, under section 5 (4) "subject to the control of the Governor-General in Council," but the Governor-General in Council exercises this control through the local Government.

The estimated yield of Income-tax in 1934-35 is Rs. 17,25 lakhs.

HISTORY OF THE COINAGE.

The Indian mints were closed to the unrestricted coinage of silver for the public from the 26th June 1893, and Act VIII of 1893, passed on that date, repealed Sections 19 to 26 of the Indian Coinage Act of 1870, which provided for the coinage at the mints for the public of gold and silver coins of the Government of India. After 1893 no Government rupees were coined until 1897, when, under arrangements made with the Native States of Bhopal and Kashmir, the currency of those States was replaced by Government rupees. The re-coinage of these rupees proceeded through the two years 1897 and 1898. In 1899 there was no coinage of rupees; but in the following year it seemed that coinage was necessary, and it was begun in February 1900, the Government purchasing the silver required, and paying for it mainly with the gold accumulated in the Paper Currency Reserve. In that and the following month a crore of rupees was coined and over 17 crores of rupees in the year ending the 31st March 1910 including the rupees issued in connection with the conversion of the currencies of Native States. From the profit accruing to Government on the coinage it was decided to constitute a separate fund called the Gold Reserve Fund as the most effective guarantee against temporary fluctuations of exchange. The whole profit was invested in sterling securities, the interest from which was added to the fund. In 1906 exchange had been practically stable for eight years, and it was decided that of the coinage profits devoted to this fund, six crores should be kept in rupees in India, instead of being invested in gold securities. The Gold Reserve Fund was then named the Gold Standard Reserve. It was ordered in 1907 that only

one-half of the coinage profits should be paid into the reserve, the remainder being used for capital expenditure on railways.

Gold.

Since 1870 there had been no coinage of double mohurs in India and the last coinage of single mohurs before 1918 in which year coinage was resumed, was in the year 1891-92.

A Royal proclamation was issued in 1918 establishing a branch of the **Royal Mint at Bombay**. It stated:—Subject to the provision of this proclamation the Bombay Branch Mint shall for the purpose of the coinage of gold coins be deemed to be part of the Mint, and accordingly, (*a*) the Deputy Master of the Bombay Branch Mint shall comply with all directions he may receive from the Master of the Mint whether as regards the expenditure to be incurred or the returns to be made or the transmission of specimen coins to England or otherwise and (*b*) the said specimen coins shall be subject to the trial of the pyx under section 12 of the Coinage Act, 1870, so that they shall be examined separately from the coins coined in England or at any other branch of the Mint, and (*c*) the Deputy Master of the Bombay Branch Mint and other officers and persons employed for the purpose of carrying on the business of the Branch Mint may be appointed, promoted, suspended and removed and their duties assigned and salaries awarded and in accordance with the provisions of section 15 of the Coinage Act, 1870. Pending the completion of the arrangements at the Branch, Royal Mint, power was taken by legislation to coin in India gold mohurs of the same weight and fineness as the sovereign. Altogether 2,109,703 pieces of these new coins of the nominal value of Rs. 3,16,45,545, were struck at the Bombay Mint. The actual coinage of sovereigns was begun in August, 1918, and 1,295,372 sovereigns were coined during the year. This branch of the Royal Mint was closed in April, 1919, owing to difficulties in supplying the necessary staff.

The Indian Currency Act of 1927 established a new ratio of the rupee to gold. It established this ratio at one shilling and six pence by enacting that Government would purchase gold at a price of twenty-one rupees three annas ten pies per tola of fine gold in the form of bars containing not less than forty tolas and would sell gold or, at the option of Government, sterling, for immediate delivery in London at the same price after allowing for the normal cost of transport from Bombay to London. A rate of one shilling and five pence forty-nine sixty-fourths was notified as Government's selling rate for sterling to meet these obligations. Great Britain and India left the gold standard in September 1931 but the buying and selling rates for sterling are still maintained.

With the receipt of large consignments of gold, the Bombay Mint made special arrangements for the **refining of gold** by the chlorine process and at the end of the year 1919-20 the Refinery Department was capable of refining a daily amount of 6,000 ounces of raw gold.

Silver.

The weight and fineness of the silver coins are:—

—	Fine Silver grains.	Alloy grains.	Total grains.
Rupee	165	15	180
Half-rupee	82½	7½	90
Quarter-rupee or 4-anna piece	41¼	3¾	45
Eighth of a rupee or 2-anna piece ..	20⅝	1⅞	22½

One rupee = 165 grains of fine silver.
One shilling = $80\frac{1}{11}$ grains of fine silver.
One rupee = shillings 2·0439.

Copper and Bronze.

Copper coinage was introduced into the Bengal Presidency by Act XVII of 1835 and into the Madras and Bombay Presidencies by Act XXII of 1844.

The weight of the copper coins struck under Act XXIII of 1870 remained the same as it was in 1835. It was as follows:—

	Grains troy.
Double pice or half-anna	200
Pice or quarter-anna	100
Half-pice or one-eighth of an anna ..	50
Pie being one-third of a pice or one-twelfth of an anna	33⅓

The weight and dimensions of bronze coins are as follows:—

	Standard weight in grains troy.	Diameter in millimetres.
Pice	75	25·4
Half-pice	37½	21·15
Pie	25	17·45

Nickel.

The Act of 1906 also provides for the coinage of a nickel coin. It was directed that the nickel one-anna piece should thenceforth be coined at the Mint and issue. The notification also prescribed the design of the coin, which has a waved edge with twelve scollops, the greatest diameter of the coin being 21 millimetres and its least diameter 19·8 millimetres. The desirability of issuing a half-anna nickel coin was considered by the Government of India in 1909 but after consultation with Local Governments it was decided not to take action in this direction until the people had become thoroughly familiar with the present one-anna coin. The two-anna nickel coin was introduced in 1917-18; and the four-anna and eight-anna nickel coins in 1919. The eight-anna nickel is now being withdrawn from circulation.

The Currency System.

The working of the Indian currency system which has commanded a large amount of public attention since 1893, was forced to the front in 1920, as the result of measures taken to stabilise the exchange value of the rupee after the fluctuations caused by the war. These assumed so much importance, and they continue to bulk so largely in all Indian economic questions, that we propose to give here a short summary of the Indian currency system in non-technical language.

I. THE SILVER STANDARD.

Prior to 1893 the Indian currency system was a mono-metallic system, with silver as the standard of value and a circulation of silver rupees and notes based thereon. But with the opening of new and very productive silver mines in the United States of America the supply of silver exceeded the demand and it steadily receded in value. The result was that the gold value of the rupee, which was nominally two shillings, fell continuously until it reached the neighbourhood of a shilling. These disturbances were prejudicial to trade, but they were still more prejudicial to the finances of the Government. The Government of India has to meet every year in London a substantial sum in the form of payment of interest on the debt, the salaries of officials on leave, the pensions of retired officials, as well as large payment for stores required for State enterprises. As the rupee fell in its gold value the number of rupees required to satisfy these payments rose. The total reached a pitch which seriously alarmed the Government, which felt that it might be called upon to raise a sum in rupees which would necessitate a considerable increase in taxation, which should be avoided if possible. It was therefore decided to take measures to raise and fix the gold value of the rupee for the purposes of exchange.

Closing the Mints.—The whole question was examined by a strong committee under the presidency of Lord Herschell, whose report is commonly called the Herschell Report. It was decided in 1893 to close the mints to the unrestricted coinage of silver. This step led, as was intended, to a gradual divergence between the exchange value of the rupee and the gold value of its silver content. Government ceased to add rupees to the circulation. Rupees remained unlimited legal tender and formed the standard of value for all internal transactions. Since Government refused, and no-one else had the power to coin rupees, as soon as circumstances led to an increasd demand for rupees, the exchange value of the rupee began to rise. By 1898 it had approached the figure of one shilling and four pence. Meantime, in response to the undertaking of Government to give notes or rupees for gold at the rate of fifteen rupees to the pound sterling, gold began to accumulate in the Paper Currency Reserve. These purposes having been attained, a second committee was appointed under the chairmanship of Sir Henry Fowler to consider what further steps should be adopted in the light of these conditions. The report of the Fowler Committee as it was called marked the second stage in Indian currency policy.

II. THE NEW STANDARD.

The Fowler Committee rejected the proposal to re-open the Mints to the free coinage of silver. They proposed that the exchange value of the rupee should be fixed at one shilling and four-pence, or fifteen rupees to the sovereign. They further suggested that the British sovereign should be made a legal tender and a current coin in India: that the Indian mints should be thrown open to the unrestricted coinage of gold; so that the rupee and the sovereign should freely circulate side by side in India. The goal which the Committee had in view was a gold standard supported by a gold currency. Now under the condition which compelled the Government of India to give either rupees or rupee notes for gold tendered in India, at the rate of fifteen rupees to the sovereign, it was impossible for the rate of exchange to rise above one shilling and four pence, save by the fraction which covered the cost of shipping gold to India. But if the balance of trade turned against India, it was still possible for the rate of exchange to fall. To meet this the Fowler Committee recommended that the profits on coining rupees should not be absorbed in the general revenues, but should be set aside in a special reserve, to be called the Gold Standard Reserve. Inasmuch as the cost of coining rupees was approximately elevenpence halfpenny, and they were sold to the public at one and four pence, the profits were considerable; they were to have been kept in gold, so as to be freely available when required for the support of exchange.

A 16 pence Rupee.—The Government of India professed to accept all the recommendations of the Fowler Committee; actually only a portion of them was put in practice. The official rate of exchange was fixed at one and four-pence. The sovereign and the half sovereign were declared unlimited legal tender in India. But after a first attempt, when sovereigns soon came back to the treasuries, no effort was made to support the gold standard by an active gold currency. The gold mint was not set up. The Gold Standard Reserve was established, but, instead of holding the Reserve in gold, it was invested in British securities. These practices gave rise to conditions which were never contemplated by the Fowler Committee. Reference has been made to the Home Charges of the Government of India, which at the time amounted to about seventeen millions sterling a year. These are met by the sale of what are called Council Bills. That is to say, the Secretary of State, acting on behalf of the Government of India, sold Bills against gold deposited in the Bank of England in London. These Bills when presented

in India were cashed at the Government Treasuries. Now if the Secretary of State sold Council Bills only to meet his actual requirements, it follows that the balance of trade in favour of India over and above this figure would be liquidated, as it is in other countries, by the importation of bullion or by the creation of credits. It is a fact that owing to the failure of the policy of encouraging an active gold circulation to support the gold standard, gold tended to accumulate in India in embarrassing quantities. In 1904 therefore the Secretary of State declared his intention of selling Council Bills on India without limit at the price of one shilling fourpence one-eighth—that is to say gold import point. The effect of this policy was to limit the import of gold to India, for it was generally more convenient to deposit the gold in London and to obtain Council Bills against it, than to ship the gold to India. Nevertheless as the Egyptian cotton crop was very largely financed in sovereigns it was sometimes cheaper and more convenient to ship sovereigns from Egypt, or even from Australia, than to buy Council Bills. Considerable quantities of sovereigns found their way into India and circulated freely, particularly in the Bombay Presidency, the Punjab and parts of the Central Provinces.

Sterling Remittance.—This system worked until 1907-08. A partial failure of the rains in India in 1907, and the general financial stringency all over the world which followed the American financial crisis in the autumn, caused the Indian exchange to become weak in November. This was one of the occasions contemplated, in a different form, by the Fowler Committee when it proposed the formation of the Gold Standard Reserve. There had been very heavy coining of rupees in India and the amount in the Reserve was ample. But the Reserve was in securities not in gold, and was therefore not in a liquid form, nor was the time an opportune one for the realisation of securities. Moreover the authorities did not realise that a reserve is for use in times of emergency. It had been assumed that in times of weakness it would be sufficient for the Secretary of State to stop selling Council Bills, and it would firm up; meantime he would finance himself by drawing on the funds in the Gold Standard Reserve. But it was apparent that the stoppage of the sales of Councils was not enough; there was an insistent demand for the export of gold, or the equivalent of gold. The Government of India refused and exchange fell to one and threepence twenty-three thirty-seconds. Ultimately the authorities had to give way. It was decided to sell in India a certain quantity of sterling bills on London at one and threepence twenty-nine thirtyseconds, representing gold export point, and the equivalent of the export of gold. These were met in London from the funds in the Gold Standard Reserve. Bills to the extent of between eight and nine millions sterling were sold, which regularised the position and the Indian export trade recovered. Thus were gradually evolved the main principles of the Indian currency system. It consisted of silver rupees and rupee notes in India, with the sovereign and half sovereign unlimited legal tender at the rate of fifteen rupees to the sovereign, or one and fourpence. The rate of exchange was prevented from rising above gold import point by the unlimited sale of Council Bills at gold point in London; it was prevented from falling below gold point by the sale of Sterling Bills (commonly called Reverse Councils) at gold export point in India. But it was not the system proposed by the Fowler Committee, for there was no gold mint and only a limited gold circulation; some people invented for it the novel term of the gold exchange standard, a term unknown to the law of India. It was described by one of the most active workers in it as a "limping standard."

III. THE CHAMBERLAIN COMMITTEE.

This brings us to the year 1913. There were many critics of the system. Some hankered for a return to the open mints; others objected to the practice of unlimited sales of Council Bills as forcing rupees into circulation in excess of the requirements of the country. But the general advantages of a fixed exchange were so great as to smother the voices of the critics, and the trade and commerce of the country adjusted itself to the one and fourpenny rupee. But there gradually grew up a formidable body of criticism directed against the administrative measures taken by the India Office. These criticisms were chiefly directed at the investment of the Gold Standard Reserve in securities instead of keeping it in gold in India; at a raid on that reserve in order temporarily to relieve the Government of the difficulty of financing its railway expenditure; at the transfer of a solid block of the Paper Currency Reserve from India to London; at the holding of a portion of the Gold Standard Reserve in silver in order to facilitate the coining of rupees; and at the unlimited sales of Council Bills at rates which prevented the free flow of gold to India, thus forcing token rupees into circulation in quantities in excess of the requirements of the country. The cumulative effect of this policy was to transfer from India to London an immense block of India's resources, aggregating over seventy millions, where they were lent out at low rates of interest to the London bankers, whilst India was starved of money until at one point money was not available for loans even against Government securities and the bank rate was artificially high. All these things were done, it was contended, on the *obiter dicta* of a small Finance Committee of the India Office, from which all Indian influence was excluded, and on which London banking influence was supreme. The India Office for long ignored this criticism, until it was summarised in a series of articles in *The Times*, and public opinion was focussed on the discussion through the action of the India Office in purchasing a big block of silver for coining purposes from Messrs. Montagu & Co., instead of through their recognised and constituted agents, the Bank of England. The Government could no longer afford to stand aloof and yet another Currency Committee was appointed under the chairmanship of Mr. Austen Chamberlain. This is known as the Chamberlain Committee

New Measures.—The conclusions of this Commission were that it was unnecessary to support the Gold Standard by a gold currency; that it was not to the advantage of India to encourage the internal use of gold as currency; that the internal currency should be supported by a thoroughly adequate reserve of gold and sterling; that no limit should be fixed to the amount of the Gold Standard Reserve, one-half of which should be held in gold; that the silver branch of the Gold Standard Reserve should be abolished; that Reverse Councils should be sold on demand; that the Paper Currency should be made more elastic; and that there should be two Indian representatives out of three on the Finance Committee of the India Office. The Committee dealt in conclusively with the accumulation of excessive balances in London, the general tenor of their recommendations being "not guilty, but do not do it again." They gave a passing commendation to the idea of a State Bank. Sir James Begbie, the only Indian banker on the Committee, appended a vigorous minute of dissent, in which he urged that the true line of advance was to discourage the extension of the token currency by providing further facilities for the distribution of gold when increases to the currency became necessary, including the issue of an Indian gold coin of a more convenient denomination than the sovereign or the half sovereign.

IV. CURRENCY AND THE WAR.

The report was in the hands of the Government of India shortly before the outbreak of the war. Some immediate steps were taken, like the abolition of the silver branch of the Gold Standard Reserve, but before the Government could deal entirely with the temporising recommendations of the Commission, the war broke out. The early effects of the war were precisely those anticipated. There was a demand for sterling remittance which was met by the sale of Reverse Councils, 68,707,000, being sold up to the end of January 1915. There were withdrawals from the Post Office Savings Banks, and a net sum of Rs. 8 crores was taken away. There was some lack of confidence in the Note issue, and a demand for gold; Notes to the extent of Rs. 10 crores were presented for encashment and the Government were obliged to suspend the issue of gold. But these were transient features and did not demand a moratorium; confidence was soon revived and Exchange and the Note issue continued strong. The difficulties which afterwards arose were from causes completely unanticipated by all students of the Indian currency. They arose from an immense balance of trade in favour of India, caused by the demand for Indian produce for the United Kingdom and the Allies and the decline in the export trade from these countries; a heavy expenditure in India on behalf of the British Government; and a phenomenal rise in the price of silver. If we take the three years 1916-17 to 1918-19 the balance of trade in favour of India was £6 millions a year above the corresponding years of the previous quinquennium. The disbursements in India on behalf of the Government of the United Kingdom and the Allies were by December 1919 £240,000,000. This balance of trade and expenditure for Imperial purposes could not be financed either by the import of the precious metals, owing to the universal embargo on the movement of gold and silver nor by credits in India. It could be financed only by the expansion of the Note issue, against sterling securities in the United Kingdom, chiefly Treasury Bills, and the issue of coined rupees. But simultaneously there was a reduction in the output of the silver mines of the world coinciding with an increased demand for the metal. The price of silver in 1915 was 27¼ pence per standard ounce. In May 1919 it was 58 pence, on the 17th December of that year it was 78 pence. The main difficulties in India were not therefore the prevention of the rupee from falling below the ratio of 15 to one, but to keep it within any limits and to provide a sufficiency to meet the demand.

Rise in Exchange.—The measures adopted by the Government of India in these emergencies were to bring exchange under rigid control, confining remittance to the finance of articles of national importance. The next step was to raise the rate for the sale of Council Bills, so that silver might be purchased at a price which would allow rupees to be coined without loss. The following table shows how rates were raised from one shilling fourpence to two shillings fourpence:—

Date of Introduction.	Minimum Rate for Immediate Telegraphic Transfers.
3rd January 1917 ..	1 4⅛
28th August 1917 ..	1 5
12th April 1918 ..	1 6
13th May 1919 ..	1 8
12th August 1919 .	1 10
15th September 1919 .	2 0
22nd November 1919 ..	2 2
12th December 1919 ..	2 4

V. THE 1919 COMMITTEE.

The effect of these measures however was to jettison the currency policy pursued from 1893 to 1915, the main object of which was to stabilise the rupee at one and fourpence. The war being over, a Committee was appointed to advise in regard to the future of Indian exchange and currency. It sat in 1919 and reported towards the end of the year. Its main recommendations are summarised below:—

(i) It is desirable to restore stability to the rupee and to re-establish the automatic working of the Indian currency system.

(*ii*) The reduction of the fineness or weight of the rupee, the issue of 2 or 3-rupee coins of lower proportional silver content than the present rupee, or the issue of a nickel rupee, are expedients that cannot be recommended.

(*iii*) The maintenance of the convertibility of the note issue is essential, and proposals that do not adequately protect the Indian paper currency from the risk of becoming inconvertible cannot be entertained.

(*iv*) The rise in exchange, in so far as it has checked and mitigated the rise in Indian prices, has been to the advantage of the country as a whole, and it is desirable to secure the continuance of this benefit.

(*v*) Indian trade is not likely to suffer any permanent injury from the fixing of exchange at a high level.

If, contrary to expectation, a great and rapid fall in world prices were to take place, and if the costs of production in India fail to adjust themselves with equal rapidity to the lower level of prices, then it might be necessary to consider the problem afresh.

(*vi*) The development of Indian industry would not be seriously hampered by a high rate of exchange.

(*vii*) The gain to India of a high rate of exchange for meeting the Home charges is an incidental advantage that must be taken into consideration.

(*viii*) To postpone fixing a stable rate of exchange would be open to serious criticism and entail prolongation of Government control.

(*ix*) The balance of advantage is decidedly on the side of fixing the exchange value of the rupee in terms of gold rather than in terms of sterling.

(*x*) The stable relation to be established between the rupee and gold should be at the rate of Rs. 10 to one sovereign, or, in other words at the rate of one rupee for 11·30,016 grains of fine gold, both for foreign exchange and for internal circulation.

(*xi*) If silver rises for more than a brief period above the parity of 2s. (gold), the situation should be met by all other available means rather than by impairing the convertibility of the note issue. Such measures might be (*a*) reduction of sale of Council Bills; (*b*) abstention from purchase of silver; (*c*) use of gold to meet demands for metallic currency. If it should be absolutely necessary to purchase silver, the Government should be prepared to purchase even at a price such that rupees would be coined at a loss.

(*xii*) Council Drafts are primarily sold not for the convenience of trade but to provide for the Home charges in the wider sense of the term. There is no obligation to sell drafts to meet all trade demands; but, if without inconvenience or with advantage the Secretary of State is in a position to sell drafts in excess of his immediate needs, when a trade demand for them exists, there is no objection to his doing so, subject to due regard being paid to the principles governing the location of the reserves.

Council Drafts should be sold as now by open tender at competitive rates, a minimum rate being fixed from time to time on the basis of the sterling cost of shipping gold to India. At present this rate will vary; but when sterling is again equivalent to gold, it will remain uniform.

The Government of India should be authorised to announce, without previous reference to the Secretary of State on each occasion, their readiness to sell weekly a stated amount of Reverse Councils (including telegraphic transfers) during periods of exchange weakness at a price based on the cost of shipping gold from India to the United Kingdom.

(*xiii*) The import and export of gold to and from India should be free from Government control.

(*xiv*) The statutory minimum for the metallic portion of the Paper Currency Reserve should be 40 per cent. of the gross circulation.

As regards the fiduciary portion of the reserve, the holding of securities issued by the Government of India should be limited to 20 crores. The balance should be held in securities of other Governments comprised within the British Empire, and of the amount so held not more than 10 crores should have more than one year's maturity and all should be redeemable at a fixed date. The balance of the invested portion above these 30 crores should be held in short-dated securities, with not more than one year's maturity, issued by Government within the British Empire.

The sterling investments and gold in the Paper Currency Reserve should be revalued at 2s. to the rupee. The depreciation which will result from this revaluation, cannot be made good at once, but any savings resulting from the rise in exchange will afford a suitable means of discharging this liability in a limited number of years.

(*xv*) With a view to meeting the seasonal demand for additional currency, provision should be made for the issue of notes up to five crores over and above the normal fiduciary issue as loans to the Presidency Banks on the security of export bills of exchange.

Minority Report.—The main object of the Committee, it will be seen, was to secure a stable rate of exchange, without impairing the convertibility of the Note issue, and without debasing the standard silver rupee in India, or substituting another coin of inferior metallic content, which would be debasement in another form. In order to attain these ends it was imperative to fix a ratio for the rupee in relation to gold which would ensure that the Government was able to purchase silver for coining purposes without more than temporary loss. For reasons given in the report they fixed this point at two shillings gold: all other recommendations are subsidiary thereto. But in this they were not unanimous: an important member of the Committee, Mr. Dadiba Dalal, of Bombay, appended a minority report in which he urged the adoption of the following courses:—

(*a*) The money standard in India should remain unaltered; that is, the standard of the sovereign and gold mohur with rupees related thereto at the ratio of 15 to 1.

(*b*) Free and unfettered imports and exports by the public of gold bullion and gold coins.

(*c*) Free and unfettered imports and exports by the public of silver bullion and silver coins.

(*d*) The existing silver rupees of 165 grains of fine silver at present in circulation to continue full legal tender.

(*e*) As long as the price of silver in New York is over 92 cents, Government should not manufacture silver rupees containing 165 grains fine silver.

(*f*) As long as the price of silver is over 92 cents Government should coin 2 rupee silver coins of reduced fineness compared with that of the present silver rupee and the same to be unlimited legal tender.

(*g*) Government to sell Council Bills by competitive tenders for the amount defined in the Budget as required to be remitted to the Secretary of State. The Budget estimate to show under separate headings the amount of Council Bills drawn for Home Charges, for Capital Outlay and Discharge of Debt. Council Bills to be sold for Government requirements only and not for trade purposes, except for the purpose mentioned in the next succeeding recommendation.

(*h*) "Reverse" drafts on London to be sold only at 1s. 3 29-32d. The proceeds of "Reverse" drafts to be kept apart from all other Government funds and not to be utilised for any purpose except to meet drafts drawn by the Secretary of State at a rate not below 1s. 4 3-32d. per rupee.

VI. THE TWO SHILLING RUPEE.

The fundamental recommendation of the Committee was that the rupee should be linked to gold and not to sterling, in view of the decline in the value of sterling; that it should be linked at the rate of two shillings instead of the standard value, one and fourpence: all other recommendations were ancillary to this. But it is very important to bear in mind the twofold problem which confronted the Committee. It would be quite easy to fix any low ratio provided the paper currency were made inconvertible, or the rupee debased to such a point that the Government in providing rupee currency, were independent of the price of silver. But if the convertibility of the rupee were to be maintained, and if the rupee were not to be debased, it was essential that the new ratio should be one at which the Government could reasonably rely on purchasing without loss the silver necessary to meet the heavy demands for rupee in India. For reasons set out in the Report, the Committee came to the conclusion that the Government could reckon on purchasing silver for coining at a little under two shillings gold, and that powerfully influenced them in fixing the new ratio at two shillings gold.

The Report Adopted.—The Currency Committee's Report was signed in December 1919, but it was not until February 1920 that action was taken thereon. In the first week of that month a Notification was issued in India accepting the principal recommendations in the Report and notifying that the necessary official action would be taken thereon. This action covered a wide field, but for the sake of clarity in this narrative we shall concentrate on the main issue, the changing of the official monetary standard from fifteen rupees to the sovereign to ten rupees to the sovereign and its effect on Indian currency and trade. That may be summarised in a sentence. A policy which was avowedly adopted to secure fixity of exchange produced the greatest fluctuations in the exchanges of any solvent country and widespread disturbance of trade, heavy losses to Government, and brought hundreds of big traders to the verge of bankruptcy.

Financial Confusion.—This result was produced by many causes. It has been explained above that the essential features of the Indian currency system are the free sales of Council Bills at gold export point in London to prevent exchange from rising above the official standard and the sale of Reverse Councils in India at gold export point to prevent exchange from falling below the official standard. Now when the Currency Report was signed the Indian exchanges were practically at two shillings gold. But between the signing of the Report and the taking of official action, there was a sensational fall in the sterling exchanges, as measured in dollars, the dollar-sterling rate, inasmuch as America was the only free gold market, being the dominating factor in the situation. Consequently the Indian exchanges were considerably below the two shillings gold rate when the Notification accepting the Currency Committee's Report was issued. The Indian exchanges were two shillings and fourpence, and weak at that; the gold rate was about two shillings ninepence. There was an immediate and prodigious demand for Reverse Councils, to take advantage of this high rate of exchange; the market rate jumped up to two shillings eight pence.

Effect of the Rise.—The effect of a rise in exchange has been well described in the words of the Currency Committee's Report; it is that a rising exchange stimulates imports and impedes exports, the effect of a falling exchange is the reverse.

Now when the official notification of the two shilling rupee was made the Indian export trade was weak. The great consuming markets of Great Britain and America were glutted with Indian produce. The continent of Europe, which was starved of Indian produce and in urgent need of it, had not the wherewithal to pay for it nor the means of commanding credit. The only Indian staples which were in demand were foodstuffs, and as the rains of 1920 failed over a wide area, the Government were not able to lift the embargo on the export for foodstuffs, save to a limited extent in the case of wheat. On the other hand, the import trade was strong. Orders had been placed for machinery and other manufactured goods during the war and after the Armistice for delivery at the discretion of manufacturers. These began to come forward.

Difficulties Accentuated.—In accordance with the principles laid down by the Currency Committee these difficulties were accentuated by the action of Government in raising exchange by an administrative act. The weak export trade was almost killed. At the same time the temptation of a high exchange gave powerful stimulus to the import trade and orders were placed for immense quantities of manufactured goods, in which textiles filled a important place. Afterwards other forces intervened which accentuated the difficulties of the situation. There was a severe commercial crisis in Japan and this

checked the export of Indian cotton. Japan is the largest buyer of Indian cotton, and when her merchants not only stopped buying but began to re-sell in the Indian markets, the trade was severely shaken and stocks accumulated at a great rate. Even before the 1920 crop came into the market the stocks in Bombay were double those in the corresponding period of the previous year. The expectations of a revival in the buying power of the Continent which were held in many quarters were disappointed and throughout the year there was a heavy balance of trade against India, which made the stabilisation of exchange at the high ratio attempted a hopeless proposition.

Confession of Failure.—Government struggled long against these conditions in the desperate hope that a revival of the export trade would come to their assistance, but they were further handicapped by the variations of the sterling-dollar exchange, which at one time took the rate for Reverse Councils to two shillings tenpence half penny. They sold two millions of Reverse Councils a week, then five millions, then dropped down to a steady million. But their policy only aggravated the situation. In addition to arresting the export trade and stimulating the import trade at a time when the precise converse was demanded, their action created an artificial movement for the transfer of capital from India to England. Large war profits accumulated in India since 1914 were hurriedly liquidated and transferred to England. Then the difference between the Reverse Council rate and the market rate, which on some occasions was several pence, induced gigantic speculations. The Exchange Banks set aside all their available resources for the purpose of bidding for Bills, and at once sold their allotments at substantial profits. Considerable groups of speculators pooled their resources and followed the same course. In this way the weekly biddings for the million of Reverse Councils varied from a hundred and 20 millions to a hundred and thirty millions and the money market was completely disorganised. The biddings assumed such proportions that it was necessary to put up fifty lakhs of rupees to obtain the smallest allotment made, five thousand pounds, and Reverse Councils and the large profits thereon came under the entire control of the Banks and the wealthy speculators. Various expedients were tried to remedy the situation but without the slightest effect.

Sterling for Gold.—The first definite break from the recommendations of the Currency Committee came at the end of June, when the Government announced that instead of trying to stabilise the rupee at two shillings gold they would aim at stabilising it at two shillings sterling, leaving the gap between sterling and gold to be closed when the dollar-sterling rate became par. The effect of this was to alter the rate at which Reverse Councils were sold from the fluctuating rate involved in the fluctuations of dollar-sterling exchange to a fixed sterling rate, namely, one shilling elevenpence nineteen-thirty seconds. But this had little practical effect. The biddings for Reverse Councils continued on a very big scale, and the market rate for exchange was always twopence or threepence below the Reverse Council rate. This practice continued until the end of September, when it was officially declared that Reverse Councils would be stopped altogether. Exchange immediately slumped to between one and sixpence and one and sevenpence, and it continued to range between these narrow points until the end of the year. The market made its own rate; it made a more stable rate than the efforts of Government to attain an administrative stability.

Other Measures.—Apart from the effort to stabilise exchange, which had such unfortunate results, the policy of Government had certain other effects. During the year all restrictions on the movement of the precious metals were removed, in accordance with the recommendations of the Currency Committee. This included the abandonment of the import duty on silver, always a sore point with Indian bullionists. Legislative action was taken to alter the official ratio of the sovereign from fifteen to one to ten to one; due notice of this intention was given to holders of sovereigns and of the gold mohurs which were coined as an emergency measure in 1918, and they were given the option of tendering them at fifteen rupees. As the gold value of these coins was above fifteen rupees only a limited number was tendered, although there was extensive smuggling of sovereigns into India to take advantage of the premium. Then measures were adopted to give greater elasticity to the Note issue. Under the old law the invested proportion of the Note issue was fixed by statute and it could be altered only by altering the law or by Ordinance. An Act was passed fixing the metallic portion of the Paper Currency Reserve at fifty per cent. of the Note Issue, the invested portion being limited to Rs. 20 crores in Indian securities and the balance in British securities of not more than twelve months' currency. The invested portion of the Paper Currency Reserve was revalued at the new rate of exchange, and an undertaking was given that the profits on the Note issue would be devoted to writing off the depreciation, as also would be the interest on the Gold Standard Reserve when the total had reached £40 millions. Further, in order to give greater elasticity to the Note issue, power was taken to issue Rs. 5 crores of emergency currency in the busy season against commercial bills. These measures, save the alteration of the ratio, were generally approved by the commercial public.

Results.—It remains to sum up the results of these measures. In a pregnant sentence in their report the Currency Committee say that whilst a fixed rate of exchange exercises little influence on the course of trade, a rising exchange impedes exports and stimulates imports, a falling exchange exercises a reverse influence. Here we have the key to the failure of the currency policy attempted. At the moment when it was sought suddenly and violently to raise the rate of exchange by the introduction of the new ratio of two shillings gold, the export trade was weak and the import trade in obedience to the delivery of long deferred orders was strong. The very principle enunciated by the Currency Committee wrecked the policy which they recommended. The rising rate of exchange scotched the weak export trade and gave a great stimulus to imports. Unexpected forces, such as the financial crisis in Japan, the lack of buying power on the Continent, and the movement for the transfer of capital from India to England at the

artificially high rate of exchange stimulated these forces, but they had their origin in the attempt by administrative action artificially and violently to raise the rate of exchange. If let alone, the natural fall in exchange would have tended to correct the adverse balance of trade; the official policy exaggerated and intensified it. The effects on Indian business were severe. Exporters found themselves loaded with produce for which there was no foreign demand; importers found themselves loaded up with imported goods, bought in the expectation of the continuance of a high rate of exchange, delivered when it had fallen one and fourpence from the highest point reached. Immense losses were incurred by all importers. The Government sold £55 millions of Reverse Councils before abandoning their effort to stabilise exchange at the new ratio; the loss on these—that is the difference between the cost of putting the funds down in London and in bringing them back to India—was Rs. 35 crores of rupees. Government sold £53 millions of gold, without breaking or seriously affecting the premium on gold. The Secretary of State, in the absence of any demand for Council Bills, was able to finance his expenditure in England only through the lucky chance of heavy expenditure on behalf of the Imperial Government for the forces in Mesopotamia—this expenditure being made in India and set off by payments in London. The only advantages were a considerable contraction of the Note issue and the silver token currency.

VII. COMMISSION OF 1925-26.

These unfortunate experiments induced a period of great caution in dealing with Indian currency. The currency quacks having had their way, and proved their ignorance, went out of the field, and the wholesome policy of leaving Exchange alone, to find its natural level, followed. Left alone Exchange established itself round about the old ratio of fifteen to one, that is one shilling and fourpence to the rupee. Meantime great improvements were made in the organisation of Indian credit. The three Presidency Banks were merged in the Imperial Bank of India, a State Bank in all but name, and the Bank entered into a contract with Government to open a hundred new branches in the first five years of its existence. The Bank mobilised and strengthened and widened Indian credit. The metallic backing of the Paper Currency was strengthened and the fiduciary portion of the Reserve brought within negligible proportions. Greater elasticity was established in the currency by the power to issue emergency currency up to Rs. 12 crores against commercial paper endorsed by the Imperial Bank when there is a tightness of money, and the practice of also issuing emergency currency against sterling in England. The Government of India now purchases sterling in India to meet its Home Charges when the conditions are favourable, instead of relying entirely on the sales of Council Bills in London. A notable feature in Exchange history was the rise of Exchange, of its own strength, above the one and fourpenny figure. Towards the close of 1924 it gradually rose to one shilling and sixpence and stayed there.

At this figure Exchange was maintained by Government, though the state of trade might have led to a higher figure. But as the wholly artificial ratio of the two shilling rupee remained on the statute book, the demand for an authoritative inquiry to fix the ratio of the rupee to gold or sterling was insistent, and a Committee was appointed in the autumn of 1925. Of this Commander Hilton Young was chairman, with Sir Henry Strakosch as the chief gold expert. The personnel of the Committee was strongly criticised in India, on the ground that the Indian membership was inadequate, and that the individuals selected were not authoritative; a resolution was passed in the Assembly hostile to the whole body. Nevertheless the Committee arrived in India in November 1925 and took evidence in Delhi, Bombay and Calcutta. It sailed for England in February 1926, and resumed its hearings in London, and reported on July 1st, 1926.

The main recommendations of this Commission are summarised in the actual report in the following terms, and they are textually reproduced in order that they may be above question:—

(i) The ordinary medium of circulation should remain the currency note and the silver rupee and the stability of the currency in terms of gold should be secured by making the currency directly convertible into gold, but gold should not circulate as money.

(ii) The necessity of unity of policy in the control of currency and credit for the achievement of monetary stability involves the establishment of a Central Banking system.

(iii) The Central Banking functions should be entrusted to a new organisation, referred to as the Reserve Bank.

(iv) Detailed recommendations are made as to the constitution and functions and capacities of the Bank.

(v) The outlines of a proposed charter are recommended to give effect to the recommendations which concern the Reserve Bank.

(vi) Subject to the payment of limited dividends and the building up of suitable reserve funds, the balance of the profits of the Reserve Bank should be paid over to the Government.

(vii) The Bank should be given the sole right of note issue for a period of (say) 25 years. Not later than five years from the date of the charter becoming operative, Government notes should cease to be legal tender except at Government Treasuries.

(viii) The notes of the Bank should be full legal tender, and should be guaranteed by Government. The form and material of the note should be subject to the approval of the Governor-General in Council. A suggestion is made as to the form of the note.

(*ix*) An obligation should be imposed by statute on the Bank to buy and sell gold without limit at rates determined with reference to a fixed gold parity of the rupee but in quantities of not less than 400 fine ounces, no limitation being imposed as to the purpose for which the gold is required.

(*x*) The conditions which are to govern the sale of gold by the Bank should be so framed as to free it in normal circumstances from the task of supplying gold for non-monetary purposes. The method by which this may be secured is suggested.

(*xi*) The legal tender quality of the sovereign and the half-sovereign should be removed.

(*xii*) Government should offer "on tap" savings certificates redeemable in 3 or 5 years in legal tender money or gold at the option of the holder.

(*xiii*) The paper currency should cease to be convertible by law into silver coin. It should, however, be the duty of the Bank to maintain the free interchangeability of the different forms of legal tender currency, and of the Government to supply coin to the Bank on demand.

(*xiv*) One-rupee notes should be re-introduced and should be full legal tender.

(*xv*) Notes other than the one-rupee note should be legally convertible into legal tender money, *i.e.*, into notes of smaller denomination or silver rupees at the option of the currency authority.

(*xvi*) No change should be made in the legal tender character of the silver rupee.

(*xvii*) The Paper Currency and Gold Standard Reserves should be amalgamated, and the proportions and composition of the combined Reserve should be fixed by statute.

(*xviii*) The proportional reserve system should be adopted. Gold and gold securities should form not less than 40 per cent. of the Reserve, subject to a possible temporary reduction, with the consent of Government, on payment of a tax. The currency authority should strive to work to a reserve ratio of 50 to 60 per cent. The gold holding should be raised to 20 per cent. of the Reserve as soon as possible and to 25 per cent. within ten years. During this period no favourable opportunity of fortifying the gold holding in the Reserve should be allowed to escape. Of the gold holding at least one-half should be held in India.

(*xix*) The silver holding in the Reserve should be very substantially reduced during a transitional period of ten years.

(*xx*) The balance of the Reserve should be held in self-liquidating trade bills and Government of India securities. The "created" securities should be replaced by marketable securities within ten years.

(*xxi*) A figure of Rs. 50 crores has been fixed as the liability in respect of the contractibility of the rupee circulation. Recommendations are made to secure that an amount equal to one fifth of the face value of any increase or decrease in the number of silver rupees in issue shall be added to or subtracted from this liability, and the balance of profit or loss shall accrue to or be borne by the Government revenues.

(*xxii*) The Issue Department of the Reserve Bank should be kept wholly distinct from its Banking Department.

(*xxiii*) The Reserve Bank should be entrusted with all the remittance operations of the Government. The Secretary of State should furnish in advance periodical information as to his requirements. The Bank should be left free, at its discretion, to employ such method or methods of remittance as it may find conducive to smooth working.

(*xxiv*) During the transition period the Government should publish a weekly return of remittances made. A trial should be made of the system of purchase by public tender in India.

(*xxv*) The cash balances of the Government (including any balances of the Government of India and of the Secretary of State outside India), as well as the banking reserves in India of all banks operating in India, should be centralised in the hands of the Reserve Bank. Section 23 of the Government of India Act should be amended accordingly.

(*xxvi*) The transfer of Reserve assets should take place not later than 1st January 1929, and the Bank's obligation to buy and sell gold should come into operation not later than 1st January 1931.

(*xxvii*) During the transition period the currency authority (*i.e.*, the Government until the transfer of Reserve assets and the Bank thereafter) should be under an obligation to buy gold and to sell gold or gold exchange at its option at the gold points of the exchange. This obligation should be embodied in statutory form, of which the outline is suggested.

(*xxviii*) Stabilisation of the rupee should be effected forthwith at a rate corresponding to an exchange rate of 1*s.* 6*d.*

(*xxix*) The stamp duty on bills of exchange and cheques should be abolished. Bill forms, in the English language and the vernacular in parallel, should be on sale at post offices.

(*xxx*) Measures should be taken to promote the development of banking in India.

(*xxxi*) Every effort should be made to remedy the deficiencies in the existing body of statistical data.

A Minute of Dissent.—Whilst all the members of the Commission signed the report, one of their number, Sir Purshotamdas Thakordas, did so subject to a minute of dissent. In the first part of this Minute Sir Purshotamdas subjected the long correspondence between the Government of India and the India Office on currency policy to a detailed analysis. The conclusions to which he came were that throughout the Government of India had striven for a system following the Fowler Report—a gold standard based on a gold currency, and that their efforts were emasculated by successive Secretaries of State, who had in view some which was often called the Gold

Exchange Standard, but which was in effect no standard at all. On the question of the Gold Standard, he stressed the importance of the free movement of gold in India, but subject to this condition accepted the Gold Bullion Standard recommended by his colleagues. As for the proposed Reserve Bank, Sir Purshotamdas, whilst recognising that the scheme proposed might be the ideal, to be attained in process of time, thought that the best immediate course was to develop the Imperial Bank into a central bank for India. The chief point of difference with his colleagues was however the ratio.

Dealing with the ratio of the rupee to gold Sir Purshotamdas said that in September 1924 the rate was approximately one and fourpence gold. At that time the Government was pressed to stabilise at the then ratio, and thus legally to restore the long current legal standard of money payments. This it declined to do, and by limiting the supply of currency, the ratio was raised to one and sixpence gold by April 1925. He declined therefore to attach any importance to a ratio reached by such measures. Proceeding to analyse the course of prices and wages, he combated the conclusion of his colleagues that prices had adjusted themselves in a preponderant degree to one shilling and sixpence. For these reasons he recommended that the rupee should be stabilised at the rate which was current for nearly twenty years, namely one and fourpence. His conclusions were summarised in the following terms :—

"I look upon the question of the ratio in this Report as being no less important than the question of the standard to be adopted for the Indian Currency System. I am convinced that if the absolute necessity of the free inflow of old, which I have emphasised, is recognised, and steps taken to ensure it, the gold bullion standard proposed will be the correct one, and the likelihood of its breaking down under the strain of any convulsions in the future will be as remote as it can reasonably be. But I have very grave apprehensions that if the recommendation of my colleagues to stabilise the rupee at 1*s.* 6*d.* is accepted and acted upon, India will be faced during the next few years with a disturbance in her economic organisation, the magnitude of which is difficult to estimate, but the consequences of which may not only hamper her economic development but may even prove disastrous. Such a disturbance and its consequences my colleagues do not foresee to-day. But the possibility of their occurring cannot be ignored. Until adjustment is complete, agriculture threatens to become unattractive and less remunerative than it is to-day, and industries will have to undergo a painful process of adjustment, unnatural, unwarranted and avoidable—an adjustment which will be much to their cost, and affect not only their stability and their progress, but in certain cases, their very existence. And should Nature have in store for India a couple of lean years after the four good harvests that we have had, during the period of forced adjustment to a rate of 1*s.* 6*d.*, the steps that the Currency Authority will have to take to maintain exchange at this rate may deplete the gold resources of the country to an extent that may seriously shake the confidence of the people in the currency system recommended."

A Survey.—The official summary of the Report, and the summary of the minute of dissent, given above, do not however convey an idea of the far-reaching proposals embodied therein. These can be appreciated only if they are examined in close relation to the currency system of India in its various phases since 1899. This was done in an article contributed to *The Bankers' Magazine* by Sir Stanley Reed, which was recognised to be a fair presentation of the position. The main features thereof are reproduced below. There is here some re-treading of the path laid out in the introductory section, but this is unavoidable, if the full bearing of the measures proposed by the Commission are to be appreciated. After describing the standard in force Sir Stanley Reed asked :—

"What was the standard thus established ? It is generally described in London as the Gold Exchange Standard. That status was never claimed for it by its principal protagonist, the late Sir Lionel Abrahams, who described it as a 'limping standard.' The Royal Commission declares that 'in truth in so far as it amounted to a definite standard at all, it was a standard of sterling exchange.' Later they show that 'the automatic working of the exchange standard is thus not adequately provided for in India, and never has been. The fundamental basis of such a standard is provision for the expansion and contraction of the volume of currency.....Under the Indian system, contraction is not, and never has been, automatic.'

"However, the standard limped along until the third year of the war. The exchange value of the rupee was stable ; prices adjusted themselves to the ratio ; Indian trade and industry developed. From the narrow standpoint of profit and loss, the investment of the reserves, instead of keeping them in gold, resulted in a considerable gain to the finances estimated in 1925 at £17,962,466. But it had three great disadvantages : it did not inspire public confidence ; it placed the Indian currency at the mercy of the silver market which was on occasion deliberately cornered against it ; and it left the control of currency by the Government divorced from the control of credit by the Presidency Banks, afterwards amalgamated in the Imperial Bank of India. On this the Commission make a very suggestive comment : 'when allowance has been made for all misunderstandings and misapprehensions, the fact remains that a large measure of distrust in the present system is justified by its imperfections.'

"There is, I think, an inadequate appreciation of the influence on the Indian currency and exchange of the war, and the action taken thereafter. The first break in the permanent ratio of one shilling and fourpence did not occur until 1917, when the full effect of dependence on the silver market was revealed. Faced by the unprecedented rise in the price of silver the Government of India had either to raise the price of Council Drafts or else abandon the

convertibility of the Note Issue. Wisely, it took the former alternative; the price of Council Drafts followed the price of silver. The effect of this would have been transitory, but for the attempt in 1920, on the advice of the Babington Smith Committee, to stabilise the rupee at a new ratio of two shillings gold when all gold prices were crashing. It is easy to be wise after the event, but if the Government had followed silver down, as it followed silver up, there is no room to doubt that the rupee would have returned to its 'permanent' ratio with no more disturbance than was inevitable under war conditions. However, this was not done. The vain effort to stabilise the new ratio was abandoned in September, 1920, and the two shilling rupee has since been a legal fiction. Left free from administrative action, the rupee fell below one shilling and threepence sterling and one shilling gold in 1921. Since under the influence of good harvests, it has climbed upwards, and has been in the neighbourhood of one shilling and sixpence gold for the past twelve months. But it is not always realised in London that under these vicissitudes the Indian standard has legally perished. In the words of the report, 'The stability of the gold value of the rupee is thus based upon nothing more substantial than a policy of the Government, and at present that policy can be found defined in no notification or undertaking by the Government. It has to be implied from the acts of the Government in relation to the currency, and those acts are subject to no statutory regulation or control.'

The responsibility remitted to the Commission was not therefore the mere stabilisation of the rupee, but the establishment of a standard which would command reasoned confidence in India, to link the rupee to that standard, and to provide for its statutory control, automatic working and stability; to bring the control of currency and of credit under a single authority and to free the Indian currency and exchange system from the dominance of the silver market. In short, it was to establish the rule of law in place of the practice of administrative discretion.

Scheme for Gold Currency.—In the course of their inquiries in India the Commission had placed before them a scheme for the immediate establishment of a gold bullion standard, and its early conversion into the gold standard supported by the gold currency which a large body of Indian opinion has insistently demanded. The scheme was presented by the officials of the Finance Department, but it is known to be the work of the Finance Member, Sir Basil Blackett, whose work in India is of the greatest value.

The essential features of this Scheme were the undertaking of a statutory obligation by Government to buy and sell gold bullion in 400 oz. bars; as soon as sufficient gold was available to put a gold coin in circulation; after a period tentatively fixed at five years to undertake to give gold coin in exchange for notes and rupees, and after a further period, also tentatively fixed at five years, make the silver rupee legal tender only for sums up to a small fixed amount. The scheme involved the disposal of 200 crores of silver rupees, or 687 million fine ounces, in ten years; the acquisition in all of £103 millions of gold; and the establishment of credits in London or New York. The cost was estimated at one and two-thirds crores of rupees per annum during the first five years and thereafter from two-thirds of a crore to 1·12 crore.

This scheme is subjected by the Commission to a detailed examination, and rejected on grounds which are convincing. The main grounds for this decision are that the estimates of the amount and time of the gold demand are uncertain, and the absorption by India of this £103 millions of gold, in addition to the normal absorption for the arts, hoards, etc., would powerfully react on the supplies of credit, the rates of interest, and gold prices, throughout the world. The reaction on the silver market from the dethronement of the rupee and realisation of this large quantity of silver bullion would be even more marked, with severely prejudicial effects on the silver hoards of the people of India and the exchanges with China, where India still does a large business. Moreover, the capacity to raise the required credits is doubtful, and the cost is placed by the India Office at Rs. 3 crores a year.

The evidence of the highest financial authorities in London and New York established beyond doubt that it is not in the interests of India to precipitate any currency reform that would violently disturb the gold and silver markets, however desirable that reform might be in itself. Also, that whilst London, working in close harmony with New York, would strain every nerve to supply India with the funds she might require for her own development, it could hardly be expected to provide credits for a scheme which would upset the gold and silver markets. But whilst on these grounds the Commission were not able to endorse Sir Basil Blackett's scheme, there is no doubt that they were profoundly influenced by it in their own recommendations. The ultimate evolution of a policy which promises a cure for India's currency bills is therefore in large measure due to the courage and resolution with which the Finance Authorities in that country faced them.

A Gold Bullion Standard.—The currency system recommended by the Commission is a gold bullion standard. They propose that an obligation shall be imposed by statute on the currency authority to buy and sell gold without limit at rates determined with reference to a fixed gold parity of the rupee, but in quantities of not less than 400 fine ounces, no limitation being imposed as to the purpose for which the gold is required. The essence of this proposal is "that the ordinary medium of circulation in India should remain as at present the currency note and the silver rupee, and that the stability of the currency in terms of gold should be secured by making the currency directly convertible into gold for all purposes, but that gold should not circulate as money. It must not circulate at first, and it need not circulate ever." In breaking adrift from any idea of a sterling exchange, or gold exchange standard, the Commission were powerfully influenced by two factors—the necessity for safeguarding the

Indian system from the price of silver rising above the melting point of the rupee and the desirability of establishing confidence by giving the country not only a real, but conspicuously visible link between the currency and gold.

This reasoning is eminently sound, and the scheme in its broad outlines should command the unhesitating support not only of India, but of all interested in Indian trade. India will have nothing to do with any exchange standard; its experience has been too painful. Proposals to that end would be rejected by the legislature and prolong the currency controversies it is desired to close. The gold bullion standard satisfies all the country's real needs. True, it will not give it the gold mint and the gold currency which have long been demanded; it involves the demonetisation of the sovereign to which a sentimental influence attaches. But whilst it does not do these things, it keeps the door open. No-one contends that a gold standard and a gold currency are immediately practicable. The most rapid progress thereto is embodied in Sir Basil Blackett's scheme, which is full of uncertainties and risks. But when the gold reserves are strengthened to the requisite point, the proposals leave India perfectly free to decide, through her legislature, where a gold currency is worth the expense.

We must, however, face the obligation which a gold bullion standard imposes on the currency authority in India; indeed the Commission do not attempt to burke it. "The obligation is to convert the currency, not merely into foreign exchange, but into metallic gold, and it is an obligation that is not, as formerly, conditional and circumscribed, but absolute and unlimited. Nevertheless. . . . it has been undertaken by every other country that has adopted an effective gold standard: and we have satisfied ourselves that the present resources in the form of reserves at the disposal of the Government of India are adequate to enable the currency authority safely to undertake the obligation, with the measures of fortification, and at the time, which we specify." It is important, therefore, to examine the reserves and the procedure thereat.

The reserves held for the purpose of maintaining the value of the token currency are twofold—the Paper Currency Reserve and the Gold Standard Reserve. Their constitution on April 30, 1926 (the date taken by the Commission), was as follows:—

Paper Currency Reserve.

	Rs. Crores.
Silver coin	77·0
Silver bullion	7·7
Gold coin and bullion	22·3
Rupee securities	57·1
Sterling securities	21·0
	185·1

(The gold coin and bullion and the sterling securities are converted at the legal fiction ratio of two shillings per rupee.)

The Gold Standard Reserve amounts at present to £40,000,000 invested in Gold and in British Treasury Bills and other sterling securities.

In theory the two reserves fulfil entirely different functions. The Paper Currency Reserve is the backing for the Note Issue. The Gold Standard Reserve, accumulated from the profits on coining, is designed to maintain the external value of the rupee. In practice their action is closely interlocked, and the first line of defence in the event of a demand for remittance from India is the gold in the paper currency reserve. This invisible line of demarcation will disappear if the Commission's proposals are adopted. The Commission are justified in recommending that the two shall be amalgamated. Their further proposals are that the proportions and composition of the combined Reserve should be fixed by statute; that gold and gold securities should form not less than 40 per cent. of the whole, with 50 to 60 per cent. as the ideal; and that the holding of gold, which now stands at about 12·8 per cent. should be raised to 20 per cent. as soon as possible, and to 25 per cent. in ten years. Generally, they are of opinion that during this period no favourable opportunity of fortifying the gold holding in the Reserve should be allowed to escape.

The proposal to bring the combined Reserve under statutory control is wise; an arguable case could be made out for the thesis that the currency difficulties of India have arisen in the main from the decision of Lord Curzon's Government not to invest the official acceptance of the Fowler Report with legislative authority. The strengthening of the gold reserves is in entire accord with Indian needs.

The Ratio.—The majority of the Commission, Sir Purshotamdas Thakordas being the only dissentient, recommend that the rupee be stabilised in relation to gold at a rate corresponding to an exchange rate of one shilling and sixpence to the rupee. Round this point controversy in India will be concentrated; it is worth while to refresh our memories of the history of the ratio. The Fowler Committee recommended that the rupee should be permanently stabilised at one shilling and fourpence; the Secretary of State for India accepted their recommendations without qualification. The rupee was substantially steady at this point until August, 1917.

One principle advanced in Sir Dadiba Dalal's prophetic minority report in 1919, that the legal standard of money payments should be, and usually is, regarded as less open to repeal or modification than any other legislative Act, will command general acceptance. But when Sir Dadiba went on to suggest that the Government of India might have avoided this measure by larger borrowings in India and encouraging investment abroad he was on ground where no one in touch with Indian conditions can follow him. In the circumstances of the day the Government had no alternative to raising the rate of exchange save in declaring the rupee inconvertible, which during the war would have been disastrous. I must reiterate the belief that the real mischief was done not when the rate of exchange was raised to meet the rise in silver, but when it was not lowered as silver fell; the attempt to stabilise the rupee

at the two shilling rate caused the Government of India large losses, and inflicted a terrible blow on trade; after it was abandoned in September, 1920, the rupee fell below one shilling and threepence sterling and one shilling gold. Thereafter, under the influence of a succession of abundant harvests, it recovered. In 1923, it was one shilling and fourpence sterling; in October, 1924, one and sixpence sterling and one and four gold. With the rise in the pound to gold parity, the rupee reached one and sixpence gold in June, 1925, and has remained there.

It is not, I think, open to doubt that if the vain attempt to stabilise the rupee at two shillings had not been made in 1920, or if advantage had been taken of its return to one and four, the permanent standard might have been re-established without undue disturbance. Sir Purshotamdas Thakordas asserts in his minute of dissent that "the Executive had made up their minds to work up to a one shilling and sixpence ratio long before this Commission was appointed to examine the question. Indeed, they have presented to us the issue in this regard as a *fait accompli*, achieved by them, not having hesitated by manipulation to keep up the rate even while we were in session. I cannot conceive of any parallel to such a procedure in any country."

It is to my mind a great misfortune that the opportunity of restoring the permanent ratio of one and four was not seized when it offered. Not because there is any special sanctity in a ratio as such but because there is a sanctity in the legal standard of money payments. If this had been done the Commission's scheme would have received practically unanimous support in India; as it is a violent controversy will rage round this secondary issue, obscuring the great merit of the Commission's basic recommendation a true gold standard, statutory in its composition and automatic in action, with the coalescence of the currency and credit authorities. However, we have to deal with facts as we find them. The majority of the commission base their recommendation on the "conviction, which has been formed and cumulatively reinforced during the progress of our inquiry, that at the present exchange rate of about one shilling and sixpence, prices in India have already attained a substantial measure of adjustment with those in the world at large, and as a corollary, that any change in the rate would mean a difficult period of readjustment, involving widespread economic disturbance, which it is most desirable in the interests of the people to avoid, and which would in the end be followed by no countervailing advantage." Sir Purshotamdas Thakordas, in a closely-reasoned minute of dissent, supported by a wealth of figures, avers—and to my mind with conclusive force that the adjustments are far from complete, and cannot be completed in regard to wages without disastrous labour disputes. Both sides admit that their conclusions are weakened by the unreliability of the Indian index figures.

The truth, I suggest, lies between these two contentions. There have been very substantial adjustments to one shilling and sixpence; no ratio could be operative for over a year without inducing this result. But it is clear that the adjustments, especially in regard to wages in Western India, are not complete. In the matter of the indebtedness of the agricultural classes of India—seventy per cent. of the whole population there has been no adjustment, not in relation to the land revenue they pay to Government. The ratio therefore cannot be determined as a question of academic principle, but is a matter of expediency.

Here, it seems to me, the decisive factor is the economic consequence of a return to one shilling and fourpence. There is no half-way house; the rate must be either the *de facto* one of one and sixpence, or the old permanent ratio of one and fourpence. The change would be immediate not a matter of weeks or months, but of hours or minutes. There would be an immediate rise in prices of twelve and a half per cent., with a consequent reduction of real wages by that proportion; there would be convulsive disturbance of the foreign trade; there would be violent speculation. I omit all calculation of the effect of the lower rate on the finances of the Government of India, because this is an influence which has been over-valued in the past; it is infinitesimal in comparison with the industrial and commercial interests involved. No one who realises the sensitiveness of the Indian market, and the proneness to speculation, can contemplate these violent disturbances without a feeling akin to dismay. The balance of advantage lies with stabilisation at one and six; the controversy which must ensue is part of the price to be paid for the neglect to re-establish the permanent ratio when it was practicable.

The Note Issue.—Before the war there was a considerable and growing circulation of sovereigns. On the outbreak of hostilities these disappeared as currency; the actual currency of India is a token, the silver rupees and another token, the note convertible into rupees. Ever since the breakway from the accepted gold standard this obligation has imposed serious difficulties on the currency. It drove it into the very heavy coining which followed recovery from the famine of 1899-1900; it compelled heavy purchases of silver, which invariably rose in prices as the Government came into the market; and it placed the Indian currency system, as occurred during the war, at the mercy of the silver market. The maintenance of the convertibility of the note into silver rupees of the present fineness is only possible so long as silver does not rise above 48*d.* an ounce. The removal of this anomalous provision, the Commission say, is an essential step in Indian currency reform which must be taken sooner or later. "No opportunity for the termination of this obligatory convertibility is likely to be so favourable at the present when, by making the notes convertible into gold bars for all purposes, a more solid right of convertibility is attached to them than they have ever had since silver ceased to be a reliable standard of value." Both proposition can be accepted in their entirety.

The rise in the volume of the paper currency is one of the most remarkable features in Indian financial history. It developed from no change in the status of the note itself; it was always convertible on demand; but from increased facilities for the encashment of notes, beginning with the introduction of universal notes of small de-

nomination and steadily progressing as experience was gained. We can therefore endorse the conclusion of the Commission that the best way to foster the use of currency notes is to establish confidence in their practical convertibility, "and this confidence has been secured not so much by a legal obligation to encash them at currency offices as by making rupees readily available to the public at centres where there is a demand for them." There has been another factor in popularising the note which commands less attention. The rise in prices made the rupee an unsuitable medium for large commercial transactions, from the bulk and weight of the amount of currency required.

The Commission therefore propose that whilst the legal obligation to convert into rupees all the notes in circulation shall remain, this obligation should not attach to the new notes to be issued by the Central Bank, and coincidentally the one-rupee note, which had acquired great popularity before it was discontinued on the ground of economy, shall be re-issued. The legal obligation on the Central Bank will be to give legal tender money, either notes of smaller denominations or silver rupees, at its option; but it will be the duty of the Bank to supply rupees freely in such quantities as may be required for circulation, and of the Government to furnish the Bank with such coin. The currency position is such that the change in the legal status of the note will be unfelt. India is suffering from a surfeit of rupees, the total volume of which is estimated at approximately Rs. 400 crores. There are Rs. 85 crores of silver coin and bullion in reserve. The whole tendency will be in the direction of a return of rupees to the reserve rather than to an appetite therefor. Not only will there exist the fullest capacity to supply rupees on demand, but there will be a positive inducement to the currency authority to encourage a demand for rupees in order to get rid of its redundant stock. It is clear that the present opportunity of freeing the currency authority from the dependence on the silver market which has hampered India for so many years is exceptionally favourable, and should be seized without hesitation.

The reception of the Report followed very closely the lines indicated as probable in the article in *The Bankers' Magazine* which we have quoted extensively above. There was a considerable protest, strongest in Western India but shared in other parts of the country, against the proposal to stabilise the rupee at one shilling and sixpence and a demand for a reversion to one and fourpence. There was, particularly in Bombay, a reluctance to agree to the establishment of the Reserve Bank, coupled with the desire that the Imperial Bank of India should be re-moulded in order to make it the Central Bank, with the functions proposed to be remitted to the Reserve Bank. These voices were so loud that they overbore the consideration of the basic recommendations of the Report, a true gold standard, and the establishment of an organisation which would link currency with credit. In Bombay there was started a Currency League, with branches in other parts of India, whose main efforts were directed to the ratio, and to the idea that the legal ratio should be one and four, not one and six.

In August 1926 the Government published the text of a Bill designed to fix the ratio at one and six, and to support it by the sale of bullion on the lines laid down in the Report. At the request of a large body of opinion in the Legislative Assembly, which urged that there had not been time to study the Report and that the papers were not available, the discussion of this measure was postponed until the 1927 session. On November 18th the Government of India issued a notification to the following effect:—

"After considering the report of the Royal Commission on Indian Currency and Finance, the Secretary of State for India in Council in agreement with the Government of India, is prepared to accept as a whole the recommendations of the Commission, subject to such further consideration of details as may prove to be necessary. The necessary legislation to give effect to these recommendations will be introduced in the Indian Legislature during the forthcoming session."

The new Ratio.—So far from closing the discussion, this notification intensified it. Feeling ran high on the subject of the ratio, considerable interests in the country being convinced that one shilling and sixpence was a higher rate than the manufacturing and agricultural industries could bear without prolonged and disastrous readjustment. These found strong expression when the Bill to give effect to the new rate was brought before the Legislative Assembly in February-March 1927. The Indian Currency Bill was however accepted by the Assembly by a small majority, and adopted by the Council of State. It established the ratio of one shilling and sixpence by enacting that the Government would purchase gold at a price of twenty-one rupees three annas ten pies per tola of fine gold in the form of bars containing not less than forty tolas and would sell gold or, at the option of Government, sterling for immediate delivery in London at the same price after allowing for the normal cost of transport from Bombay to London. A rate of one shilling fivepence forty-nine sixty-fourths was notified as Government's selling rate for sterling to meet these obligations.

Exchange has since remained stable at the one and sixpenny rate. World trade depression in the last few years made it increasingly difficult for the Government of India to maintain the statutory ratio, but their difficulties were solved when Great Britain went off the Gold standard in September 1931, and the rupee was linked to sterling. By the end of the year exports of commercial gold from India had begun to show their effects, and on December 30 the T.T rate had risen to 1/6 $\frac{1}{16}$, compared with 1/5$\frac{31}{32}$ on September 18.

The characters of the **Reserves** which are the backbone of the Indian currency system are shown below:—

Composition of the Currency Reserve held against the note circulation at the end of each month (In lakhs of rupees.)

MONTH.	Gross circulation of notes.	COIN AND BULLION RESERVE.								SECURITIES.		
		Silver coin in India.	Gold bullion in India.	Silver bullion in India.	Gold bullion in England.	Silver bullion in England.	Gold bullion in His Majesty's Dominions.	Gold bullion in transit between India and England and His Majesty's Dominions.	Silver bullion in transit between India and England and His Majesty's Dominions.	Sterling securities in England.	Rupee securities in India.	Internal Bills of Exchange.
1932.												
March	1,78,14	1,01,96	5,26	9,23	..	..	..	..	..	..	57,94	3,75
April	1,68,31	1,00,81	5,53	9,69	..	..	..	..	..	..	52,28	..
May	1,68,47	99,83	10,71	10,67	..	..	..	..	..	..	47,26	..
June	1,70,85	1,01,30	10,78	10,58	..	..	..	..	..	..	48,19	..
July	1,74,23	1,03,64	10,86	10,75	..	..	..	..	..	..	48,98	..
August ..	1,75,58	1,04,04	11,11	10,98	..	..	..	..	..	..	49,45	..
September ..	1,75,77	1,03,01	11,31	12,28	..	..	..	..	..	..	49,14	..
October ..	1,75,85	1,02,06	11,53	12,86	..	..	..	..	..	..	49,40	..
November ..	1,75,63	1,00,49	11,75	12,48	..	..	..	..	..	..	50,91	..
December ..	1,74,80	97,83	18,68	12,83	..	..	..	..	..	..	45,46	..
1933.												
January ..	1,74,33	96,26	25,52	13,28	..	..	..	..	..	..	39,27	..
February ..	1,75,25	96,03	25,68	14,34	..	..	..	..	..	..	39,20	..
March	1,76,90	96,34	25,99	15,52	..	..	..	..	..	..	39,05	..

Details of the balance of the Gold Standard Reserve on the 31st March 1933.

		£
In England—		
Estimated value on the 31st March 1933 of the sterling securities of the nominal value of £ 25,850,000 (as per details below)		26,220,769
Gold { In England		2,152,334
Gold { In India		11,626,000
Cash at the Bank of England		897
TOTAL		40,000,000

Details of investments :—

	Face value. £
British Treasury Bills	16,260,000
Treasury 3 per cent. Bonds, 15th April 1933	239,200
Treasury 4 per cent. Bonds, 1934-36	4,840,000
Treasury 2 per cent. Bonds, 1935-38	1,500,000
Treasury 3 per cent. Bonds, 1934-42	1,860,800
Treasury Conversion 4½ per cent. Stock 1940-44	150,000
TOTAL	25,850,000

THE RESERVE BANK.

The following Act of the Indian Legislature received the assent of the Governor-General on March 6, 1934, and is known as the Reserve Bank of India Act, 1934 :—

Whereas it is expedient to constitute a Reserve Bank for India to regulate the issue of bank notes and the keeping of reserves with a view to securing monetary stability in British India and generally to operate the currency and credit system of the country to its advantage ;

And whereas in the present disorganisation of the monetary systems of the world it is not possible to determine what will be suitable as a permanent basis for the Indian monetary system ;

But whereas it is expedient to make temporary provision on the basis of the existing monetary system, and to leave the question of the monetary standard best suited to India to be considered when the international monetary position has become sufficiently clear and stable to make it possible to frame permanent measures;

It is hereby enacted as follows :—

(1) A Bank to be called the Reserve Bank of India shall be constituted for the purposes of taking over the management of the currency from the Governor-General in Council and of carrying on the business of banking in accordance with the provisions of this Act.

(2) The Bank shall be a body corporate by the name of the Reserve Bank of India, having perpetual succession and a common seal, and shall by the said name sue and be sued.

Share Capital.—(1) The original share capital of the Bank shall be five crores of rupees divided into shares of one hundred rupees each, which shall be fully paid up.

(2) Separate registers of shareholders shall be maintained at Bombay, Calcutta, Delhi, Madras and Rangoon, and a separate issue of shares shall be made in each of the areas served by those registers, as defined in the First Schedule, and shares shall be transferable from one register to another.

(3) A shareholder shall be qualified to be registered as such in any area in which he is ordinarily resident or has his principal place of business in India, but no person shall be registered as a shareholder in more than one register ; and no person who is not—

(*a*) domiciled in India and either an Indian subject of His Majesty, or a subject of a State in India, or

(*b*) a British subject ordinarily resident in India and domiciled in the United Kingdom or in any part of His Majesty's Dominions the government of which does not discriminate in any way against Indian subjects of His Majesty, or

(*c*) a company registered under the Indian Companies Act, 1913, or a society registered under the Co-operative Societies Act, 1912, or any other law for the time being in force in British India relating to co-operative societies or a scheduled bank, or a corporation or company incorporated by or under an Act of Parliament or any law for the time being in force in any part of His Majesty's Dominions the

government of which does not discriminate in any way against Indian subjects of His Majesty, and having a branch in British India,

shall be registered as a shareholder or be entitled to payment of any dividend on any share, and no person, who, having been duly registered as a shareholder, ceases to be qualified to be so registered, shall be able to exercise any of the rights of a shareholder otherwise than for the purpose of the sale of his shares.

(4) The Governor-General in Council shall, by notification in the Gazette of India, specify the parts of His Majesty's Dominions which shall be deemed for the purposes of clauses (*b*) and (*c*) of sub-section (3) to be the parts of His Majesty's Dominions in which no discrimination against Indian subjects of His Majesty exists.

(5) The nominal value of the shares originally assigned to the various registers shall be as follows, namely :—

(*a*) to the Bombay register—one hundred and fory lakhs of rupees ;

(*b*) to the Calcutta register—one hundred and forty-five lakhs of rupees ;

(*c*) to the Delhi register—one hundred and fifteen lakhs of rupees.

(*d*) to the Madras register—seventy lakhs of rupees.

(*e*) to the Rangoon register—thirty lakhs of rupees :

Provided that if at the first allotment the total nominal value of the shares on the Delhi register for which applications are received is less than one hundred and fifteen lakhs of rupees, the Central Board shall, before proceeding to any allotment, transfer any shares not applied for up to a maximum nominal value of thirty-five lakhs of rupees from that register in two equal portions to the Bombay and the Calcutta register.

A Committee consisting of two elected members of the Assembly and one elected member of the Council of State to be elected by non-official members of the respective Houses shall be associated with the Central Board for the purpose of making public issue of shares and looking after the first allotment of shares.

(6) In allotting the shares assigned to a register, the Central Board shall, in the first instance, allot five shares to each qualified applicant who has applied for five or more shares ; and, if the number of such applicants is greater than one-fifth of the total number of shares assigned to the register, shall determine by lot the applicants to whom the shares shall be allotted.

(7) If the number of such applicants is less than one-fifth of the number of shares assigned to the register, the Central Board shall allot the remaining shares firstly, up to the limit of one-half of such remaining shares, to those applicants who have applied for less than five shares, and thereafter as to the balance to the various applicants in such manner as it may deem fair and equitable, having regard to the desirability of distributing the shares and the voting rights attached to them as widely as possible.

(8) Notwithstanding anything contained in sub-sections (6) and (7), the Central Board shall reserve for and allot to Government shares of the nominal value of two lakhs and twenty thousand rupees to be held by Government for disposal at par to Directors seeking to obtain the minimum share qualification required under sub-section (2) of section 11.

(9) If, after all applications have been met in accordance with the provisions of sub-sections (6), (7) and (8), any shares remain unallotted, they shall, notwithstanding anything contained in this section, be allotted to and taken up by Government, and shall be sold by the Governor General in Council as soon as may be, at not less than par, to residents of the areas served by the register concerned.

(10) The Governor General in Council shall have no right to exercise any vote under this Act by reason of any shares allotted to him under sub-section (8) or under sub-section (9).

(11) A Director shall not dispose of any shares obtained from Government under the provisions of sub-section (8) otherwise than by re-sale to Government at par, and Government shall be entitled to re-purchase at par all such shares held by any Director on his ceasing from any cause to hold office as Director.

Increase and reduction of share capital —(1) The share capital of the Bank may be increased or reduced on the recommendation of the Central Board, with the previous sanction of the Governor General in Councill and with the approval of the Central Legislature, to such extent and in such manner as may be determined by the Bank in General meeting.

(2) The additional shares so created shall be of the nominal value of one hundred rupees each and shall be assigned to the various registers in the same proportions as the shares constituting the original share capital.

(3) Such additional shares shall be fully paid up, and the price at which they may be issued shall be fixed by the Central Board with the previous sanction of the Governor General in Council.

(4) The provisions of section 4 relating to the manner of allotment of the shares constituting the original share capital shall apply to the allotment of such additional shares, and existing shareholders shall not enjoy any preferential right to the allotment of such additional shares.

The Bank shall, as soon as may be, establish offices in Bombay, Calcutta, Delhi, Madras and Rangoon and a branch in London, and may establish branches or agencies in any other place in India or, with the previous sanction of the Governor General in Council, elsewhere.

The general superintendence and direction of the affairs and business of the Bank shall be entrusted to a Central Board of Directors which may exercise all powers and do all acts and things which may be exercised or done by the Bank and are not by this Act expressly directed or required to be done by the Bank in general meeting.

(1) The Central Board shall consist of the following Directors, namely :—

(*a*) a Governor and two Deputy Governors, to be appointed by the Governor General in Council after consideration of the recommendations made by the Board in that behalf.

(*b*) four Directors to be nominated by the Governor General in Council.

(*c*) eight Directors to be elected on behalf of the shareholders on the various registers, in the manner provided in section 9 and in the following numbers, namely :—

(*i*) for the Bombay register—two Directors ;
(*ii*) for the Calcutta register—two Directors :

(*iii*) for the Delhi register—two Directors ;
(*iv*) for the Madras register—one Director :
(*v*) for the Rangoon register—one Director, and

(*d*) one government official to be nominated by the Governor General in Council.

(2) The Governor and Deputy Governors shall devote their whole time to the affairs of the Bank, and shall receive such salaries and allowances as may be determined by the Central Board, with the approval of the Governor General in Council.

(3) A Deputy Governor and the Director nominated under clause (*d*) of sub-section (1) may attend any meeting of the Central Board and take part in its deliberations but shall not be entitled to vote.

Provided that when the Governor is absent a Deputy Governor authorized by him in this behalf in writing may vote for him.

(4) The Governor and a Deputy Governor shall hold office for such term not exceeding five years as the Governor General in Council may fix when appointing them, and shall be eligible for re-appointment.

A Director nominated under clause (*b*) or elected under clause (*c*) of sub-section (1) shall hold office for five years, or thereafter until his successor, shall have been duly nominated or elected, and, subject to the provisions of section 10, shall be eligible for re-nomination or re-election.

A Director nominated under clause (*d*) of sub-section (1) shall hold office during the pleasure of the Governor General in Council.

(5) No act or proceeding of the Board shall be questioned on the ground merely of the existence of any vacancy in, or any defect in the constitution of, the Board.

Local Boards.—(1) Local Board shall be constituted for each of the five areas specified in the First Schedule, and shall consist of—

(*a*) five members elected from amongst themselves by the shareholders who are registered on the register for that area and are qualified to vote, and

(*b*) not more than three members nominated by the Central Board from amongst the shareholders registered on the register for that area, who may be nominated at any time.

Provided that the Central Board shall in exercising this power of nomination aim at securing the representation of territorial or economic interests not already represented, and in particular the representation of agricultural interests and the interests of co-operative banks.

(2) At an election of members of a Local Board for any area, any shareholder who has been registered on the register for that area, for a period of not less than six months ending with the date of the election, as holding five shares shall have one vote, and each shareholder so registered as having more than five shares shall have one vote for each five shares, but subject to a maximum of ten votes, and such votes may be exercised by proxy appointed on each occasion for that purpose, such proxy being himself a shareholder entitled to vote at the election and not being an employee of the Bank.

(3) The members of a Local Board shall hold office until they vacate it under sub-section (6) and, subject to the provisions of section 10, shall be eligible for re-election or re-nomination, as the case may be.

(4) At any time within three months of the day on which the Directors representing the shareholders on any register are due to retire under the provisions of this Act, the Central Board shall direct an election to be held of members of the Local Board concerned, and shall specify a date from which the registration of transfer from and to the register shall be suspended until the election has taken place.

(5) On the issue of such direction the Local Board shall give notice of the date of the election and shall publish a list of shareholders holding five or more shares, with the dates on which their shares were registered, and with their registered addresses, and such list shall be available for purchase not less than three weeks before the date fixed for the election.

(6) The names of the persons elected shall be notified to the Central Board which shall thereupon proceed to make any nominations permitted by clause (*b*) of sub-section (1) it may then decide to make, and shall fix the date on which the outgoing members of the Local Board shall vacate office, and the incoming members shall be deemed to have assumed office on that date.

(7) The elected members of a Local Board shall, as soon as may be after they have been elected, elect from amongst themselves one or two persons, as the case may be, to be Directors representing to the shareholders on the register for the area for which the Board is constituted.

(8) A Local Board shall advise the Central Board on such matters as may be generally or specifically referred to it and shall perform such duties as the Board may, by regulations, delegate to it.

(1) No person may be a Director or a member of a Local Board who—

(*a*) is a salaried government official or a salaried official of a State in India, or

(*b*) is, or at any time has been, adjudicated an insolvent, or has suspended payment or has compounded with his creditors, or

(*c*) is found lunatic or becomes of unsound mind, or

(*d*) is an officer or employee of any bank, or

(*e*) is a director of any bank, other than a bank which is a society registered or deemed to be registered under the Co-operative Societies Act, 1912, or any other law for the time being in force in British India relating to co-operative societies.

(2) No two persons who are partners of the same mercantile firm, or are directors of the same private company, or one of whom is the general agent of or holds a power of procuration from the other, or from a mercantile firm of which the other is a partner, may be Directors or members of the same Local Board at the same time.

(3) Nothing in clause (*a*), clause (*d*) or clause (*e*) of sub-section (1) shall apply to the Governor, or to a Deputy Governor or to the Director nominated under clause (*d*) of sub-section (1) of section 8.

(1) The Governor General in Council may remove from office the Governor, or a Deputy Governor or any nominated or elected Director.

Provided that in the case of a Director nominated or elected under clause (*b*) or clause (*c*) of sub-section (1) of section 8 this power shall be exercised only on a resolution passed by the Central Board in that behalf by a majority consisting of not less than nine Directors.

(2) A Director nominated or elected under clause (*b*) or clause (*c*) of sub-section (1) of section 8, and any member of a Local Board shall cease to hold office if, at any time after six months from the date of his nomination or election, he is not registered as a holder of unencumbered shares of the Bank of a nominal value of not less than five thousand rupees, or if he ceases to hold unencumbered shares of that value, and any such Director shall cease to hold office if without leave from the Governor General in Council he absents himself from three consecutive meetings of the Central Board convened under sub-section (1) of section 13.

(3) The Governor General in council shall remove from office any Director, and the Central Board shall remove from office any member of a Local Board, if such Director or member becomes subject to any of the disqualifications specified in sub-section (1) or sub-section (2) of section 10.

(4) A Director or member of a Local Board removed or ceasing to h ld office under the foregoing sub-sections shall not be eligible for re-appointment either as Director or as member of a Local Board until the expiry of the term for which his appointment was made.

(5) The appointment, nomination or election as Director or member of a Local Board of any person who is a member of the Indian Legislature or of a local Legislature shall be void, unless, within two months of the date of his appointment, nomination or election, he ceases to such member, and, if any Director or member of a Local Board is elected or nominated as a member of any such Legislature, he shall cease to be a Director or member of the Local Board as from the date of such election or nomination, as the case may be.

(6) A Director may resign his office to the Governor General in Council, and a member of a Local Board may resign his office to the Central Board, and on the acceptance of the resignation the office shall become vacant.

(1) If the Governor or a Deputy Governor by infirmity or otherwise is rendered incapable of executing his duties or is absent on leave or otherwise in circumstances not involving the vacation of his appointment, the Governor General in Council may, after consideration of the recommendations made by the Central Board in this behalf, appoint another person to officiate for him, and such person may, notwithstanding anything contained in clause (*d*) of sub-section (1) of section 10, be an officer of the Bank.

(2) If an elected Director is for any reason unable to attend a particular meeting of the Central Board, the elected members of the Local Board of the area which he represents may elect one of their number to take his place, and for the purposes of that meeting the substitute so elected shall have all the powers of the absent Director.

(3) Where any casual vacancy in the office of any member of a Local Board occurs otherwise than by the occurrence of a vacancy in the office of a Director elected by the Local Board, the Central Board may nominate thereto any qualified person recommended by the electe-: members of the Local Board.

(4) Where any casual vacancy occurs in the office of a Director other than the vacancies provided for in sub-section (1), the vacancy shall be filled, in the case of a nominated Director by nomination, and in the case of an elected Director by election held in the manner provided in section 9 for the election of Directors:

Provided that before such election is made the resulting vacancy, if any, in the Local Board and any vacancy in the office of an elected member of such Board which may have been filled by a member nominated under sub-section (3) shall be filled by election held as nearly as may be in the manner provided in section 9 for the election of members of a Local Board.

(5) A person nominated or elected under this section to fill a casual vacancy shall, subject to the proviso contained in sub-section (4), hold office for the unexpired portion of the term of his predecessor.

(1) Meetings of the Central Board shall be convened by the Governor at least six times in each year and at least once in each quarter.

(2) Any three Directors may require the Governor to convene a meeting of the Central Board at any time and the Governor shall forthwith convene a meeting accordingly.

(3) The Governor, or in his absence the Deputy Governor authorized by the Governor under the proviso to sub-section (3) of section 8 to vote for him, shall preside at meetings of the Central Board, and, in the event of an equality of votes, shall have a second or casting vote.

General Meetings.—(1) A general meeting (hereinafter in this Act referred to as the annual general meeting) shall be held annually at a place where there is an office of the Bank within six weeks from the date on which the annual accounts of the Bank are closed, and a general meeting may be convened by the Central Board at any other time:

Provided that the annual general meeting shall not be held on two consecutive occasions at any one place.

(2) The shareholders present at a general-meeting shall be entitled to discuss the annual accounts, the report of the Central Board on the working of the Bank throughout the year and the auditors' report on the annual balance-sheet and accounts.

(3) Every shareholder shall be entitled to attend at any general meeting and each shareholder who has been registered on any register, for a period of not less than six months ending with the date of the meeting, as holding five or more shares shall have one vote and on a poll being demanded each shareholder so registered shall have one vote for each five shares, but subject to a maximum of ten votes and such votes may be exercised by proxy appointed on each occasion for that purpose, such proxy being himself a shareholder entitled to vote at the election and not being an officer or employee of the Bank.

(1) The following provisions shall apply to the first constitution of the Central Board, and, notwithstanding anything contained in section 8, the Central Board as constituted in accordance therewith shall be deemed to be duly constituted in accordance with this Act.

(2) The first Governor and the first Deputy Governor or Deputy Governors shall be appointed by the Governor General in Council on his own initiative, and shall receive such salaries and allowances as he may determine.

(3) The first eight Directors representing the shareholders on the various registers shall be nominated by the Governor General in Council from the areas served respectively by those registers, and the Directors so nominated shall hold office until their successors shall have been duly elected as provided in sub-section (4).

(4) On the expiry of each successive period of twelve months after the nomination of Directors under sub-section (3) two Directors shall be elected in the manner provided in section 9 until all the Directors so nominated have been replaced by elected Directors holding office in accordance with section 8. The register in respect of which the election is to be held shall be selected by lot from among the registers still represented by nominated Directors, and for the purposes of such lot the Madras and Rangoon registers shall be treated as if they comprised one register only.

As soon as may be after the commencement of this Act, the Central Board shall direct elections to be held and may make nominations, in order to constitute Local Boards in accordance with the provisions of section 9, and the members of such Local Boards shall hold office up to the date fixed under sub-section (6) of section 9, but shall not exercise any right under sub-section (7) of that section.

Business.—The Bank shall be authorized to carry on and transact the several kinds of business hereinafter specified, namely:—

(1) the accepting of money on deposit without interest from, and the collection of money for, the Secretary of State in Council, the Governor General in Council, Local Governments, States in India, local authorities, banks and any other persons;

(2) (*a*) the purchase, sale and rediscount of bills of exchange and promissory notes, drawn on and payable in India and arising out of *bona fide* commercial or trade transactions bearing two or more good signatures, one of which shall be that of a scheduled bank, and maturing within ninety days from the date of such purchase or rediscount, exclusive of days of grace;

(*b*) the purchase, sale and rediscount of bills of exchange and promissory notes, drawn and payable in India and bearing two or more good signatures, one of which shall be that of a scheduled bank, or a provincial co-operative bank, and drawn or issued for the purpose of financing seasonal agricultural operations or the marketing of crops, and maturing within nine months from the date of such purchase or rediscount, exclusive of days of grace;

(*c*) the purchase, sale and rediscount of bills of exchange and promissory notes drawn and payable in India and bearing the signature of a scheduled bank, and issued or drawn for the purpose of holding or trading in securities of the Government of India or a Local Government, or such securities of States in India as may be specified in this behalf by the Governor General in Council on the recommendation of the Central Board, and maturing within ninety days from the date of such purchase or rediscount, exclusive of days of grace;

(3) (*a*) the purchase from and sale to scheduled banks of sterling in amounts of not less than the equivalent of one lakh of rupees;

(*b*) the purchase, sale and rediscount of bills of exchange (including treasury bills) drawn in or on any place in the United Kingdom and maturing within ninety days from the date of purchase, provided that no such purchase, sale or rediscount shall be made in India except with a scheduled bank; and

(*c*) the keeping of balances with banks in the United Kingdom;

(4) the making to States in India, local authorities, scheduled banks and provincial co-operative banks of loans and advances, repayable on demand or on the expiry of fixed periods not exceeding ninety days, against the security of—

(*a*) stocks, funds and securities (other than immovable property) in which a trustee is authorized to invest trust money by any Act of Parliament or by any law for the time being in force in British India;

(*b*) gold or silver or documents of title to the same ;

(*c*) such bills of exchange and promissory notes as are eligible for purchase or rediscount by the Bank ;

(*d*) promissory notes of any scheduled bank or a provincial co-operative bank, supported by documents of title to goods which have been transferred, assigned, or pledged to any such bank as security for a cash credit or overdraft granted for *bona fide* commercial or trade transactions, or for the purpose of financing seasonal agricultural operations or the marketing of crops ;

(5) the making to the Governor General in Council and to such Local Governments as may have the custody and management of their own provincial revenues of advances repayable in each case not later than three months from the date of the making of the advance ;

(6) the issue of demand drafts made payable at its own offices or agencies and the making, issue and circulation of bank post bills ;

(7) the purchase and sale of Government securities of the United Kingdom maturing within ten years from the date of such purchase;

(8) the purchase and sale of securities of the Government of India or of a Local Government of any maturity or of such securities of a local authority in British India or of such States in India as may be specified in this behalf by the Governor General in Council on the recommendation of the Central Board :

Provided that securities fully guaranteed as to principal and interest by the Government of India, a Local Government, a local authority or a State in India shall be deemed for the purposes of this clause to be securities of such Government, authority or State ;

Provided further that the amount of such securities held at any time in the Banking Department shall be so regulated that—

(*a*) the total value of such securities shall not exceed the aggregate amount of the share capital of the Bank, the Reserve Fund and three-fifths of the liabilities of the Banking Department in respect of deposits;

(*b*) the value of such securities maturing after one year shall not exceed the aggregate amount of the share capital of the Bank, the Reserve Fund and two-fifths of the liabilities of the Banking Department in respect of deposits ; and

(*c*) the value of such securities maturing after ten years shall not exceed the aggregate amount of the share capital of the Bank and the Reserve Fund and one-fifth of the liabilities of the Banking Department in respect of deposits ;

(9) The custody of monies, securities and other articles of value, and the collection of the proceeds, whether principal, interest or dividends, of any such securities ;

(10) the sale and realisation of all property, whether movable or immovable, which may in any way come into the possession of the Bank in satisfaction, or part satisfaction, of any of its claims ;

(11) the acting as agent for the Secretary of State in Council, the Governor General in Council or any Local Government or local authority of State in India in the transaction of any of the following kinds of business, namely :—

(*a*) the purchase and sale of gold or silver ;

(*b*) the purchase, sale, transfer and custody of bills of exchange, securities or shares in any company ;

(*c*) the collection of the proceeds, whether principal, interest or dividends, of any securities or shares ;

(*d*) the remittance of such proceeds, at the risk of the principal, by bills of exchange payable either in India or elsewhere ;

(*e*) the management of public debt ;

(12) the purchase and sale of gold coin and bullion ;

(13) the opening of an account with or the making of an agency agreement with, and the acting as agent or correspondent of, a bank which is the principal currency authority of any country under the law for the time being in force in that country or any international bank formed by such banks, and the investing of the funds of the Bank in the shares of any such international bank ;

(14) the borrowing of money for a period not exceeding one month for the purposes of the business of the Bank, and the giving of security for money so borrowed ;

Provided that no money shall be borrowed under this clause from any person in India other than a schedule bank, or from any person outside India other than a bank which is the principal currency authority of any country under the law for the time being in force in that country:

Provided further that the total amount of such borrowings from persons in India shal not at any time exceed the amount of the share capital of the Bank ;

(15) the making and issue of bank notes subject to the provision of this Act ; and ;

(16) generally, the doing of all such matters and things as may be incidental to or consequential upon the exercise of its powers or the discharge of its duties under this Act.

When, in the opinion of the Central Board or, where the powers and functions of the Central Board under this section have been delegated to a committee of the Central Board or to the Governor, in the opinion of such committee or of the Governor as the case may be, a special occasion has arisen making it necessary or expedient that action should be taken under this section for the purpose of regulating credit in the interests of Indian trade, commerce, industry and agriculture, the Bank may, notwithstanding any limitation contained in sub-clauses (*a*) and (*b*) of clause (2) or sub-clause (*a*) or (*b*) of clause (3) or clause (4) of section 17.—

(1) purchase, sell or discount any of the bills of exchange or promissory notes specified in sub-clause (*a*) or (*b*) of clause (2) or sub-clause (*b*) of clause (3) of that section though such bill or promissory note does not bear the signature of a scheduled bank or a provincial co-operative bank; or

(2) purchase or sell sterling in amounts of not less than the equivalent of one lakh of rupees; or

(3) make loans or advances repayable on demand or on the expiry of fixed periods not exceeding ninety days against the various forms of security specified in clause (4) of that section:

Provided that a committee of the Board or the Governor shall not, save in cases of special urgency, authorized action under this section without prior consultation with the Central Board and that in all cases action so authorized shall be reported to the members of the Central Board forthwith.

Forbidden Business.—Save as otherwise provided in sections 17, 18 and 45, the Bank may not

(1) engage in trade or otherwise have a direct interest in any commercial, industrial or other undertaking, except such interest as it may in any way acquire in the course of the satisfaction of any of its claims; provided that all such interests shall be disposed of at the earliest possible moment;

(2) purchase its own shares or the shares of any other bank or of any company, or grant loans upon the security of any such shares;

(3) advance money on mortgage of, or otherwise on the security of, immovable property or documents of title relating thereto, or become the owner of immovable property, except so far as is necessary for its own business premises and residences for its officers and servants;

(4) make loans or advances;

(5) draw or accept bills payable otherwise than on demand;

(6) allow interest on deposits or current accounts;

Central Banking Functions.

The Bank shall undertake to accept monies for account of the Secretary of State in Council and the Governor General in Council and such Local Governments as may have the custody and management of their own provincial revenues and such States in India as may be approved of and notified by the Governor General in Council in the Gazette of India, and to make payments up to the amount standing to the credit of their accounts respectively, and to carry out their exchange, remittance and other banking operations, including the management of the public debt.

(1) The Governor General in Council and such Local Governments as may have the custody and management of their own provincial revenues shall entrust the Bank, on such conditions as may be agreed upon, with all their money, remittance, exchange and banking transactions in India and, in particular, shall deposit free of interest all their cash balances with the Bank:

Provided that nothing in this sub-section shall prevent the Governor General in Council or any Local Government from carrying on money transactions at places where the Bank has no branches or agencies, and the Governor General in Council and Local Governments may hold at such places such balances as they may require.

(2) The Governor General in Council and each Local Government shall entrust the Bank on such conditions as may be agreed upon, with the management of the public debt and with the issue of any new loans.

(3) In the event of any failure to reach agreement on the conditions referred to in this section the Governor General in Council shall decide what the conditions shall be.

(4) Any agreement made under this section to which the Governor General in Council or any Local Government is a party shall be laid, as soon as may be after it is made, before the Central Legislature and in the case of a Local Government before its local Legislature also.

Bank Notes.—(1) The Bank shall have the sole right to issue bank notes in British India, and may, for a period which shall be fixed by the Governor General in Council on the recommendation of the Central Board, issue currency notes of the Government of India supplied to it by the Governor General in Council, and the provisions of this Act applicable to bank notes shall, unless a contrary intention appears, apply to all currency notes of the Government of India issued either by the Governor General in Council or by the Bank in like manner as if such currency notes were bank notes, and references in this Act to bank notes shall be construed accordingly.

(2) On and from the date on which this Chapter comes into force the Governor General in Council shall not issue any currency notes.

Issue Department.—(1) The issue of bank notes shall be conducted by the Bank in an Issue Department which shall be separated and kept wholly distinct from the Banking Department, and the assets of the Issue Department shall not be subject to any liability other than the liabilities of the Issue Department as hereinafter defined in section 34.

(2) The Issue Department shall not issue bank notes to the Banking Department or to any other person except in exchange for other bank notes or for such coin, bullion or securities as are permitted by this Act to form part of the Reserve.

Bank notes shall be of the denominational values of five rupees, ten rupees, fifty rupees, one hundred rupees, five hundred rupees, one thousand rupees and ten thousand rupees, unless otherwise directed by the Governor General in Council on the recommendation of the Central Board.

The design, form and material of bank notes shall be such as may be approved by the Governor General in Council after consideration of the recommendations made by the Central Board.

(1) Subject to the provisions of sub-section (2), every bank note shall be legal tender at any place in British India in payment or on account for the amount expressed therein, and shall be guaranteed by the Governor General in Council.

(2) On recommendation of the Central Board the Governor General in Council may, by notification in the Gazette of India, declare that with effect from such date as may be specified in the notification, any series of bank notes of any denomination shall cease to be legal tender save at an office or agency of the Bank.

The Bank shall not re-issue bank notes which are torn, defaced or excessively soiled.

Notwithstanding anything contained in any enactment or rule of law to the contrary, no person shall of right be entitled to recover from the Governor General in Council or the Bank the value of any lost, stolen, mutilated or imperfect currency note of the Government of India or bank note:

Provided that the Bank may, with the previous sanction of the Governor General in Council prescribe the circumstances in and the conditions and limitations subject to which the value of such currency notes or bank notes may be refunded as of grace and the rules made under this proviso shall be laid on the table of both Houses of the Central Legislature.

The Bank shall not be liable to the payment of any stamp duty under the Indian Stamp Act, 1899, in respect of bank notes issued by it.

(1) If in the opinion of the Governor General in Council the Bank fails to carry out any of the obligations imposed on it by or under this Act, he may, by notification in the Gazette of India, declare the Central Board to be superseded, and thereafter the general superintendence and direction of the affairs of the Bank shall be entrusted to such agency as the Governor General in Council may determine, and such agency may exercise the powers and do all acts and things which may be exercised or done by the Central Board under this Act.

(2) When action is taken under this section the Governor General in Council shall cause a full report of the circumstances leading to such action and of the action taken to be laid before the Central Legislature at the earliest possible opportunity and in any case within three months from the issue of the notification superseding the Board.

No person in British India other than the Bank or, as expressly authorized by this Act, the Governor General in Council shall draw, accept, make or issue any bill of exchange, hundi, promissory note or engagement for the payment of money payable to bearer on demand or borrow, owe or take up any sum or sums of money on the bills, hundis or notes payable to bearer on demand of any such person:

Provided that cheques or drafts, including hundis, payable to bearer on demand or otherwise may be drawn on a person's account with a banker, shroff or agent.

(1) Any person contravening the provisions of section 31 shall be punishable with fine which may extend to the amount of the bill, hundi, note or engagement in respect whereof the offence is committed.

(2) No prosecution under this section shall be instituted except on complaint made by the Bank.

Assets of the Issue Department.

(1) The assets of the Issue Department shall consist of gold coin, gold bullion, sterling securities, rupee coin and rupee securities to such aggregate amount as is not less than the total of the liabilities of the Issue Department as hereinafter defined.

(2) Of the total amount of the assets, not less than two-fifths shall consist of gold coin, gold bullion or sterling securities:

Provided that the amount of gold coin and gold bullion shall not at any time be less than forty crores of rupees in value.

(3) The remainder of the assets shall be held in rupee coin, Government of India rupee securities of any maturity and such bills of exchange and promissory notes payable in British India as are eligible for purchase by the Bank under sub-clause (*a*) or sub-clause (*b*) of clause (2) of section 17 or under clause (1) of section 18:

Provided that the amount held in Government of India rupee securities shall not at any time exceed one-fourth of the total amount of the assets or fifty crores of rupees, whichever amount is greater, or, with the previous sanction of the Governor General in Council, such amount plus a sum of ten crores of rupees.

(4) For the purposes of this section, gold coin and gold bullion shall be valued at 8.47512 grains of fine gold per rupee, rupee coin shall be valued at its face value, and securities shall be valued at the market rate for the time being obtaining.

(5) Of the gold coin and gold bullion held as assets, not less than seventeen-twentieths shall be held in British India, and all gold coin and gold bullion held as assets shall be held in the custody of the Bank or its agencies:

Provided that gold belonging to the Bank which is in any other bank or in any mint or treasury or in transit may be reckoned as part of the assets.

(6) For the purposes of this section, the sterling securites which may be held as part of the assets shall be securities of any of the following kinds payable in the currency of the United Kingdom, namely:—

(*a*) balances at the credit of the Issue Department with the Bank of England;

(*b*) bills of exchange bearing two or more good signatures and drawn on and payable at any place in the United Kingdom and having a maturity not exceeding ninety days;

(*c*) government securities of the United Kingdom maturing within five years:

Provided that, for a period of two years from the date on which this Chapter comes into force, any of such last mentioned securities may be securities maturing after five years, and the Bank may, at any time before the expiry of that period, dispose of such securities notwithstanding anything contained in section 17.

Liabilities of the Issue Department.—(1) The liabilities of the Issue Department shall be an amount equal to the total of the amount of the currency notes of the Government of India and bank notes for the time being in circulation.

(2) For the purposes of this section any currency note of the Government of India or bank note which has not been presented for payment within forty years from the 1st day of April following the date of its issue shall be deemed not to be in circulation, and the value thereof shall, notwithstanding anything contained in sub-section (2) of section 23, be paid by the Issue Department to the Governor General in Council or the Banking Department, as the case may be ; but any such note, if subsequently presented for payment, shall be paid by the Banking Department, and any such payment in the case of a currency note of the Government of India shall be debited to the Governor General in Council.

On the date on which this Chapter comes into force the Issue Department shall take over from the Governor General in Council the liability for all the currency notes of the Government of India for the time being in circulation and the Governor General in Council shall transfer to the Issue Department gold coin, gold bullion, sterling securities, rupee coin and rupee securities to such aggregate amount as is equal to the total of the amount of the liability so transferred. The coin, bullion and securities shall be transferred in such proportion as to comply with the requirements of section 33 :

Provided that the total amount of the gold coin, gold bullion and sterling securities so transferred shall not be less than one-half of the whole amount transferred, and that the amount of rupee coin so transferred shall not exceed fifty crores of rupees :

Provided further that the whole of the gold coin and gold bullion held by the Governor General in Council in the gold standard reserve and the paper currency reserve at the time of transfer shall be so transferred.

(1) After the close of any financial year in which the minimum amount of rupee coin held in the assets, as shown in any of the weekly accounts of the Issue Department for that year prescribed under sub-section (1) of section 53, is greater than fifty crores of rupees or one-sixth of the total amount of the assets as shown in that account, whichever may be the greater the Bank may deliver to the Governor General in Council rupee coin up to the amount of such excess but not without his consent exceeding five crores of rupees, against payment of legal tender value in the form of bank notes, gold or securities :

Provided that if the Bank so desires and if the amount of gold coin, gold bullion and sterling securities in the assets does not at that time exceed one-half of the total assets, a proportion not exceeding two-fifths of such payment shall be in gold coin, gold bullion or such sterling securities as may be held as part of the assets under sub-section (6) of section 33.

(2) After the close of any financial year in which the maximum amount of rupee coin held in the assets, as so shown, is less than fifty crores of rupees or one-sixth of the total amount of the assets, as so shown, whichever may be the greater the Governor General in Council shall deliver to the Bank rupee coin up to the amount of such deficiency, but not without its consent exceeding five crores of rupees, against payment of legal tender value.

(1) Notwithstanding anything contained in the foregoing provisions, the Bank may, with the previous sanction of the Governor General in Council, for periods not exceeding thirty days in the first instance, which may, with the like sanction, be extended from time to time by periods not exceeding fifteen days, hold as assets gold coin, gold bullion or sterling securities of less aggregate amount than that required by sub-section (2) of section 33 and, whilst the holding is so reduced, the proviso to that sub-section shall cease to be operative :

Provided that the gold coin and gold bullion held as such assets shall not be reduced below the amount specified in the proviso to sub-section (2) of section 33 so long as any sterling securities remain held as such assets.

(2) In respect of any period during which the holding of gold coin, gold bullion and sterling securities is reduced under sub-section (1), the Bank shall pay to the Governor General in Council a tax upon the amount by which such holding is reduced below the minimum "prescribed by sub-section (2) of section 33 ; and such tax shall be payable at the bank rate for the time being in force, with an addition of one per cent. per annum when such holding exceeds thirty-two and a half per cent. of the total amount of the assets and of a further one and a half per cent. per annum in respect of every further decrease, of two and a half per cent. or part of such decrease :

Provided that the tax shall not in any event be payable at a rate less than six per cent. per annum.

The Governor General in Council shall undertake not to re-issue any rupee coin delivered under section 36 nor to put into circulation any rupees, except through the Bank and as provided in that section ; and the Bank shall undertake not to dispose of rupee coin otherwise than for the purposes of circulation or by delivery to the Governor General in Council under that section.

(1) The Bank shall issue rupee coin on demand in exchange for bank notes and currency notes of the Government of India, and shall issue currency notes or bank notes on demand in exchange for coin which is legal tender under the Indian Coinage Act, 1906.

(2) The Bank shall, in exchange for currency notes or bank notes of five rupees or upwards, supply currency notes or bank notes of lower value or other coins which are legal tender under

the Indian Coinage Act, 1906, in such quantities as may, in the opinion of the Bank, be required for circulation; and the Governor General in Council shall supply such coins to the Bank on demand. If the Governor General in Council at any time fails to supply such coins, the Bank shall be released from its obligations to supply them to the public.

Obligation to sell sterling.—The Bank shall sell, to any person who makes a demand in that behalf at its office in Bombay, Calcutta, Delhi, Madras or Rangoon and pays the purchase price in legal tender currency, sterling for immediate delivery in London, at a rate not below one shilling and five pence and forty-nine sixty-fourths of a penny for a rupee:

Provided that no person shall be entitled to demand to buy an amount of sterling less than ten thousand pounds.

Obligation to buy sterling.—The Bank shall buy, from any person who makes a demand in that behalf at its office in Bombay, Calcutta, Delhi, Madras or Rangoon, sterling for immediate delivery in London, at a rate not higher than one shilling and six pence and three-sixteenths of a penny for a rupee:

Provided that no person shall be entitled to demand to sell an amount of sterling less than ten thousand pounds:

Provided further that no person shall be entitled to receive payment unless the Bank is satisfied that payment of the sterling in London has been made.

Cash reserves of scheduled banks.—(1) Every bank included in the Second Schedule shall maintain with the Bank a balance the amount of which shall not at the close of business on any day be less than five per cent. of the demand liabilities and two per cent. of the time liabilities of such bank in India as shown in the return referred to in sub-section (2).

Explanation.—For the purposes of this section liabilities shall not include the paid-up capital or the reserves, or any credit balance in the profits and loss account of the bank or the amount of any loan taken from the Reserve Bank.

(2) Every scheduled bank shall send to the Governor General in Council and to the Bank a return signed by two responsible officers of such bank showing—

(*a*) the amounts of its demand and time liabilities, respectively, in India,

(*b*) the total amount held in India in currency notes of the Government of India and bank notes,

(*c*) the amounts held in India in rupee coin and subsidiary coin, respectively,

(*d*) the amounts of advances made and of bills discounted in India, respectively and

(*e*) the balance held at the Bank,

at the close of business on each Friday or if Friday is a public holiday under the Negotiable Instruments Act, 1881, at the close of business on the preceding working day; and such return shall be sent not later than two working days after the date to which it relates:

Provided that where the Bank is satisfied that the furnishing of a weeky return under this sub-section is impracticable in the case of any scheduled bank by reason of the geographical position of the bank and its branches, the Bank may require such bank to furnish in lieu of a weekly return a monthly return to be dispatched not later than fourteen days after the end of the month to which it relates giving the details specified in this sub-section in respect of such bank at the close of business for the month.

(3) If at the close of business on any day before the day fixed for the next return, the balance held at the Bank by any scheduled bank is below the minimum prescribed in sub-section (1), such scheduled bank shall be liable to pay to the Bank in respect of each such day penal interest at a rate three per cent. above the bank rate on the amount by which the balance with the Bank falls short of the prescribed minimum, and if on the day fixed for the next return such balance is still below the prescribed minimum as disclosed by this return, the rates of penal interest shall be increased to a rate five per cent. above the bank rate in respect of that day and each subsequent day on which the balance held at the Bank at the close of business on that day is below the prescribed minimum.

(4) Any scheduled bank failing to comply with the provisions of sub-section (2) shall be liable to pay to the Governor General in Council or to the Bank, as the case may be, or to each, a penalty of one hundred rupees for each day during which the failure continues.

(5) The penalties imposed by sub-sections (3) and (4) shall be payable on demand made by the Bank, and, in the event of a refusal by the defaulting bank to pay on such demand, may be levied by a direction of the principal Civil Court having jurisdiction in the area where an office of the defaulting bank is situated, such direction to be made only upon application made in this behalf to the Court by the Governor General in Council in the case of a failure to make a return under sub-section (2) to the Governor General in Council, or by the Bank with the previous sanction of the Governor General in Council in other cases.

(6) The Governor General in Council shall, by notification in the Gazette of India, direct the inclusion in the Second Schedule of any bank not already so included which carries on the business of banking in British India and which—

(*a*) has a paid-up capital and reserves of an aggregate value of not less than five lakhs of rupees, and

(*b*) is a company as defined in clause (2) of section 2 of the Indian Companies Act, 1913, or a corporation or a company incorporated by or under any law in force in any place outside British India,

and shall by a like notification direct the exclusion from that Schedule of any scheduled bank the aggregate value of whose paid-up

capital and reserve becomes at any time less than five lakhs of rupees, or which goes into liquidation or otherwise ceases to carry on banking business.

The Bank shall compile and shall cause to be published each week a consolidated statement showing the aggregate of the amounts under each clause of sub-section (2) of section 42 exhibited in the returns received from scheduled banks under that section.

The Bank may require any provincial co-operative bank with which it has any transactions under section 17 to furnish the return referred to in sub-section (2) of section 42, and if it does so, the provisions of sub-sections (4) and (5) of section 42 shall apply so far as may be to such co-operative bank as if it were a scheduled bank.

Agreement with the Imperial Bank—(1) The Bank shall enter into an agreement with the Imperial Bank of India which shall be subject to the approval of the Governor General in Council, and shall be expressed to come into force on the date on which this Chapter comes into force and to remain in force for fifteen years and thereafter until terminated after five years' notice on either side, and shall further contain the provisions set forth in the Third Schedule:

Provided that the agreement shall be conditional on the maintenance of a sound financial position by the Imperial Bank and that if, in the opinion of the Central Board, the Imperial Bank has failed either to fulfill the conditions of the Agreement or to maintain a sound financial position, the Central Board shall make a recommendation to the Governor General in Council, and the Governor General in Council, after making such further enquiry as he thinks fit, may issue instructions to the Imperial Bank with reference either to the agreement or to any matter which in his opinion involves the security of the Government monies or the assets of the Issue Department in the custody of the Imperial Bank, and in the event of the Imperial Bank disregarding such instructions may declare the agreement to be terminated.

(2) The agreement referred to in sub-section (1) shall, as soon as may be after it is made, be laid before the Central Legislature.

General Provisions.

The Governor General in Council shall transfer to the Bank rupee securities of the value of five crores of rupees to be allocated by the Bank to the Reserve Fund.

After making provision for bad and doubtful debts, depreciation in assets, contributions to staff and superannuation funds, and such other contingencies as are usually provided for by bankers, and after payment out of the net annual profits of a cumulative dividend at such rate not exceeding five per cent. per annum on the share capital as the Governor General in Council may fix at the time of the issue of shares, a portion of the surplus shall be allocated to the payment of an additional dividend to the shareholders calculated on the scale set forth in the Fourth Schedule and the balance of the surplus shall be paid to the Governor General in Council:

Provided that if at any time the Reserve Fund is less than the share capital, not less than fifty lakhs of rupees of the surplus, or the whole of the surplus if less than that amount shall be allocated to the Reserve Fund.

(1) Notwithstanding anything contained in the Indian Income-tax Act, 1922, or any other enactment for the time being in force relating to income-tax or super-tax, the Bank shall not be liable to pay income-tax or super-tax on any of its income, profits or gains:

Provided that nothing in this section shall affect the liability of any shareholder in respect of income-tax or super-tax.

(2) For the purposes of section 18 of the Indian Income-tax Act, 1922, and of any other relevant provision of that Act relating to the levy and refund of income-tax any dividend paid under section 47 of this Act shall be deemed to be "Interest on Securities."

The Bank shall make public from time to time the standard rate at which it is prepared to buy or re-discount bills of exchange or other commercial paper eligible for purchase under this Act.

(1) Not less than two auditors shall be elected and their remuneration fixed at the annual general meeting. The auditors may be shareholders, but no Director or other officer of the Bank shall be eligible during his continuance in office. Any auditor shall be eligible for re-election on quitting office.

(2) The first auditors of the Bank may be appointed by the Central Board before the first annual general meeting and, if so appointed, shall hold office only until that meeting. All auditors elected under this section shall severally be, and continue to act as, auditors until the first annual general meeting after their respective elections:

Provided that any casual vacancy in the office of any auditor elected under this section may be filled by the Central Board.

Without prejudice to anything contained in section 50, the Governor General in Council may at any time appoint the Auditor General or such auditors as he thinks fit to examine and report upon the accounts of the Bank.

Every auditor shall be supplied with a copy of the annual balance-sheet, and it shall be his duty to examine the same, together with the accounts and vouchers relating thereto; and every auditor shall have a list delivered to him of all books kept by the Bank, and shall at all reasonable times have access to the books, accounts and other documents of the Bank, and may, at the expense of the Bank if appointed by it or at the expense of the Governor General in Council if appointed by him, employ account-

ants or other persons to assist him in investigating such accounts, and may, in relation to such accounts, examine any Director or officer of the Bank.

(2) The auditors shall make a report to the shareholders or to the Governor General in Council, as the case may be, upon the annual balance-sheet and accounts, and in every such report they shall state whether, in their opinion, the balance-sheet is a full and fair balance-sheet containing all necessary particulars and properly drawn up so as to exhibit a true and correct view of the state of the Bank's affairs, and, in case they have called for any explanation or information from the Central Board, whether it has been given and whether it is satisfactory. Any such report made to the shareholders shall be read together with the report of the Central Board, at the annual general meeting.

Returns.—(1) The Bank shall prepare and transmit to the Governor General in Council a weekly account of the Issue Department and of the Banking Department in the form set out in the Fifth Schedule or in such other form as the Governor General in Council may, by notification in the Gazette of India, prescribe. The Governor General in Council shall cause these accounts to be published weekly in the Gazette of India.

(2) The Bank shall also, within two months from the date on which the annual accounts of the Bank are closed, transmit to the Governor General in Council a copy of the annual accounts signed by the Governor, the Deputy Governors and the Chief Accounting Officer of the Bank, and certified by the auditors, together with a report by the Central Board on the working of the Bank throughout the year, and the Governor General in Council shall cause such accounts and report to be published in the Gazette of India.

(3) The Bank shall also, within two months from the date on which the annual accounts of the Bank are closed, transmit to the Governor General in Council a statement showing the name, address and occupation of, and the number of shares held by, each shareholder of the Bank.

Agricultural Credit Department.—The Bank shall create a special Agricultural Credit Department the functions of which shall be—

(*a*) to maintain an expert staff to study all questions of agricultural credit and be available for consultation by the Governor General in Council, Local Governments, provincial co-operative banks, and other banking organisations.

(*b*) to co-ordinate the operations of the Bank in connection with agricultural credit and its relations with provincial co-operative banks and any other banks or organisations engaged in the business of agricultural credit.

(1) the Bank shall, at the earliest practicable date and in any case within three years from the date on which this Chapter comes into force, make to the Governor General in Council a report, with proposals, if it thinks fit, for legislation, on the following matters, namely:—

(*a*) the extension of the provisions of this Act relating to scheduled banks to persons and firms, not being scheduled banks, engaged in British India in the business of banking, and

(*b*) the improvement of the machinery for dealing with agricultural finance and methods for effecting a closer connection between agricultural enterprise and the operations of the Bank.

(2) When the Bank is of opinion that the international monetary position has become sufficiently clear and stable to make it possible to determine what will be suitable as a permanent basis for the Indian monetary system and to frame permanent measures for a monetary standard it shall report its views to the Governor General in Council.

(1) The Local Board of any area may at any time require any shareholder who is registered on the register for that area to furnish to the Local Board within a specified time, not being less than thirty days, a declaration, in such form as the Central Board may by regulations prescribe, giving particulars of all shares on the said register of which he is the owner.

(2) If it appears from such declaration that any shareholder is not the owner of any shares which are registered in his name, the Local Board may amend the register accordingly.

(3) If any person required to make a declaration under sub-section (1) fails to make such declaration within the specified time, the Local Board may make an entry against his name in the register recording such failure and directing that he shall have no right to vote, either under section 9 or section 14, by reason of the shares registered in his name on that register.

(4) Whoever makes a false statement in any declaration furnished by him under sub-section (1) shall be deemed to have committed the offence of giving false evidence defined in section 191 of the Indian Penal Code, and shall be punishable under the second paragraph of section 193 of that Code.

(5) Nothing contained in any declaration furnished under sub-section (1) shall operate to affect the Bank with notice of any trust, and no notice of any trust expressed, implied or constructive shall be entered on the register or be receivable by the Bank.

(6) Until Local Boards have been constituted under section 9 the powers of a Local Board under this section shall be exercised by the Central Board in respect of any area for which a Local Board has not been constituted.

(1) Nothing in the Indian Companies Act, 1913, shall apply to the Bank, and the Bank shall not be placed in liquidation save by order of the Governor General in Council and in such manner as he may direct.

(2) In such event the Reserve Fund and surplus assets, if any, of the Bank shall be divided between the Government in Council and the shareholders in the proportion of seventy-five per cent. and twenty-five per cent., respectively:

Provided that the total amount payable to any shareholder under this section shall not exceed the paid-up value of the shares held by him by more than one per cent. for each year after the commencement of this Act subject to a maximum of twenty-five per cent.

(1) The Central Board may, with the previous sanction of the Governor General in Council, make regulations consistent with this Act to provide for all matters for which provision is necessary or convenient for the purpose of giving effect to the provisions of this Act.

(2) In particular and without prejudice to the generality of the foregoing provision, such regulations may provide for all or any of the following matters, namely:—

(*a*) the holding and conduct of elections under this Act, including provisions for the holding of any elections according to the principle of proportional representation by means of the single transferable vote;

(*b*) the final decision of doubts or disputes regarding the qualifications of candidates for election or regarding the validity of elections;

(*c*) the maintenance of the share register, the manner in which and the conditions subject to which shares may be held and transferred, and, generally, all matters relating to the rights and duties of shareholders;

(*d*) the manner in which general meetings shall be convened, the procedure to be followed thereat and the manner in which votes may be exercised;

(*e*) the manner in which notices may be served on behalf of the Bank upon shareholders or other persons;

(*f*) the manner in which the business of the Central Board shall be transacted, and the procedure to be followed at meetings thereof;

(*g*) the conduct of business of Local Boards and the delegation to such Boards of powers and functions;

(*h*) the delegation of powers and functions of the Central Board to the Governor, or to Deputy Governors, Directors or officers of the Bank;

(*i*) the formation of Committees of the Central Board, the delegation of powers and functions of the Central Board to such Committees, and the conduct of business in such Committees;

(*j*) the constitution and management of staff and superannuation funds for the officers and servants of the Bank;

(*k*) the manner and form in which contracts binding on the Bank may be executed;

(*l*) the provision of an official seal of the Bank and the manner and effect of its use;

(*m*) the manner and form in which the balance-sheet of the Bank shall be drawn up and in which the accounts shall be maintained;

(*n*) the remuneration of Directors of the Bank;

(*o*) the relations of the scheduled banks with the Bank and the returns to be submitted by the scheduled banks to the Bank;

(*p*) the regulation of clearing-houses for the scheduled banks;

(*q*) the circumstances in which, and the conditions and limitations subject to which the value of any lost, stolen, mutilated or imperfect currency note of the Government of India or bank note may be refunded; and

(*r*) generally, for the efficient conduct of the business of the Bank.

(3) Copies of all regulations made under this section shall be available to the public on payment.

In the Indian Coinage Act, 1906, for section 11 the following section shall be substituted, namely:—

"11. Gold coins, coined at His Majesty's Royal Mint in England or at any mint established in pursuance of a proclamation of His Majesty as a branch of His Majesty's Royal Mint, shall not be legal tender in British India in payment or on account, but such coins shall be received by the Reserve Bank of India at its offices, branches and agencies in India at the bullion value of such coins calculated at the rate of 8.47512 grains troy of fine gold per rupee."

The Indian Paper Currency Act, 1923, the Indian Paper Currency (Amendment) Act, 1923, the Indian Paper Currency (Amendment) Act, 1925, and the Currency Act, 1927, are hereby repealed.

In sub-section (3) of section 11 of the Indian Companies Act, 1913, after the word "Royal" the words "Reserve Bank" shall be inserted.

Trade.

India is pre-eminently an agricultural country, and that fact dominates the course of its trade. The great export staples are the produce of the soil—wheat, seeds, cotton and jute. If we look back on the course of Indian trade over a long period of years we shall note a striking development towards stability. In the days that are past, the outturn of the soil was subjected to periodic shocks from famines arising from the failure of the rains, when the export trade in these staples dwindled to small proportions. But the spread of irrigation has produced a great change, and though no doubt in future heavy losses may be incurred from the weakness of the monsoons, they are never likely to be as catastrophic as in such year as 1896-97 and 1899-1900. Well over thirty per cent. of the culturable area of the Punjab is under irrigation, and huge new works are in progress to utilise the waters of the Sutlej, and of the Indus in Sind. Whilst these great works have been carried out or are in progress to spill on the land the floods of the snowfed rivers of the North, other works of a less imposing character have safeguarded the arid tracts of the South. A chain of storage lakes arrests the rains of the Western Ghats and through canals spreads them over the parched lands of the Deccan. The rivers of the South like the Cauvery are being harnessed to preserve their flood waters for Madras. All over India irrigation works, large and small, are being restlessly pressed forward, and their effect is to give a far greater stability to Indian agriculture.

The destination of these surplus crops is another factor of importance. The great customer for Indian cotton is Japan, and to a lesser extent the Continent of Europe. Continental Europe is also a large buyer of her oilseeds and another produce, and of her hides and skins. Whilst the United Kingdom is the great market for tea and wheat, foreign countries are very important facts in the Indian export trade; therefore India had a vital interest in the economic recovery of Europe. When the post-war boom collapsed it hit India hard and for a year or two the export trade reeled under the shock. The progress of the Dawes Plan and the measures taken under the League of Nations to assist Austria and Hungary back to industrial health had a special bearing on the prosperity of India; they have been elements of importance in inducing her recovery of prosperity.

But whilst India is pre-eminently an agricultural country, she ranks at the International Labour Office at Geneva as one of the great industrial countries of the world. Her manufacturing industries are few in number and are concentrated in a few areas, but they are of great importance. The largest is the cotton textile industry, which has its home in the town and Island of Bombay, with important subsidiary centres at Ahmedabad, Sholapur and Nagpur. Next in importance is the jute industry. Raw jute is a virtual monopoly of Bengal, and the jute mills are concentrated in and near Calcutta. The metallurgical industry is of more recent growth. The principal centre is Jamshedpur, the seat of the works of the Tata Iron and Steel Company where subsidiary industries have sprung up to utilise the products of the blast furnaces and mills. A very large proportion of the jute manufactures is exported. The cotton textile industry has lost a considerable part of its export trade to Japan, the Far East and East Africa; the mills find their principal outlet in India itself, and even there they are subject to severe competition from Japan and China. The iron and steel industry is for the most part a home industry, though large quantities of Indian pig iron are shipped to the Far East, and in some years to the western ports of North and South America. Therefore, whilst India is still in the main an agricultural country, three-quarters of her population drawing their sustenance from the soil, her manufacturing industries are of large and growing importance, and their prosperity every year affects in an increasing degree the general prosperity of the people.

I.—GENERAL.

Agricultural Conditions in India.—The monsoon of 1932 was fairly normal and gave, on the whole, well-distributed rains in spite of a rather weak start and a prolonged break in August. Averaged over the plains of India, the total rainfall during the monsoon period was only 3 per cent. below the normal. During the retreating period of the monsoon the rainfall was in excess in Bengal, Bombay Mysore, Assam, Bihar and Orissa, Punjab, Hyderabad and Madras, but defective elsewhere. Taking the year as a whole, the total rainfall was within 20 per cent. of the normal over most of the country. The season was generally favourable, and crops fairly good. The outturn of rice, though it fell short of last year's plentiful harvest by 7 per cent. was quite good, being almost equal to the average of the preceding five years. A very good yield was obtained for the sugarcane crop of 1932-33 and the total production exceeded the previous year's record yield by 17 per cent. The outturns of cotton and sesamum increased by 12 and 14 per cent. respectively, and those of groundnut and castor seed by 25 and 1 per cent. respectively as compared with the preceding year. Under restricted cultivation the production of jute in 1932 amounted only to 5.8 million bales, which, though slightly

greater than the previous year's yield, was still about half the average production during the preceding five years. The wheat crop of 1931-32, which moved mostly during the year under review, was 3 per cent. less than that of the preceding season, but was slightly above the average of the preceding five years. The production of rape, mustard and linseed (winter oilseeds) crops for 1931-32 also showed increases of 4 and 10 per cent. respectively as compared with the preceding season.

Industrial Situation in India.—The year 1932 must be considered as satisfactory so far as industrial disputes are concerned, for the numbers of strikes and of workers involved during the year were the lowest recorded for any year since 1920. Such strikes as did occur during 1932 mostly affected the railways and jute mills, the only serious cases being the strikes in the workshops of the Madras and Southern Mahratta Railways at Perambur, Arkonum and Hubli and in the Howrah, Kinnison, Kelvin and Standard Jute Mills in Bengal. The first quarter of the year 1933, however, has already been marked by disputes in the Bombay cotton mills.

Volume of Trade.—The following figures have been compiled to show the values of imports and exports of merchandise on the basis of the declared values in 1913-14. These statistics are necessarily approximate, but they are sufficiently accurate to afford a fairly reliable measure of the course of trade :—

(In crores of Rupees)

	1913-14	1924-25	1925-26	1926-27	1927-28	1928-29	1929-30	1930-31	1931-32	1932-33
Imports ..	183	137	143	156	181	190	189	157	143	162
Exports ..	144	250	246	228	248	260	263	235	200	176
Total trade in merchandise excluding re-exports.	437	387	389	384	429	450	452	392	343	338

The table above shows a further retrogression from the level of 1931-32, indicating as it does a decline of Rs. 5 crores, on the basis of 1913-14 prices, in the total trade in merchandise (excluding re-exports). It is significant that the decline was confined to the export side, the imports having shown an increase of Rs. 19 crores.

Prices in India.—The index number for Calcutta wholesale prices fell by 43 per cent. from September, 1929, to March, 1933. The index in September, 1931, was 91 as against 143 in the same month in 1929. For the five months October, 1931, to February, 1932, the index number was steady, ranging between 96 to 98, owing to the disassociation of the sterling from gold, but from March, 1932, the decline started again. Recently there has been a slight tendency generally to a rise in prices and the Indian Calcutta index number also records an increase from 82 in March, 1933, to 89 in June, 1933, which is a hopeful sign. Apart from the tendency, there were few indications, however, that the turning point in the world depression had been reached. The main characteristic of the Indian price index numbers during the past few years, is the larger fall in agricultural prices as compared with industrial prices. Another noticeable feature is that the distinct improvement in prices of most of the staple commodities, which marked the close of the year 1931 and the beginning of the year 1932, was not in evidence later. Coming to details the heaviest declines in December, 1930, were in cotton raw, jute raw, wheat and oilseeds; in December, 1931, in oilseeds, tea, hides and skins and rice; in December, 1932, in jute raw, oilseeds, and tea, rice, and hides and skins; in March, 1933, in oilseeds, rice and jute raw, hides and skins and tea; and in June, 1933, in oilseeds, jute raw, rice, cotton raw, and hides and skins. It will be thus seen that the heaviest declines have invariably been in raw materials. Among manufactured articles, the slump in prices of jute manufactures was consistently heavier than in the prices of any other manufactured article, cotton manufactures and metals following in order. Of agricultural products, sugar suffered least, largely as a result of the increased import duties on this article.

Imports.—The total value of the imports of merchandise into British India during 1932-33 amounted to Rs. 133 crores and that of exports to Rs. 136 crores. Compared with the preceding year, there was an improvement of Rs. 7 crores or 5 per cent. in the case of imports, while there was a decline of Rs. 25 crores or 15 per cent. under exports. On the import side there was an improvement noticeable in India's demand for

foreign textiles. The increase recorded under this head amounted to one of Rs. 12 crores on a total of Rs. 35 crores recorded in 1931-32. Expressed in percentages, this meant an advance of 34 per cent. over the figures for 1931-32 and of 13 per cent. over those of 1930-31. The advance under the textile group was primarily the result of larger imports of cotton piecegoods, the total receipts of which amounted to 1,225 million yards valued at Rs. 21,26 lakhs as compared with 776 million yards valued at Rs. 14,67 lakhs in 1931-32. All the principal descriptions of cotton piecegoods participated in this improvement, grey goods increasing by 107 million yards, whites by 133 million yards and coloured by 202 million yards. Imports from the United Kingdom as well as Japan recorded advances under all the descriptions. Arrivals of cotton twist and yarn also rose from 31.6 million lbs. valued at Rs. 2,99 lakhs to 45.1 million lbs. valued at Rs. 3,79 lakhs. There were concurrent advances under some of the other important items included in the textile group—notably an increase of Rs. 1,59 lakhs under silk raw and manufactured, of Rs. 1,34 lakhs under wool and woollens and of Rs. 72 lakhs under artificial silk (including yarn and goods of artificial silk mixed with other materials). Owing to increased finer spinning in the local mills the imports of raw cotton rose still further from 79,000 tons to 85,000 tons. Under the metals group there was a decline of Rs. 5 lakhs. Imports of iron and steel fell from 371,000 tons to 326,000 tons in quantity and from Rs. 6,32 lakhs to Rs. 5,30 lakhs, in value. Under machinery and mill work there was a decline of Rs. 38 lakhs, although sugar and textile machinery recorded increases. The value of hardware imported advanced from Rs. 2,61 lakhs to Rs. 2,99 lakhs. The year witnessed a further diminution in the imports of motor vehicles from Rs. 2,89 lakhs to Rs. 2,43 lakhs, the number of motor cars imported having fallen from 7,220 to 6,201 and that of omnibuses from 4,302 to 2,676. Concomitantly with the reduction under motor vehicles, the value of the imports of rubber manufactures also declined from Rs. 2,21 lakhs to Rs. 1,98 lakhs. Mainly as a result of the increased local production under the shelter of the protective duty, India's requirements of foreign sugar of all kinds fell from 556,000 tons valued at Rs. 6,16½ lakhs to 401,000 tons valued at Rs. 4,23 lakhs. Arrivals of mineral oils also declined from 217 million gallons to 188 million gallons and in value from Rs. 9,04 lakhs to Rs. 6,70 lakhs. Imports of kerosene oil declined from 85.7 million gallons to 59.5 million gallons, while those of fuel oils advanced from 100.8 million gallons to 104.5 million gallons. Consignments of provisions also contracted from Rs. 3,41 lakhs to Rs. 2,93 lakhs, chiefly due to a falling off in the value on vegetable products, condensed milk and farinaceous foods. Imports of paper and pasteboard recorded an improvement of 449,000 cwts. in quantity and of Rs. 36 lakhs in value. Arrivals of wheat fell away from 111,300 tons to 33,500 tons in quantity and from Rs. 73 lakhs to Rs. 29 lakhs in value.

Exports.—On the export side, the outstanding feature was a further slump in the raw cotton trade due to comparatively high prices of the Indian staples. Despatches of raw cotton fell from 2,369,000 bales valued at Rs. 23 crores to 2,063,000 bales valued at Rs. 20 crores. Cotton manufactures (including twist and yarn) recorded a decline of Rs. 1½ crores and amounted to Rs. 3 crores. Exports of twist and yarn receded from 22 million lbs. to 15 million lbs. in quantity and from Rs. 1,28 lakhs to Rs. 79 lakhs in value. Owing to severe competition from Japan in practically all the usual markets abroad shipments of Indian cotton piecegoods dropped from 104.6 million yards worth Rs. 3,24 lakhs to 66.4 million yards worth Rs. 2,09 lakhs. The downward movement in the export trade in jute continued during the year and the decline in the value of raw and manufactured jute exported amounted to one of about Rs. 1½ crores. Shipments of raw jute declined from 3,285,000 bales to 3,153,000 bales in quantity and from Rs. 11,19 lakhs to Rs. 9,73 lakhs in value. Exports of gunny bags, however, advanced from 389 millions valued at Rs. 10,94 lakhs to 415 millions valued at Rs. 11,16 lakhs, while those of gunny cloth shrank from 1,021 million yards worth Rs. 10,45 lakhs to 1,012 million yards worth Rs. 10,24 lakhs. Under good grains the value of the shipments declined from Rs. 20,37 lakhs to Rs. 16,08 lakhs and the quantity from 2,614,000 tons to 2,056,000 tons. Exports of wheat which had amounted to 20,000 tons in 1931-32 fell away to 2,000 tons only in 1932-33. Despatches of rice dropped from 2,372,000 tons to 1,887,000 tons in quantity and from Rs. 18,14 lakhs to Rs. 14,46 lakhs in value. Shipments of tea improved in quantity from 342 million lbs. to 379 million lbs., but on account of the low level of prices the value declined from Rs. 19,44 lakhs to Rs. 17,15 lakhs. Exports of oilseeds amounted to 733,000 tons valued at Rs. 11,31 lakhs, which meant a decline of 26 per cent. in quantity and of 22 per cent. in value in comparison with the exports of the preceding year. The decline was chiefly due to a falling off in the demands for groundnuts from 672,000 tons to 433,000 tons, for linseed from 120,000 tons to 72,000 tons, and for castorseed from 104,000 tons to 86,000 tons. Rapeseed, however, recorded an improvement of 61,000 tons in quantity and of Rs. 80 lakhs in value. Despatches of metals and ores declined from 829,000 tons worth Rs. 5,47 lakhs to 695,000 tons worth Rs. 4,68 lakhs. There was a decline in the shipments of hides and skins from 49,300 tons valued at Rs.8,92 lakhs to 41,700 tons valued at Rs. 7,43 lakhs. Exports of lac amounted to 418,300 cwts. valued at Rs. 1,24 lakhs which represented a decline of 10 per cent. in quantity and of 33 per cent. in value in comparison with the corresponding figures for 1931-32. Exports of coffee rose by 18,000 cwts. in quantity and by Rs. 15 lakhs in value.

Balance of Trade.—The visible balance of trade in merchandise and treasure for the year 1932-33 was in favour of India to the extent of Rs. 68 crores as compared with Rs. 90 crores in 1931-32, Rs. 38 crores in 1930-31 and the record figure of Rs. 109 crores in 1925-26. The transactions in treasure on private account resulted in a net export of treasure, amounting to Rs. 65 crores as against Rs. 55⅝ crores in the preceding year. Gold showed a net export of Rs. 65½ crores and silver a net import of Rs. 73 lakh. Net exports of currency notes amounted to Rs .13 lakhs.

Tariff Changes.—The changes in the tariff made under the various Acts passed during the latter part of 1931 and the earlier part of 1932 were dealt with in the preceding year's Review. Since then seven Acts have been passed, introducing numerous changes in the tariff.

The most important of these Acts is the Indian Tariff (Ottawa Trade Agreement) Amendment Act, 1932, which gave effect to the tariff changes necessitated by the Trade Agreement made by the Government of India and His Majesty's Government in the United Kingdom at the Imperial Economic Conference held at Ottawa during July-August, 1932. Hitherto the Indian tariff was a single-decker one and did not differentiate between imports from different countries, except in the case of certain protected classes of iron and steel goods and cotton piecegoods where higher rates of duty on goods manufactured in countries other than the United Kingdom were imposed. Under the Ottawa Trade Agreement India for the first time departed from the single-decker tariff policy and adopted, on terms of reciprocity, tariff preference for certain classes of goods produced or manufactured in the United Kingdom. The Agreement also provided for the exchange of preference with the non self-governing Colonies and Protectorates.

On the part of India this Agreement involved the grant to the United Kingdom of a 7½ per cent. tariff preference on certain classes of motor vehicles (motor cars and motor omnibuses, chassis for motor omnibuses, motor vans and motor lorries and parts and accessories thereof) and a 10 per cent. tariff preference on the following classes of goods:—

Apparel (excluding hosiery and articles made of silk or artificial silk), certain arms and ammunition, asbestos manufactures, boots and shoes of leather, brushes and brooms, certain building and engineering materials, buttons, certain chemicals and chemical preparations excluding manures, cocoa and chocolate, confectionery, cordage and rope other than of jute and cotton, cork manufactures, cutlery, drugs and medicines except narcotics, earthenware and porcelain, furniture and cabinet-ware, glue, hardware excluding electro-plated ware, instruments apparatus and appliances and parts thereof (electrical, musical, photographic, scientific and philosophical, surgical, wireless and miscellaneous), leather and certain manufactures thereof liquors (ale and beer, spirit in drugs, etc., and perfumed spirit), certain machinery and millwork, metals (aluminium, brass, bronze and similar alloys, copper, German silver, certain classes of iron and steel, lead wrought and zinc wrought or manufactured), oils (fish oil, certain essential oils, mineral lubricating oil, petroleum in paints, etc., and vegetabe oils other than coconut, groundnut and linseed), oil cloth and floor cloth, engine and boiler packing, certain paints and painters' materials certain classes of paper and pasteboard, certain kinds of provisions and oilman's stores, rubber manufactures, smokers' requisites, toilet soap, stationery, textiles (haberdashery and millinery) woollen manufactures other than blankets and rugs, toilet requisites, toys and requisites for games and sports, umbrellas and umbrella fittings, vehicles not mechanically propelled and cycles.

In most of these classes of goods the preference was subject to certain specified exceptions and also to the general reservation that it did not extend to—

(*a*) commodities to which protective duties are applicable;

(*b*) commodities which were free of duty at that time; or

(*c*) commodities on which on grounds of national policy a specially low rate of duty had been imposed.

In the class of iron and steel goods, the preference extended only to those commodities which were not subject to protective duties and in the class of machinery only to those articles which paid ordinary revenue rate of 25 per cent. *ad valorem* and not to those which in the interests of agriculture and industries were free of duty or were subject only to the temporary duty of 10 per cent. *ad valorem*. In the class of textiles it extended only to articles of apparel, haberdashery and millinery which were dutiable at 25 per cent. *ad valorem* and to woollen manufactures, with specified exceptions in each case. As regards goods made of cotton, silk or artificial silk, it was agreed that a 10 per cent. preference would be extended to these goods with the exception of certain cotton manufactures (twist and yarn, piecegoods, thread for sewing, blankets, handkerchiefs in the piece, hosiery, rope and towels in the piece), silk and artificial silk yarn, piecegoods and thread for sewing certain goods of silk and artificial silk mixed with other materials (twist and yarn, piecegoods and thread for sewing) and articles on which protective duties might be imposed as a result of the Indian Tariff Board's enquiry which was being conducted at that time.

In the case of Colonies and Protectorates, the Agreement provided for the grant by India of preference to certain staple exports of the Colonial Empire including—

Specified gums and resins, oil-seeds, vegetable and essential oils, unground spicies, coconuts and coconut products, fish, fruits and vegetables, sago and tapioca, tea, coffee rum and unmanufactured tobacco.

A Supplementary Agreement regarding iron and steel was entered into between the two Governments in the September following, which provided for the adjustment of the Indian import duty on galvanised sheets as shown below:—

Rs. 30 *per ton* on sheet made in the United Kingdom from Indian sheet bar.

Rs. 53 *per ton* on sheet made in the United Kingdom from other sheet bar.

Rs. 83 *per ton* on sheet not made in the United Kingdom.

These revised duties will remain in force till the 31st March 1934.

The Tariff Amendment Act mentioned above made necessary changes in Schedule II to the Indian Tariff Act, 1894, with effect from 1st

January, 1933. The articles subject to the preferential rates of duty are included in two new parts, VIII and IX, to Schedule II. Part VIII contains all the articles which were dutiable under Part V at the general revenue duty of 25 per cent. *ad valorem* and which are now liable to the standard rate of 30 per cent. and the preferential rate of 20 per cent. for British goods. Part IX contains all the articles on the preferential list which were dutiabe at special rates, that is, at rates either higher than or lower than the general revenue rate. In these cases the necessary preference has been provided for either by entirely raising the previous rate or partly by raising and partly by lowering it, the standard rate having in no case gone beyond 50 per cent. *ad valorem*.

The Cotton Textile Industry Protection (Amendment) Act, 1933, extended the operation of the protective duties imposed under the Cotton Textile Industry (Protection) Act, 1930. These duties were to expire on the 31st March, 1933, but the Amendment Act extended their operation up to 31st October, 1933, pending the consideration by the Government of India of the Tariff Board's Report on the Indian cotton textile industry.

The Wheat Import Duty (Extending) Act, 1932, extended the operation of the temporary customs duty on wheat and wheat flour to 31st March 1934.

The Salt Additional Import Duty (Extending) Act, 1933, extended for another year the operation of the 1931 Act, subject to certain modifications, as recommended by the Salt Industry Committee of the Legislative Assembly. It reduced the additional duty from 4½ as. to 2½ as. per *maund* and extended its operation to 31st March, 1934.

The Indian Finance Act, 1933, fixed (*i*) a minimum specific duty of 2 as. (excluding surcharge) on uppers of boots and shoes not entirely made of leather and (*ii*) minimum specific duties of 4 as. per square yard and 2 as. 3p. per square yard respectively, with no surcharge, on artificial silk piecegoods and silk or artificial silk mixtures. It also rounded off the *ad valorem* duty of 34⅔ per cent. (including surcharge) on these mixtures to 35 per cent. with no surcharge. This Act was passed on the 31st March, 1933, but under the provisions ofthe Provisional Collection of Taxes Act, 1931, the tariff changes mentioned above came into force on the 1st of that month.

The Indian Tariff (Ottawa Trade Agreement) Supplementary Amendment Act, 1933, corrected, with effect from the 8th April 1933, a few inaccuracies and discrepancies in the 1932 Act which had been brought to light by a further scrutiny of the schedules to that Act and by practical experience of the new tariffs. The reference to ferrous sulphate was deleted from item No. 88 as it had already been specified elsewhere as green copperas. Alum, the protective duty on which lapsed on the 31st March, was included in the non-preferential descriptions of chemicals. The preference inadvertently given to British manufactures in respect of moist white lead and newsprinting paper was withdrawn. Copper braziers were grouped with copper sheets liable to preferential rate. Tea chests and parts and fittings thereof were specified separately and were made liable to the ordinary non-preferential rate. The preference to British incandescent mantles was made clear, while, on administrative grounds, the lubricating oil item was re-drafted to include oils other than mineral, pure and mixed, which are not ordinarily used for any purpose other than lubrication. The preferential rate for colonial products was withdrawn in the case of certain glass-making chemicals. Gold and gold-plated pen nibs were specified separately with the United Kingdom preference, while in the interest of the Indian industry, two glass-making materials, liquid gold and covered crucibles, were given a specially low preferential rate of duty.

The Indian Tariff (Amendment) Act, 1933, amended sub-items (*i*) and (*ii*) in item No. 148A relating to galvanized iron or steel sheets of British manufacture and made it clear that the preferential rate is applicable only to sheets manufactured from Indian sheet bar imported into the United Kingdom after the ratification of the Ottawa Trade Agreement.

The protective duties imposed under the **Heavy Chemical Industry (Protection) Act, 1930**, on hydrochloric, nitric and sulphuric acids, alum, aluminium sulphate, copper sulphate, magnesium sulphate, sodium sulphate, sodium sulphide and zinc chloride lapsed on the 31st March, 1933, and these became liable to the ordinary duty with or without preference, to the United Kingdom manufacture. Magnesium chloride, however, continues to be liable to the protective duty.

Besides the statutory changes mentioned above, the period of operation of the additional protection accorded to iron or steel galvanized sheets, fabricated, and pipes and tubes made therefrom has been extended to 31st March, 1934, under section 3 (4) of the Indian Tariff Act, 1894. Similarly, under section 3 (5) of the above Act, the import duty on non-British cotton piecegoods was increased to 50 per cent. *ad valorem* with a minimum specific duty of 5½ as. per lb. in the case of plain grey with effect from 30th August, 1932. With effect from 7th June, 1933, these rates have been further increased to 75 per cent. *ad valorem* and 6¾ as. per lb. respectively.

II—IMPORTS OF MERCHANDISE.

The following table shows the comparative importance of the principal articles imported in British India :—

IMPORTS. (In thousands of Rupee

—	1928-29	1929-30	1930-31	1931-32	1932-33	Percentage o total import of mer- chandise in 1932-33.
Cotton and cotton goods ..	67,15,16	62,90,88	31,64,57	26,18,81	34,08,53	25.71
Machinery and millwerk ..	18,36,04	18,21,85	14,34,78	10,92,34	10,54,24	7.96
Metals and ores	26,98,84	23,61,91	15,92,23	9,77,65	9,73,49	7.34
Oils	11,53,23	11,68,65	10,92,25	9,72,26	8,00,01	6.03
Silk raw and manufactures ..	5,00,67	4,58,43	2,99,92	2,73,56	4,33,37	3.27
Sugar	16,08,95	15,77,65	10,96,47	6,16,53	4,22,87	3.19
Instruments, apparatus and appliances	4,91,71	5,38,20	4,77,47	3,69,20	3,84,77	2.90
Vehicles	11,00,60	10,84,73	7,30,53	4,48,47	3,81,94	2.88
Hardware	5,23,28	5,06,65	3,60,28	2,60,91	2,99,22	2.25
Wool raw and manufactures..	5,01,87	4,28,45	2,31,11	1,62,06	2,96,47	2.23
Provisions and Oilman's Stores	6,21,24	5,63,61	4,87,79	3,41,26	2,92,87	2.21
Paper and pasteboard ..	3,29,95	3,72,31	2,86,74	2,50,24	2,86,45	2.16
Chemicals	2,47,94	2,78,74	2,61,22	2,56,97	2,71,25	2.04
Dyes	2,83,31	2,43,31	2,59,00	2,67,65	2,50,48	1.89
Liquors	3,57,16	3,76,63	3,31,76	2,26,86	2,25,70	1.70
Rubber	2,86,13	3,32,67	2,58,24	2,22,28	1,99,05	1.50
Drugs and medicines ..	2,02,13	2,26,25	1,93,94	1,91,11	1,85,83	1.40
Spices	2,94,03	3,25,75	2,54,94	2,08,22	1,72,50	1.30
Glass and glassware	2,37,49	2,51,93	1,64,78	1,21,97	1,42,47	1.07
Fruits and vegetables ..	1,68,39	1,82,87	1,48,59	1,34,47	1,16,57	.88
Tobacco	2,74,60	2,69,71	1,51,16	94,34	96,94	.73
Paints and painters' materials	1,44,20	1,46,55	1,12,09	87,53	92,19	.69
Apparel	1,82,99	1,71,24	1,11,13	81,76	84,21	.63
Precious stones and pearls, unset	1,16,83	1,09,65	59,74	45,00	83,64	.63
Soap	1,58,10	1,66,68	1,11,98	88,72	82,63	.63
Salt	1,46,82	1,30,39	1,14,97	71,99	78,96	.60
Building and engineering materials	1,21,96	1,34,44	1,09,88	83,78	77,35	.58
Stationery	1,01,59	1,05,06	81,25	68,03	72,36	.54
Grain, pulse and flour ..	10,72,81	5,42,05	2,81,63	1,17,61	70,98	.54
Haberdashery and millinery .	1,34,07	1,04,28	72,98	54,29	67,80	.51
Toilet requisites	64,61	72,68	53,87	47,80	58,14	.44
Belting for machinery ..	83,11	90,21	63,62	50,11	52,86	.40
Manures	73,57	98,65	67,43	36,01	52,89	.40
Boots and shoes	68,12	87,81	88,05	64,93	51,77	.39
Wood and timber	83,46	1,03,54	89,82	60,69	51,44	.38
Earthenware and porcelain..	73,09	72,34	48,16	38,36	49,56	.38
Tea chests	67,47	80,24	63,53	50,32	47,77	.36
Toys and requisites for games.	66,69	64,84	49,06	37,04	47,33	.35
Books, printed, etc.	66,28	71,82	60,91	53,38	46,38	.35
Arms, ammunition and military store	76,64	65,44	54,02	68,48	44,14	.33

Imports—(*continued*)

(In thousands of Rupees)

——	1928-29.	1929-30.	1930-31.	1931-32.	1932-33.	Percentage on total imports of merchandise in 1932-33.
Tea	74,22	63,90	45,68	43,57	34,63	.27
Jewellery, also plate of gold and silver	15,62	26,25	39,34	19,18	34,43	.26
Bobbins	35,96	39,88	42,99	31,91	28,57	.22
Umbrellas and fittings ..	57,19	43,66	31,09	30,16	27,77	.21
Tallow and stearine	24,63	31,02	27,23	20,79	24,65	.19
Cutlery	36,37	41,41	26,05	20,69	24,27	.18
Gums and resins	38,95	41,96	31,07	24,25	23,63	.18
Paper making materials ..	41,51	44,95	42,07	35,99	22,09	.17
Furniture and cabinetware ..	36,98	37,66	27,73	20,11	17,65	.14
Flax raw and manufactures .	35,45	33,38	21,69	17,75	16,75	.13
Animals, living	35,71	32,42	20,86	42,06	14,79	.11
Fish (excluding canned fish).	25,76	26,31	23,86	13,42	13,66	.10
Jute and jute goods	26,58	24,20	18,37	12,78	13,49	.10
Clocks and watches and parts	27,61	23,47	16,86	11,21	12,75	.10
Coal and coke	39,10	45,55	34,69	14,28	9,63	.08
Matches	17,22	10,89	4,11	1,05	52	.01
All other articles	15,26,61	14,33,69	10,53,76	9,64,95	10,31,73	7.78
TOTAL VALUE OF IMPORTS..	253,30,60	240,79,69	164,79,37	126,37,14	132,58,43	100

Cotton Manufactures (Rs. 26,83 lakhs.)—The total value of the imports of cotton manufactures in the year under review amounted to Rs. 26,83 lakhs as against Rs. 19,15 lakhs in the preceding year and Rs. 25,26 lakhs in 1930-31. Thus it will be seen that the imports under this head revived considerably as compared with the preceding year and even exceeded the figure of 1930-31. As compared with 1929-30, however, there was still much leeway to be made up, the value of the imports in that year having amounted to Rs. 59,49 lakhs. Imports of cotton twist and yarn amounted to 45.1 million lbs. valued at Rs. 3,79 lakhs as against 31.6 million lbs. valued at Rs. 2,99 lakhs in 1931-32. Thus there was an increase of 13½ million lbs. or 43 per cent. in the imports under this head. Imports of piecegoods in the year under review were 1,225 million yards valued at Rs. 21,26 lakhs as compared with 776 million yards valued at Rs. 14,67 lakhs in 1931-32 and 890 million yards valued at Rs. 20,05 lakhs in 1930-31. The increase in yardage as compared with the preceding year was, therefore, 450 million yards and even compared with 1930-31 that was 335 million yards. Compared with the last normal year, 1929-30, however, the imports were 694 million yards less.

It will be seen from the above figures that the import trade in cotton manufactures showed a distinct improvement as compared with the preceding year or even with 1930-31. Compared with 1929-30, the last normal year, however, the trade was still considerably smaller. The improvement in the year under review was of considerable magnitude and it will be worth while examining the causes of this upward movement. The first cause which suggests itself is a probable revival in the demand for piecegoods, the consumption of which had fallen off considerably in the previous two years. It will be seen from the table that the amount available for consumption was 333 and 364 crores of yards in 1930-31 and 1931-32 respectively as compared with 419 crores of yards in 1929-30, 365 crores of yards in 1928-29 and 413 crores of yards in 1927-28. Thus the postponement of demand which was the result of the peculiar conditions of the two previous years may have led to a better demand in the year under review. A second cause which also improved the demand was the considerably lower prices of piecegoods which ruled in the year under review. The declared values of all classes of piecegoods touched lower levels, the fall being greater in the cases of white and coloured goods. The Calcutta index number in the case of cotton manufactures, which is an index of internal prices, fell much further than in the previous years. The index was 127 in April 1931, and in spite of a very slight fall in the end of the year 1931-32 it remained at 127 in April 1932. By April, 1933, however, the index had fallen to 112. This fall in the prices of cotton manufactures certainly encouraged their consumption, especially as this fall tended to reduce, to some extent, the wide disparity between the fall in the agricultural incomes of the masses and the fall in the cost of the imported goods which they bought. The chief cause of the fall in prices of cotton piecegoods was the selling of cotton piecegoods in India by Japan at very low rates. The depreciating *yen* exchange helped Japan in this respect and even the additional duty placed on these imports in the middle of the year did not stem the tide, as the Japanese manufacturers' advantage increased with the further depreciation of the rupee-yen exchange. The very low prices at which Japanese goods were offered greatly increased their consumption and the prices of competing goods of other than Japanese origin had also to be lowered to keep pace. These lower prices created a better effective demand for piecegoods and consequently the consumption as well as imports

improved considerably. This has been one of the most important causes of the improvement in piecegoods imports. A third cause of the increase in imports is to be found in the comparative weakness of the boycott agitation in the year under review. Owing to the measures adopted by Government the agitation had been considerably weakened and the trade in imported piecegoods became profitable again. These causes led to an increase in imports both from Japan and the United Kingdom; but owing to the low prices which Japan would take her share increased far more than that of the United Kingdom.

The value of the different classes of cotton manufactures imported during the past five years and the pre-war year 1913-14 is set forth below :—

—	1913-14 (pre-war year).	1928-29	1929-30	1930-31	1931-32	1932-33
	Rs. (lakhs)	Rs. (lakhs)	Rs. (lakhs)	Rs. (lakhs)	Rs. (lakhs)	Rs. (lakhs)
Twist and yarn	4,16	6,29	6,00	3,08	2.99	3,79
Piecegoods—						
Grey (unbleached)	25,45	20,19	20,93	6,87	3,92	5,07
White (bleached)	14,29	15,33	13,27	6,20	5,33	7,33
Coloured, printed or dyed ..	17,86	17,35	15,15	6,82	5,05	8,34
Fents of all descriptions ..	54	94	90	16	37	52
Total Piecegoods ..	58,14	53,81	50,25	20,05	14,67	21,26
Hosiery	1,20	1,45	1,44	88	48	67
Handkerchiefs and shawls ..	89	16	17	5	2	6
Thread	39	71	81	60	54	56
Other sorts	1,52	82	82	59	45	49
Grand Total ..	66,30	63,24	59,49	25,25	19,15	26,83

Cotton Twist and Yarn (Rs. 3,79 lakhs).—The imports of cotton twist and yarn amounted to 45.1 million lbs. in quantity and Rs. 3,79 lakhs in value in 1932-33 as compared with 31.6 million lbs. and Rs. 2,99 lakhs in 1931-32. The quantity of yarn imported in the year under review increased by 13.5 million lbs. as compared with the previous year, the increase in value being Rs. 80 lakhs. As compared with 1929-30, the last normal year, there was an increase in the quantity of imports in the year under review by 1.2 million lbs. In value, however, there was a decline of Rs. 2,21 lakhs. The average declared value per lb. of yarn imported during the year was Re. 0-13-5 as compared with Re. 0-15-2 in the previous year, Re. 1-0-11 in 1930-31 and Rs. 1-5-10 in 1929-30. Of the total imports, 18.1 million lbs. came from Japan, the largest supplier, 13.4 million lbs. from the United Kingdom and 13.3 million lbs. from China. Imports from these countries in 1929-30 were 10.9 million lbs., 20.1 million lbs. and 10.6 million lbs. respectively. Thus as compared with 1929-30, the imports from the United Kingdom had shrunk by 6.7 million lbs., whereas imports from Japan and China had gone up by 7.2 million lbs. and 2.7 million lbs., respectively. It is obvious therefore that Japan had considerably improved her position in this trade as compared with the preceding year or with 1929-30. The position of Japan is even stronger than is shown merely by the imports from Japan, as the mills in China are largely owned by Japanese interests.

Cotton Piece-goods (Rs. 21,26 lakhs).—The imports of cotton piecegoods, including fents, increased from 776 million yards in 1931-32 to 1,225 million yards in 1932-33, an increase of 449 million yards or 58 per cent. As compared with 1929-30, however, there was still a deficit of 694 million yards in yardage. The value of the imports increased from Rs. 14.7 crores to Rs. 21.3 crores, an increase of Rs. 6.6 crores. The value figure in the year under review is, however, considerably less than in 1929-30 when it amounted to Rs. 50 crores. Compared with the pre-war year 1913-14, the imports of 1932-33 were less by 1,973 million yards. The figures for the three important classes of cotton piecegoods from 1913-14 onwards are given in the following table :—

—	Grey (unbleached)	White (bleached)	Coloured printed or dyed.
Year.	Million yards	Million yards	Million yards
1913-14 ..	1,534.2	793.3	881.8
1914-15 ..	1,320.2	604.2	494.8
1915-16 ..	1,148.2	611.4	358.7
1916-17 ..	847.0	589.8	454.9
1917-18 ..	625.5	502.3	395.6
1918-19 ..	583.4	286.6	227.3
1919-20 ..	533.3	322.0	208.3
1920-21 ..	580.2	421.8	489.3
1921-22 ..	635.6	306.2	138.3
1922-23 ..	931.0	402.5	243.8
1923-24 ..	704.0	415.3	347.5
1924-25 ..	845.5	548.9	407.0
1925-26 ..	709.1	465.1	365.8
1926-27 ..	748.4	571.0	447.4
1927-28 ..	875.5	556.5	504.8
1928-29 ..	838.6	554.1	506.9
1929-30 ..	925.5	473.6	483.5
1930-31 ..	365.0	271.6	245.7
1931-32 ..	249.4	279.7	223.2
1932-33 ..	356.0	412.7	424.8

It appears from the above table that in the year under review imports of grey goods increased from the low figure of the previous year and amounted to 356 million yards as compared with 249 million yards in 1931-32. Compared,

however, with 1929-30 the imports are seen to be of relatively small dimensions. The imports of plain grey goods amounted to 218 million yards in 1932-33 as compared with 166 million yards in 1931-32 and 423 million yards in 1929-30. Imports of bordered grey goods amounted to 138 million yards as compared with 83 million yards in the preceding year and 502 million yards in 1929-30. These figures show that the trade under this item, though showing some signs of revival as compared with the preceding year, was still far behind the figure of 1929-30. Imports of white goods increased considerably in the year under review from 280 million yards in 1931-32 to 413 million yards, an increase of 133 million yards. Even compared with 1929-30, the imports of the year under review were only less by 61 million yards. Coloured goods increased from 223 million yards in 1931-32 to 425 million yards in 1932-33, an increased of 91 per cent. The declared value of grey goods declined from 3 as. 7 p. in 1929-30 to 2 as. 6 p. in 1931-32 and to 2 as. 3 p. in 1932-33. The decline in the case of white goods was from 4 as. 6 p. in 1929-30 to 2 as. 11p. in the year under review, whereas for the same period, coloured goods fell from 5 as. to 3 as. 2 p. The following table shows the declared value per yard of the three classes of goods for a number of years:—

Cotton piecegoods.	13-14.	24-25	25-26	26-27	27-28	28-29	29-30	30-31	31-32	32-33
	A. p.	A. p.	A. p.	A. p.	A. p.	A. p.	A. p.	A. p.	A. p.	A. p.
Grey (unbleached) ..	2 8	5 5	4 11	4 2	3 11	3 10	3 7	3 0	2 6	2 3
White (bleached) ..	2 11	5 11	5 6	4 11	4 5	4 5	4 6	3 8	3 1	2 11
Coloured, printed or dyed	3 5	7 10	6 11	6 2	5 7	5 6	5 0	4 5	3 8	3 2

The imports of coloured, printed and dyed goods from 1925-26 are set forth below:—

	1925-26		1926-27		1927-28		1928-29	
	Million yards.	Rs. (lakhs.)	Million yards.	Rs. (lakhs.)	Million yards.	Rs. (lakhs.)	Million yards.	Rs. (lakhs.)
Total printed goods.	166.9	6,55	176.8	6,13	235.3	7,53	244.4	7,41
Total dyed goods ..	106.8	4,88	157.0	6,17	158.3	5,61	155.6	5,62
Total woven coloured goods.	92.1	4,49	113.6	4,92	111.2	4,38	106.9	4,32

	1929-30		1930-31		1931-32		1932-33	
	Million yards.	Rs. (lakhs.)	Million yards.	Rs. (lakhs.)	Million yards.	Rs. (lakhs.)	Million yards.	Rs. (lakhs.)
Total printed goods.	199.9	5,77	106.5	2,61	104.9	2,08	237.0	3,97
Total dyed goods ..	151.0	4,92	93.1	2,69	93.0	2,29	147.7	3,37
Total woven coloured goods.	132.5	4,47	46.1	1,52	25.4	68	40.1	1,00

Imports in the year under review in all the three lines increased considerably as compared with the preceding year, the increase being largest in the case of printed goods. Even as compared with 1929-30, the figures showed a considerable decline only in the case of woven coloured goods, whereas in the case of printed goods it actually showed an increase. Under printed goods the quantity imported was 237 million yards as compared with 105 million yards in the previous year and 200 million yards in 1929-30. Imports of dyed goods amounted to 148 million yards as compared with 93 million yards in 1931-32 and 151 million yards in 1929-30. Thus, the imports of the year under review were only 3 million yards less than in 1929-30. Imports of woven coloured goods rose from 25 million yards in 1931-32 to 40 million yards in 1932-33; but compared with 1929-30, there was a decrease of over 92 million yards. The

detailed figures relating to the imported piecegoods are given below in millions of yards :—

Grey (unbleached).	1913-14 (pre-war year.)	1929-30	1930-31	1931-32	1932-33
Dhutis, saris and scarves	806.1	501.1	171.0	83.6	138.8
Jaconets, madapollams, mulls, etc. ..	150.4	53.0	19.3	23.7	26.8
Longcloth and shirtings	545.4	340.1	166.3	133.8	182.8
Sheetings	.2	14.7	4.1	3.7	5.1
Drills and jeans	21.3	13.4	2.4	2.9	1.3
Other sorts	10.8	3.2	1.9	1.7	1.2
Total ..	1,534.2	925.5	365.0	249.4	356.0

White (bleached).	1913-14 (pre-war year.)	1929-30	1930-31	1931-32	1932-33
Dhutis, saris and scarves	104.3	45.5	15.4	1.9	3.6
Jaconets, madapollams, mulls, etc. ..	307.9	219.7	135.2	155.2	229.2
Longcloth and shirtings	115.3	104.1	71.9	79.8	109.7
Nainsooks	204.7	53.1	25.9	21.5	30.9
Drills and jeans	5.7	6.6	3.8	4.1	4.4
Checks, spots and stripes	16.1	12.0	3.7	3.8	7.9
Twills	8.3	16.8	7.7	3.7	11.4
Other sorts	31.0	15.8	8.0	9.7	15.6
Total ..	793.3	473.6	271.6	279.7	412.7

Coloured, printed or dyed.	1913-14 (pre-war year.)	1929-30	1930-31	1931-32	1932-33
Dhutis, saris and scarves	115.2	33.0	19.1	8.7	18.2
Cambrics, etc.	113.6	43.5	20.5	19.7	40.6
Shirtings	152.6	105.6	54.7	62.9	115.6
Prints and chintz	209.7	61.3	33.7	23.0	50.5
Drills and jeans	30.0	86.6	33.3	32.9	71.4
Checks, spots and stripes	19.7	26.2	12.5	5.1	12.8
Twills	31.4	36.6	16.0	17.8	22.6
Other sorts	159.6	90.7	55.9	53.1	93.1
Total ..	831.8	483.5	245.7	223.2	424.8

Under greys nearly every item showed increases as compared with the preceding year, though there were big gaps to be made up as compared with 1929-30. Imports under dhutis went up from 84 million yards to 139 millions yards. In 1929-30, however, imports under this head were 501 million yards. Similarly, under longcloth and shirtings there was an increase of 49 million yards to 183 million yards as compared with the preceding year, but compared with 1929-30 there was a decrease of 157 million yards. Jaconets also showed a small increase from 24 million yards to 27 million yards. In 1929-30 the figure under this head was 53 million yards. Under white goods all the items showed increases as compared with the preceding year, but compared with 1929-30 only jaconets and longcloths showed increases. Imports of jaconets amounted to 229 million yards as compared with 155 million yards in the previous year and 220 million yards in 1929-30. Similarly, import sunder longcloth amounted to 110 million yards as compared with 80 million yards in 1931-32 and 104 million yards in 1929-30. The only other item of importance under white goods which showed an increase was nainsooks which amounted to nearly 31 million yards as compared with 21.5 million yards in 1931-32 and a little over 53 million yards in 1929-30. The other items showed slight increases as compared with the preceding year, though the figures fell short of the level attained in 1929-30. In coloured goods there were considerable increases under all the items as compared with the preceding year, but as compared with 1929-30 only shirtings showed an increase. Imports under shirtings increased from 63 million yards in 1931-32 to 116 million yards, the figure of 1929-30 being 106 million yards. Drills and jeans increased from 33

million yards in 1931-32 to 71 million yards in 1932-33. Imports in 1929-30 were 87 million yards. Imports under cambrics, prints and chintz increased from 20 and 23 million yards in 1931-32 to 41 and 50 million yards in 1932-33, the imports in 1929-30 being 43 and 61 million yards respectively. The other items also showed increases as compared with the preceding year. Thus, it will be seen that under white and coloured goods the trade had regained to some extent the position which it had occupied in 1929-30.

The percentage shares in 1913-14 and the past five years of the United Kingdom and Japan, the two principal competitors for the Indian piece-goods import trade, in each of the three important classes of piecegoods are set forth below :—

Percentage shares of the United Kingdom and Japan in the imports of cotton piecegoods.

	1913–14		1928–29		1929–30		1930–31		1931–32		1932–33	
	United Kingdom	Japan	United Kingdom	Japan	United Kingdom	Japan	United Kingdom	Japan	United Kingdom	Japan	United Kingdom	Japan
Cotton piecegoods—												
Grey	98.8	.5	69.4	28.8	56.2	42.5	39.2	59.8	23.9	74.3	31.2	68.5
White	98.5	..	94.8	1.0	92.1	2.9	84.6	10.3	74.0	21.4	68.1	29.2
Coloured	92.6	.2	66.2	21.7	57.6	31.9	60.0	30.2	49.4	42.4	45.7	50.4

The share of the United Kingdom increased to some extent under greys as compared with the preceding year. There was a consequential drop in the share of Japan. The share of the United Kingdom in the year under review amounted to 31 per cent. as compared with only 24 per cent. in the preceding year and 56 per cent. in 1929-30. Japan's share in the year under review was 68.5 per cent. as compared with 74 per cent. in the preceding year and 42.5 per cent. in 1929-30. The decrease in Japan's share in the year under review is of a very small magnitude. The increase in her share in the past few years has been largely due to the attractively low prices at which Japan has offered her goods. On the other hand, the share of the United Kingdom which had been falling off considerably for 4 or 5 years up to 1931-32 shows some signs of revival in the year under review. As regards white goods, Japan has been making considerable progress in the last four years. In 1929-30 her share in white goods was under 3 per cent. By 1930-31 it had risen to over 10 per cent. In 1931-32 it had gone up to 21 per cent. and in the year under review it was a little over 29 per cent. The share of the United Kingdom, on the other hand, declined from 92 per cent. in 1929-30 to 68 per cent. in 1932-33. In coloured goods also Japan is fast capturing the Indian market from the United Kingdom and in the year under review Japan has ousted the United Kingdom from the position of the largest supplier of these goods. The share of the United Kingdom dropped from 58 per cent. in 1929-30 to 46 per cent. in 1932-33, whereas Japan's share went up from 32 per cent. in 1929-30 to over 50 per cent. in 1932-33. The percentage shares of the principal sources in the total imports of piece-goods into India are shown below :—

Percentage shares in the total quantities of piecegoods imported.

	13-14	23-24	24-25	25-26	26-27	27-28	28-29	29-30	30-31	31-32	32-33
United Kingdom	97.1	88.8	88.5	82.3	82.0	78.2	75.2	65.0	58.8	49.4	48.7
Japan	.3	8.2	8.5	13.9	13.6	16.4	18.4	29.3	36.1	43.8	47.3
United States	.3	.5	.5	1.0	.9	1.4	1.5	1.7	1.0	2.5	1.7
Netherlands	.8	.7	.6	1.1	1.1	1.0	1.0	1.1	1.5	.9	.4
Other countries	1.5	1.8	1.9	1.7	2.4	3.0	3.9	2.9	2.6	3.4	1.9
Total ..	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

The outstanding feature of the table, as was noted in the Reviews for the last three years, is the definite, and continuous trends, in opposite directions, of the percentage shares of the United Kingdom and of Japan during the past nine years. Japan increased her share from 44 per cent. in 1931-32 to 47 per cent. in 1932-33. The share of the United Kingdom, on the other hand, further declined from 49.4 per cent. to 48.7 per cent. Thus, the share of the United Kingdom was reduced from 97 per cent. in 1913-14 to a little under 49 per cent. in 1932-33, whereas Japan from a position of no importance whatever increased her share enormously, and is now responsible for almost half the total quantity of piecegoods imported into India.

Of the total quantity of piecegoods imported 27 per cent. was received in Bombay as compared with 22 per cent. in the previous year. The shares of Bengal and Madras continued stationary at 29 and 8 per cent. respectively, that of Sind, which amounted to 28 per cent. in 1931-32, stood at 25 per cent. in the year under review. Similarly, there was a decrease in the share of Burma to 11 per cent. in 1932-33 as compared with 13 per cent. in the preceding year.

Artificial silk (Rs. 4,16 lakhs).—The trade under this head continued to increase, both in quantity and value, as compared with the preceding two years; but, as compared with 1929-30, there was only an increase in quantity but not in value. It may be mentioned that the increase in quantity has been of much greater magnitude than that in value, as the average declared value of piecegoods has been falling consistently since 1929-30 when it was 8 as. 11 p. per yard to 4 as. 9 p. in 1931-32 and 3 as. 11p. in the year under review. Imports of artificial silk yarn in the year under review amounted to 11 million lbs. valued at Rs. 93 lakhs as compared with 8 million lbs. valued at Rs. 82 lakhs in the preceding year. The largest increase in imports has been from Italy, whose share increased from 3.9 million lbs. to 5.6 million lbs. Japan also sent 1.8 million lbs. as compared with 0.4 million lbs. in the preceding year. The share of the United Kingdom went up from nearly a million lbs. to 1.7 million lbs. On the other hand, imports from the Netherlands, France and Switzerland showed some decline.

As regards piecegoods of cotton and artificial silk, the outstanding feature, as noted in the previous reviews, was the enormous growth of the imports from Japan under this head. The total import of such piecegoods in the year under review was 125 million yards valued at Rs. 3,10 lakhs as compared with 85 million yards valued at Rs. 2,52 lakhs in the previous year. The share of Japan in the total imports was 115 million yards or 92 per cent. Japan's share in the previous year was 75 million yards and in 1930-31 only 38 million yards.

As has been remarked in the last year's review, Japan was exporting to India cloth made entirely of artificial silk in bright colours and attractive designs at prices as low as 3 as. to 4 as. per yard. At such prices artificial silk piecegoods were replacing the better type of printed and dyed cotton goods. It may be interesting to note that the declared value per yard of Japanese piecegoods of cotton and artificial silk mixed was 3 as. 6 p. in the year under review as compared with 4 as. 6 p. in the preceding year, 6 as. 4 p. in 1930-31 and 8 as. 11 p. in 1929-30. As against this the declared value of the Italian imports under the same head was 7 as. 9 p. in 1932-33, 4 as. 11 p. in the preceding year and 7 as. 2 p. in 1929-30. Similarly, the declared value of the imports from the United Kingdom was 7 as. 7 p. in the year under review as compared with 9 as. 4 p. in the preceding year and 8 as. 6 p. in 1930-31. As a result of the low and attractive prices of imports from Japan, the other countries were more or less ousted from the market. The share of Italy declined from 5.2 million yards to 4.5 million yards and the share of Switzerland from nearly 2 million yards to a little under a million yards. The United Kingdom, however, increased her share from 1.6 million yards to 3.6 million yards.

Silk, raw and manufactured (Rs. 4,33 lakhs).—The imports of raw silk increased from 1.6 million yards valued at Rs. 62 lakhs in 1931-32 to 3.2 million yards valued at Rs. 1,17 lakhs in 1932-33. The predominant supplier of raw silk was China, including Hongkong, which supplied 2.9 million lbs. or 92 per cent. of the total imports into India. Imports from Japan, the only other source worth mentioning, increased from 34,000 lbs. to 165,000 lbs. Imports of silk yarns, noils and warps increased from 1.7 million lbs. valued at Rs. 51 lakhs in 1931-32 to 3 million lbs. valued at Rs. 88 lakhs in 1932-33. Japan's increase in this trade was phenomenal, her share increasing from 116,000 lbs. valued at Rs. 5 lakhs in the preceding year to 1,187,000 lbs. valued at Rs. 40 lakhs in the year under review. Italy was the second largest supplier, her share amounting to 862,000 lbs. valued at Rs. 24 lakhs as compared with 622,000 lbs. valued at Rs. 19 lakhs. Imports from China and the United Kingdom increased from 343,000 and 62,000 lbs. to 418,000 and 260,000 lbs. respectively, but the imports from Switzerland declined from 289,000 lbs. to 96,000 lbs.

Imports of silk piecegoods increased very greatly in quantity from 20 million yards to 35 million yards. This figure is better by 12 million yards as compared with even 1929-30. The value of the imports in the year under review amounted to Rs. 1,81 lakhs as compared with Rs. 1,26 lakhs in the previous year. As in the case of cotton and artificial silk, the rise of Japan in this trade was the feature of the year, her share increasing from 11.7 million yards valued at Rs. 72 lakhs in 1931-32 to 26.8 million yards valued at Rs. 1,33 lakhs in 1932-33. China's share remained almost at the same level as in the preceding year, amounting to 7.9 million yards valued at Rs. 45 lakhs as compared with 7.8 million yards valued at Rs. 50 lakhs. Thus these two countries between them supplied nearly the whole of the imports under this head. The shares of other countries which were insignificant showed decreases in the year under review as compared with the preceding year.

The imports of goods of silk mixed with other materials showed a great increase in the year under review and amounted to 10.1 million yards valued at Rs. 43½ lakhs as compared with 5.1 million yards valued at Rs. 30 lakhs in the preceding year. Imports in 1929-30 were a little under 3 million yards. Thus, in three years the imports had increased by 7 million yards. As in the case of silk piecegoods, Japan was the largest single supplier and her position as compared with the previous year improved considerably. Imports from Japan amounted to 8.4 million yards valued at Rs. 28 lakhs as

compared with 4.1 million yards valued at Rs. 18 lakhs in 1931-32. The imports in 1929-30 amounted to 2 million yards valued at Rs. 19 lakhs. It is clear, therefore, that Japan had reduced her prices very considerably as, although the quantity imported from that source had more than quadrupled as compared with 1929-30, the total declared value had gone up by 50 per cent. only. Imports from the United Kingdom, Germany and Italy increased from 185,000, 170,000 and 31,000 yards in 1931-32 to 250,000 258,000 and 85,000 yards respectively in 1932-33. The share of France fell slightly from 54,000 to 47,000 yards.

Wool, raw and manufactured (Rs. 2,96 lakhs).—There has been a very considerable increase in the value of imports under this head as compared with the preceding year. The increase has been general and was shared by all the sub-heads under this head, except carpets and rugs. Imports of raw wool increased from 6.7 million lbs. valued at Rs. 31 lakhs to 7.2 million lbs. valued at Rs. 42 lakhs in 1932-33. Australia was the largest supplier with 3 million lbs. valued at Rs. 18 lakhs in the year under review as compared with 2.9 million lbs. valued at Rs. 15 lakhs in the preceding year. The United Kingdom increased her share very considerably from a little under a million lbs. valued at nearly Rs. 9 lakhs in 1931-32 to 2.1 million lbs. valued at Rs. 18 lakhs in 1932-33. Thus, the United Kingdom ousted Persia as the second largest supplier of raw wool to India. The share of the latter country amounted to 1.3 million lbs. valued at Rs. 3 lakhs as compared with nearly 2 million lbs. valued at Rs. 5 lakhs in the preceding year. Imports of worsted yarns for weaving increased from 568,000 lbs. valued at Rs. 9 lakhs in 1931-32 to 912,000 lbs. valued at Rs. 15 lakhs in 1932-33. Imports of knitting wool went up from 739,000 lbs. valued at Rs. 14 lakhs to 996,000 lbs. valued at Rs. 18 lakhs.

Woollen piecegoods.—Imports of woollen piecegoods in 1932-33 increased by over 8 million yards as compared with the preceding year and even exceeded the imports of 1929-30 by about a million yards. Imports in the year under review amounted to 13.9 million yards as compared with 5.5 million yards in the preceding year and 12.6 million yards in 1929.30. The value of the imports of 1932-33 amounted to Rs. 1,61 lakhs as compared with Rs. 69 lakhs in 1931-32 and Rs. 2,33 lakhs in 1929-30. The countries which accounted for the great rise in imports under this head in the year under review were France, Italy, Japan and the United Kingdom. The shares of the first three countries amounted to 4.6, 3.6 and 1.4 million yards as compared with 2, 1.4 and 0.1 million yards respectively in the preceding year. The share of the United Kingdom also went up from 1.3 million yards valued at Rs. 25 lakhs to 2.8 million yards valued at Rs. 52 lakhs. The other countries, except Netherlands, also showed increases in their shares. The average declared value per yard of the French, Italian and Japanese supplies were Rs. 0-12-0, Rs. 1-2-8 and Rs. 0-8-9, whereas that of the imports from the United Kingdom was Rs. 1-13-11.

There was a considerable increase in the number of shawls imported. These amounted to 338,000 pieces valued at Rs. 11 lakhs as compared with 164,000 pieces valued at Rs. 6 lakhs in the preceding year. The imports in 1929-30, however, were 658,000 pieces valued at Rs. 27 lakhs. As usual, Germany was the largest single source of supply, her share going up from 114,000 pieces to 186,000 pieces. Imports from the United Kingdom and from other countries also showed considerable increases.

Imports of carpets and floor rugs declined from 267,000 lbs. valued at Rs. 5 lakhs in 1931-32 to 188,000 lbs. valued at Rs. 4 lakhs in 1932-33. In 1929-30 the imports were 604,000 lbs. valued at Rs. 10 lakhs. Imports from the United Kingdom were the highest, amounting to 81,000 lbs. valued at Rs. 1.8 lakhs as compared with 76,000 lbs. valued at Rs. 2 lakhs in the preceding year. The share of Persia receded considerably from 146,000 lbs. valued at Rs. 2 lakhs in 1931-32 to 78,000 lbs. valued at Rs. 80,000 in 1932-33. The declared value per lb. of the United Kingdom supplies was Rs. 2-2-10 and those from Persia Rs. 1-0-4. Imports under the head 'blankets and rugs other than floor rugs' increased from 2.4 million lbs. valued at Rs. 19 lakhs in 1931-32 to 4.2 million lbs. valued at Rs. 34 lakhs in 1932-33.

Metals and manufactures thereof (Rs. 9,73 lakhs).—The imports of metals and manufactures thereof declined by 23,000 tons or 5 per cent. in quantity from 418,000 tons in 1931-32 to 395,000 tons in 1932-33 and by Rs. 4 lakhs or less than 1 per cent. in value from Rs. 9,77 lakhs to Rs. 9,73 lakhs. Iron and steel represented Rs. 5¼ crores of this total as compared with Rs. 6¾ crores in 1931-32 and, as in the preceding year, occupied the fifth place in order of importance among India's imports, the first four being cotton manufactures, machinery and millwork, mineral oils and raw cotton. If such items as machinery and millwork, hardware, cutlery, implements and instruments and vehicles are grouped with metals and manufactures thereof under one head, the total value would aggregate Rs. 32 crores, while the value of yarn and textile fabrics, usually the most important group among India's imports, amounted to Rs. 38 crores in the year under review. In the preceding year the metals group accounted for Rs. 32½ crores, while the textile head totalled Rs. 27 crores.

Iron and steel (Rs. 5,30 lakhs).—The world's production of pig iron in 1932, estimated at 38¾ million tons, was 30 per cent. less than in 1931 and steel output, estimated at 49 million tons, was 28 per cent. less. The biggest declines were registered in the United States, Germany and France, while the decrease in the case of Belgium and Luxemberg was comparatively small. In the United Kingdom the production of pig iron fell by only 5 per cent. from 3.77 million tons in 1931 to 3.57 million tons in 1932, but steel output recorded a small increase of 1 per cent. from 5.20 million tons to 5.26 million tons. Considering the prevailing world depression, it is surprising that the British manufacturers maintained their output to this remarkable extent in spite of the fact that the export trade, particularly with India, suffered from the severe competition from Continental producers.

In India, the imports of all classes of iron and steel, including pig iron and old iron or steel, in 1932-33 were even lower by 12 per cent. than the poor record of the preceding year and amounted to 326,000 tons as compared with 371,000 tons in 1931-32 and 614,000 tons in 1930-31. The year of maximum importation was 1927-28 when 1,197,000 tons of manufactured iron and steel were received. Since then the imports have been steadily declining with a corresponding decrease in the share of the United Kingdom except in 1931-32, when as a result of her departure from the gold standard, the portion of the United Kingdom in the total trade was slightly higher than in the preceding year. In 1932-33, however, there was a set-back and the share of the United Kingdom stood at 43 per cent. as compared with 44.2 per cent. in 1931-32 and 43.8 per cent. in 1930-31. There were also similar decreases in the case of France and the United States of America. On the other hand, the shares of Belgium and Germany were well maintained, being approximately 32 and 7 per cent. respectively as in 1931-32. The efforts made by these two Continental countries to retain the ground in the Indian market led them to cut prices to an extent sufficient to overcome not only the effect of the depreciation of sterling but also the additional duties levied on certain classes of iron and steel materials of non-British origin.

Other metals (Rs. 4,42 lakhs).—Imports of metals, other than iron and steel, rose from 47,000 tons valued at Rs. 3,44 lakhs in 1931-32 to 69,000 tons valued at Rs. 4,42 lakhs in 1932-33, there being an increase under each description of non-ferras metals with the exception of aluminium and lead.

Machinery and millwork (Rs. 11,16 lakhs).—The value of the imports of machinery and millwork declined by 4 per cent. from Rs. 11,57 lakhs in 1931-32 to Rs. 11,16 lakhs in 1932-33. The trade, however, showed a noticeable expansion in some directions, notably under sugar, textile and tea machinery, while in most other branches depressed conditions prevailed. The following table analyses the imports of machinery and millwork according to classes during the last five years :—

	1928-29 Rs. (lakhs).	1929-30 Rs. (lakhs).	1930-31 Rs. (lakhs).	1931-32 Rs. (lakhs).	1932-33 Rs. (lakhs)
Prime-movers	3,04	4,12	2,74	1,56	1,00
Electrical	2,37	2,41	2,39	2,16	1,56
Boilers	1,15	1,09	97	56	45
Metal working (chiefly machine tools).	33	36	30	19	15
Mining	80	61	74	66	38
Oil crushing and refining	40	43	40	35	19
Paper mill	35	7	7	6	5
Refrigerating	23	20	22	10	9
Rice and flour mill	21	24	22	10	9
Saw mill	7	9	7	3	3
Sewing and knitting	89	85	59	51	45
Sugar machinery	18	9	14	30	1,53
Tea machinery	40	28	17	11	21
Cotton machinery	2,16	2,10	1,78	1,93	2,08
Jute mill machinery	1,30	1,44	81	32	36
Wool machinery	2	6	1	1	3
Typewriters, including parts and accessories.	32	26	25	13	7
Printing and lithographing presses ..	24	23	14	15	9
Belting for machinery	83	90	64	50	53

Motor vehicles (Rs. 2,43 lakhs).—As might be expected from the state of general trade and the income of the people, the use of motor vehicles was greatly restricted during the year. There was, therefore, a continuation of the decrease in the imports of motor vehicles into India, but of these reduced imports, the percentage share of the United Kingdom showed a noticeable expansion. The improvement in the British proportion in the total importation, which was in evidence since the suspension of the gold standard by Great Britain in September 1931, was greatly accentuated during 1932-33, especially in the latter half of the year. The total imports of motor cars in 1932-33 numbered 6,201 valued at Rs. 1,29 lakhs as compared with 7,220 valued at Rs. 1,48 lakhs in 1931-32 and 12,601 valued at Rs. 2,58 lakhs in 1930-31. The number of British cars advanced from 2,178 or 30 per cent. (valued at Rs. 50½ lakhs) in 1931-32 to 3,958 or 64 per cent. (valued at Rs. 80 lakhs) in 1932-33, of which no fewer than 3,076 cars were imported during the second half of the year. The number of cars imported from the United States of America declined from 3,368, valued at Rs. 65 lakhs to 1,201 valued at Rs. 28½ lakhs and of those from Canada fell from 676 valued at Rs. 10 lakhs to 296 valued at Rs. 6 lakhs. The combined imports from these two countries represented only 24 per cent. of the total number of cars imported in 1932-33 as compared with 56 per cent. in 1931-32 and 66 per cent. in 1930-31. This decrease in the purchases of American cars was due to the exchange handicap and to the growing insistence of buyers for greater economy in the cost of maintenance and operation.

Of the total number of cars imported during the year under review 2,525 cars (3,325) were received in Bombay, 1,634 (1,801) in Bengal, 1,004 (860) in Madras, 642 (824) in Sind and 396 (410) in Burma, the corresponding figures for the preceding year being given in brackets.

The number of motor omnibuses, vans, lorries, etc., imported which had receded from 8,913 valued at Rs. 1,42 lakhs in 1930-31 to 4,302 valued at Rs. 67 lakhs in 1931-32 further declined to 2,676 valued at Rs. 41 lakhs in the year under review. Of the total imports in 1932-33, 93 per cent. or 2,484 represented chassis with a total value of Rs. 33 lakhs as against 62 per cent. or 2,685 valued at Rs. 47 lakhs in 1931-32. Here again the share of the United Kingdom improved at the expense of the United States of America and Canada. The following table shows the number of all classes of motor vehicles registered in the different provinces of British India up to the end of March 1933 :—

Number of motor vehicles registered in British India up to 31st March 1933.

Provinces.	Motor cars, including taxi-cabs.	Motor cycles, including scooters and auto-wheels.	Heavy motor vehicles (lorries, buses, etc.)	Total.
	Number.	Number.	Number.	Number.
Bengal including Calcutta ..	36,861	5,168	4,724	46,753
Bombay City (*a*)	8,559	496	932	9,987
Bombay Presidency (excluding Bombay City and Sind) (*a*) ..	10,208	775	46	11,029
Madras City	13,606	3,168	2,094	18,868
Madras Presidency (excluding Madras City) (*a*)	7,251	1,493	5,691	14,435
United Provinces (*b*)	12,117	2,041	4,831	18,989
Punjab	5,415	1,058	4,741	11,214
Burma (*a*) (*b*)	9,842	1,165	5,738	16,745
Bihar and Orissa	11,085	1,495	2,680	15,260
Central Provinces (*a*)	3,077	623	1,658	5,358
Sind	2,046	408	463	2,917
Delhi	6,811	1,241	1,657	9,709
North-West Frontier Province.	3,049	1,509	2,709	7,867
Ajmer-Merwara	742	195	202	1,139
Assam (*b*)	1,947	198	1,606	3,751
Total ..	133,216	21,033	39,772	194,021

(*a*) Actually running.
(*b*) Figures relate to the year ending 31st December 1932.

Hardware (Rs. 2,99 lakhs).—The value of the total imports of hardware which had fallen from Rs. 3,60 lakhs in 1930-31 to Rs. 2,61 lakhs in 1931-32 improved, in 1932-33, to Rs. 2,99 lakhs which was still below the pre-War average of Rs. 3,17 lakhs.

Mineral oils (Rs. 6,70 lakhs).—Imports of all kinds of mineral oils into India declined from 216.6 million gallons in 1931-32 to 187.8 million gallons in 1932-33. Imports of kerosene oil decreased from 85.7 million gallons to 59.5 million gallons, and petrol from 13 million gallons to 5 million gallons. Imports of fuel oil rose from 100.8 million gallons to 104.5 million gallons, and batching oil from 7 million gallons to 9 million gallons.

Sugar (Rs. 4,23 lakhs).—Imports of sugar all sorts, excluding molasses, decreased from 516,000 tons in 1931-32 to 370,000 tons in 1932-33, thus showing a decline of 146,000 tons or 28 per cent. The decline in value was from Rs. 6,01 lakhs to Rs. 4,12 lakhs or 31 per cent. The imports in the year 1929-30 were 940,000 tons valued at Rs. 15,52 lakhs. Imports of sugar 23 D. S. and above decreased from 365,000 tons valued at Rs. 4,42 lakhs in 1931-32 to 327,000 tons valued at Rs. 3,67 lakhs in 1932-33. The main fall was in the imports from Java, which amounted to 295,000 tons as compared with 336,000 tons in the preceding year. Imports from the United Kingdom went up from about 4,000 tons to 12,000 tons.

The total amount of beet sugar imported during the year was 41,000 tons valued at Rs. 42 lakhs as compared with 118,000 tons valued at Rs. 1,25 lakhs in the preceding year. Imports from the United Kingdom increased from 19,000 tons valued at Rs. 23 lakhs in 1931-32 to 23,000 tons valued at Rs. 24 lakhs in 1932-33. Imports from Russia, on the other hand, went down from 68,000 tons valued at Rs. 66 lakhs to 9,000 tons valued at Rs. 9 lakhs. Imports from Poland dried up completely and those from Germany amounted to 249 tons only as compared with 15,000 tons and 11,000 tons in the preceding year.

Provisions (Rs. 2,93 lakhs).—Under this comprehensive head, which covers a large variety of articles such as canned and bottled provisions, farinaceous and patent foods, condensed milk, biscuits and cakes, confectionery, bacon and ham, cheese, jams and jellies, pickles

and sauces, butter, cocoa and chocolate, isinglass, ghi, lard and vinegar, the total value of the imports recorded showed a further decline from Rs. 341 lakhs in 1931-32 to Rs. 293 lakhs in 1932-33.

Chemicals (Rs. 2,71 lakhs).—The total imports of chemicals (excluding chemical manures and medicines) in 1932-33 were valued at Rs. 2,71 lakhs, an increase of Rs. 14 lakhs in comparison with 1931-32. Sodium compounds accounted for 47 per cent. of the total imports of chemicals as in 1931-32 and amounted to 1,639,000 cwts. valued at Rs. 1,28 lakhs as compared with 1,515,000 cwts. valued at Rs. 1,21 lakhs in the preceding year. Imports of sodium carbonate amounted to 1,103,000 cwts. (Rs. 65 lakhs) as compared with 1,016,000 cwts. (Rs. 62 lakhs), the United Kingdom, as usual, remaining the chief source of supply. The total consignments of caustic soda, drawn chiefly from the United Kingdom, Russia and the United States of America, rose from 261,000 cwts. valued at Rs. 32 lakhs to 285,000 cwts. valued at Rs. 34 lakhs. Among other descriptions of sodium compounds, the quantities of sodium bichromate, sodium sulphide and borax showed increases part of which was counterbalanced by decreases under sodium silicate, sodium cyanide and sodium bicarbonate. Imports of acids further declined from 29,000 cwts. to 26,000 cwts. in quantity and from about Rs. 8½ lakhs to Rs. 7½ lakhs in value.

Drugs and Medicines (Rs. 1,86 Lakhs).—The total value of drugs and medicines imported recorded a fall of 3 per cent. from Rs. 1,91 lakhs in 1931-32 to Rs. 1,86 lakhs in 1932-33. Imports of camphor fell from 1,933,000 lbs. valued at Rs. 29 lakhs to 1,753,000 lbs. valued at Rs. 25 lakhs.

Paper and Pasteboard (Rs. 2,86 Lakhs).—The total imports of paper and pasteboard increased from 2,191,000 cwts. valued at Rs. 2,50 lakhs in 1931-32 to 2,640,000 cwts. valued at Rs. 2,86 lakhs in 1932-33, of which 2,220,000 cwts. (Rs. 2,49 lakhs) represent paper of all kinds as against 1,915,000 cwts. (Rs. 2,24 lakhs) in the preceding year. Imports of printing paper amounted to 679,000 cwts. valued at Rs. 83 lakhs as compared with 616,000 cwts. valued at Rs. 80 lakhs in 1931-32. Both newsprinting and other kinds of paper recorded increases the former rising from 399,000 cwts. valued at Rs. 45 lakhs to 457,000 cwts. valued at Rs. 47½ lakhs and the latter from 217,000 cwts. valued at Rs. 35 lakhs to 223,000 cwts. valued at Rs. 36 lakhs.

Liquors (Rs. 2,26 Lakhs).—Imports of liquors in 1932-33 did not show any great variation in comparison with the preceding year and totalled 5.4 million gallons valued at Rs. 2,26 lakhs as against 5.7 million gallons valued at Rs. 2,27 lakhs in 1931-32. Compared with 1930-31, the imports showed a much greater decline being less by 25 per cent. in quantity and by 32 per cent. in value. Of the total quantity of liquors imported, ale, beer and porter accounted for 69 per cent. spirit for 28 per cent. and wines for only 3 per cent. Imports of ale, beer and porter remained almost unchanged at 3,718,000 gallons.

Salt (Rs. 79 Lakhs).—The imports of foreign salt by sea into British India advanced by 2 per cent. in quantity from 451,000 tons in 1931-32 to 544,000 tons in 1932-33 and by 10 per cent. in value from Rs. 72 lakhs to Rs. 79 lakhs. With the exception of Aden, the principal source of supply, almost all the other countries sent more than in the preceding year. Of the total quantity imported in 1932-33 nearly 285,000 tons or 52 per cent. came from Aden as compared with 314,000 tons or 70 per cent. of the total in the preceding year. Germany raised her supplies from 26,000 tons to 57,000 tons, Spain from 4,000 tons to 28,000 tons and Italian East Africa from 67,000 tons to 103,000 tons. There were also larger receipts from Egypt which amounted to 40,000 tons as against 15,000 tons in 1931-32, while the United Kingdom slightly reduced her supplies from 26,000 tons to 25,000 tons.

Dyeing and Tanning Substances (Rs. 2,50 Lakhs).—Imports of dyeing and tanning substances showed a decline, the total value amounting in 1932-33 to Rs. 2,50 lakhs, a decrease of Rs. 18 lakhs in comparison with 1931-32 and of Rs. 9 lakhs in comparison with 1930-31. Coal-tar dyes, representing the bulk of the imports under this head, showed a decrease from 17·9 million lbs. valued at Rs. 2,33 lakhs to 13·0 million lbs. valued at Rs. 2,17 lakhs. This set-back was due almost entirely to a decrease in the imports of dyes other than alizarine from 15 million lbs. to 10·6 million lbs. in quantity and from Rs. 2,15 lakhs to Rs. 1,99 lakhs in value. Imports under this head represented 84 per cent. of the total imports of coal-tar dyes as against 83 per cent. in 1931-32. Imports of alizarine dyes showed a decline of about 910,000 lbs. in comparison with the imports of the previous year, which had been returned at 3·2 million lbs. but the value recorded declined slightly from Rs. 18 lakhs to Rs. 17 lakhs.

Spices (Rs. 1,72 Lakhs).—There was a slight increase in the imports of spices, the quantity of which in 1932-33 amounted to 1,272,000 cwts. as against 1,270,000 cwts. in 1931-32. The value, however, showed a further decline from Rs. 2,08 lakhs to Rs. 1,72 lakhs. Betel-nuts showed an increase in quantity from 1,101,000 cwts. to 1,117,000 cwts. but the value fell off from Rs. 1,45 lakhs to Rs. 1,19 lakhs.

Glass and Glassware (Rs. 1,42 Lakhs).—The total value of the imports of glass and glassware amounted to Rs. 1,42 lakhs as compared with Rs. 1,22 lakhs in 1931-32. Almost all the important descriptions under this head recorded improvements. Of the principal countries participating in this trade Japan retained the foremost position and the value of her supplies advanced to Rs. 65 lakhs in 1932-33 from Rs. 42 lakhs in 1931-32 and Rs. 55 lakhs in 1930-31.

Tobacco (Rs. 97 Lakhs).—Imports of unmanufactured tobacco which had improved from 1·6 million lbs. in 1930-31 to 2·8 million lbs. in 1931-32 advanced further to 5·1 million lbs. in the year under review and exceeded those in 1929-30 by half a million lbs. Supplies from the United States of America accounted for 91 per cent. of the total quantity imported in

1932-33 as against 87 per cent. in the preceding year and totalled 4.7 million lbs. as compared with 2.5 million lbs. in 1931-32.

Precious Stones and Pearls (Rs. 84 lakhs).—The trade in precious stones and pearls showed signs of a slight recovery, the value of the consignments having risen from the abnormally low level *viz.*, Rs. 45 lakhs recorded in 1931-32 to Rs. 84 lakhs in 1932-33. Of these, diamonds accounted for Rs. 71 lakhs and pearls, unset for Rs. 10½ lakhs as compared with Rs. 32 lakhs and Rs. 10¾ lakhs respectively in 1931-32. The imports of other precious stones were comparatively small, being valued at Rs. 2½ lakhs in 1932-33 as against Rs. 2 lakhs in the preceding year.

Cement (Rs. 29 lakhs).—Imports of cement showed a further decline from 88,000 tons to 83,000 tons in quantity and from Rs. 41 lakhs to Rs. 29 lakhs in value. The bulk of the consignments during the year came from Japan, supplies from which source amounted to 39,000 tons (Rs. 8 lakhs) as against 29,000 tons (Rs. 9½ lakhs) in 1931-32. There was a further falling off in the contribution of the United Kingdom from 45,000 tons valued at Rs. 25 lakhs to 34,000 tons valued at Rs. 17 lakhs.

Coal (Rs. 6½ lakhs).—Imports of foreign coal declined by 37 per cent. in quantity from 56,000 tons in 1931-32 to 35,000 tons in 1932-33 and by 42 per cent. in value from Rs. 11¼ lakhs to Rs. 6½ lakhs. Bombay, the largest consumer of imported coal, reduced her takings from 28,000 tons to 11,000 tons. The following table shows the sources of the imports of foreign coal during the past five years:—

—	1928-29	1929-30	1930-31	1931-32	1932-33
	Tons	Tons	Tons	Tons	Tons
United Kingdom	39,000	19,000	23,000	24,000	16,000
Natal	105,000	197,000	121,000	23,000	14,000
Japan	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	..
Portuguese East Africa ..	21,000	..	5,000	..	..
Australia	1,000	2,000	1,000	4,000	3,000

III.—EXPORTS OF MERCHANDISE.

The following table shows the comparative importance of the principal articles exported from British India:—

EXPORTS.

(*In thousands of Rupees.*)

—	1928-29.	1929-30.	1930-31.	1931-32.	1932-33.	Percentage on total exports of merchandise in 1932-33.
Jute, raw	32,34,92	27,17,38	12,88,47	11,18,81	9,73,03	7.35
Jute manufactures ..	56,90,49	51,92,68	31,89,44	21,92,42	21,71,18	16.40
Cotton, raw and waste	66,69,10	65,60,35	46,72,65	23,78,19	20,69,95	15.63
Cotton manufactures ..	7,79,56	7,18,67	5,21,54	4,81,83	3,29,11	2.49
Tea	26,60,44	26,00,64	23,55,93	19,43,74	17,15,28	12.96
Grain, pulse and flour ..	33,69,42	34,79,16	29,88,19	20,37,18	16,07,69	12.14
Seeds	29,62,52	26,46,76	17,86,18	14,58,83	11,30,68	8.54
Leather	9,44,32	8,16,24	6,39,11	5,35,20	4,76,42	3.60
Metals and ores	8,91,03	10,33,96	7,94,04	5,47,10	4,68,18	3.54
Hides and skins, raw ..	9,55,98	7,98,27	5,46,63	3,65,71	2,76,87	2.09
Paraffin wax	2,45,54	3,17,69	2,81,83	2,31,74	2,01,88	1.52
Oilcakes	3,84,18	3,11,92	2,08,05	2,00,68	1,96,51	1.48
Wool, raw and manufactures	5,90,71	5,33,54	3,23,25	3,36,73	1,91,10	1.44
Lac	8,64,26	6,96,72	3,13,74	1,83,94	1,24,24	.94
Coffee	1,69,25	1,45,40	1,91,86	94,50	1,09,81	.83
Tobacco	1,29,47	1,06,42	1,03,65	85,42	77,11	.58
Dyeing and tanning substances	1,18,05	1,11,57	1,08,23	86,94	77,43	.57
Spices	1,58,80	1,96,39	1,27,19	87,25	72,33	.55
Fodder, bran and pollards	1,44,93	1,18,63	76,76	75,14	70,29	.53
Fruits and vegetables ..	96,15	90,62	79,75	90,32	69,52	.53
Coir	1,06,27	1,04,68	88,56	75,58	60,24	.45

EXPORTS—*contd.*

(*In thousands of Rupees.*)

	1928-29.	1929-30.	1930-31.	1931-32.	1932-33.	Percentage on total exports of merchandise in 1932-33
Wood and timber	1,76,86	1,80,07	1,40,47	78,47	56,18	.42
Oils	86,63	72,33	47,24	57,23	53,79	.41
Fish (excluding canned fish	78,24	73,81	68,33	54,24	45,71	.35
Coal and coke	71,83	72,06	49,35	54,91	44,19	.33
Boned for manufacturing purios	62,32	75,27	71,25	45,14	34,82	.26
Provisons and oilman's stores	64,48	60,40	49,95	39,55	32,62	.25
Hemp, raw	87,52	68,33	39,30	26,90	32,16	.24
Mica	90,47	1,03,08	67,59	39,36	31,52	.24
Drugs and medicines	41,61	48,45	20,92	23,10	31,26	.24
Fibre for brushes and brooms	25,92	28,15	25,51	20,43	24,02	.18
Manures	59,84	49,68	51,30	38,39	20,39	.15
Bristles	15,04	14,26	10,98	11,66	13,65	.10
Saltpetre	9,90	8,87	7,52	10,58	12,26	.09
Opium	1,57,42	1,42,00	1,22,07	86,93	11,25	.08
Animals, living	39,95	36,80	26,00	14,99	10,10	.08
Building and Engineering materials other than of iron, steel or wood	15,15	14,99	10,39	7,47	9,24	.07
Apparel	17,62	24,52	16,12	10,33	8,93	.07
Rubber, raw	1,99,85	1,78,88	1,29,75	44,58	8,78	.07
Cordage and rope	16,02	14,10	10,45	8,54	7,73	.06
Candles	9,33	10,91	6,46	4,05	4,74	.04
Silk, raw and manufactures	32,17	32,31	10,06	3,34	3,18	.02
Horns, tips, etc.	7,96	7,53	3,54	1,36	2,48	.02
Sugar	5,48	3,68	2,51	1,92	2,10	.02
Tallow, stearine and wax	7,97	7,95	7,38	3,79	1,97	.01
All other articles	4,67,82	4,54,43	3,71,77	2,94,35	2,70,65	2.04
TOTAL VALUE OF EXPORTS	3,30,12,79	3,10,80,55	2,20,49,26	1,55,88,86	1,32,40,57	100

Cotton (Rs. 23.45 Lakhs).—In Indian Cotton crop of the season 1932-33 was estimated at 4,516,000 bales of 400 lbs. each as compared with 4,025,000 bales in the preceding year. The comparatively high parity of Indian cotton led to its gradual replacement by American cotton in Japan and in the Orient in general. The world consumption of Indian cotton for the 12 months ending January 31, 1933 amounted to just over 4 million bales and was far short of the normal annual consumption of 5½ million bales. The high parity thus discouraged the consumption of Indian cotton abroad. Consequently, exports of Indian cotton naturally decreased in the year under review as compared with the preceding year. Exports of Indian cotton in 1932-33 amounted to 2,063,000 bales as compared with 2,369,000 bales in 1931-32 and 4,070,000 bales in 1929-30; and 1932-33 gave the lowest figure of export in the post-War period. The value of the exports amounted to Rs. 20,37 lakhs as compared with Rs. 23,45 lakhs in the preceding year. Japan as usual, was India's biggest customer and her share amounted to 1,085,000 bales valued at Rs. 11,12 lakhs as compared with 1,080,000 bales valued at Rs. 11,05 lakhs in the preceding year. China took only 134,000 bales valued at Rs. 1,33 lakhs as compared with 437,000 bales valued at Rs. 4,52 lakhs. The United Kingdom slightly increased her takings to 167,000 bales valued at Rs. 1,61 lakhs as compared with 166,000 bales valued at Rs. 1,54 lakhs in the preceding year. Exports to Italy declined from 183,000 bales valued at Rs. 1,62 lakhs in 1931-32 to 150,000 bales valued at Rs. 1,44 lakhs in 1932-33. Exports to Belgium, France and Spain rose from 121,000, 81,000 and 45,000 bales to 129,000, 124,000 and 52,000 bales respectively. The following statement gives the monthly exports of Indian

cotton during the last five years together with the pre-War average :—

Exports of Indian cotton in bales of 400 lbs.

(In thousands of Rupees.)

	Pre-war average 1909-14.	1928-29	1929-30	1930-31	1931-32	1932-33
April	303,600	323,600	386,300	424,700	307,300	95,000
May	248,800	372,800	404,900	341,700	283,400	135,400
June	218,900	304,900	382,200	244,500	260,600	121,800
July	190,100	285,200	318,700	258,900	212,300	100,400
August	110,300	216,000	231,300	250,700	259,900	83,300
September	75,300	191,200	211,400	286,800	111,200	163,100
October	66,800	254,000	176,100	223,700	111,300	120,500
November	101,400	175,700	207,200	226,900	135,900	121,500
December	158,200	272,300	297,600	357,000	191,400	164,600
January	319,800	400,200	452,700	438,900	168,000	267,200
February	318,300	356,300	493,500	433,300	159,700	373,800
March	295,800	559,500	508,500	438,900	168,200	316,000
Total ..	2,407,300	3,711,700	4,070,400	3,926,000	2,369,200	2,062,600

Cotton Manufactures (Rs. 3,29 Lakhs).—Exports of yarn amounted to 15 million lbs. as compared with 22 million lbs. in the preceding year. The exports of Indian piecegoods declined from 105 million yards to 66 million yards. Exports to most of the countries showed considerable decreases. Persia took only 8 million yards in the year under review as compared with 20 million yards in the preceding year. Similarly, exports to Ceylon amounted to 13 million yards in 1932-33 as compared with 17 million yards in 1931-32. The shares of Iraq, Tanganyika Territory and Arabia declined from 13, 11 and 6 million yards in 1931-32 to 5, 6 and 4 million yards respectively in 1932-33. The shares of most other countries also showed declines.

The total value of the piecegoods exported in 1932-33 declined from Rs. 3,24 lakhs to Rs. 2,09 lakhs. Grey goods accounted for Rs. 13 lakhs, coloured goods Rs. 1,95 lakhs and white goods for a little over Rs. 1 lakh.

Detailed figures of exports for the past three years compared with 1913-14 are given below:—

	1913-14 (pre-war year)	1930-31	1931-32	1932-33
Grey and bleached piece-goods—	Million yards.	Million yards.	Million yards.	Million yards.
Shirtings	2.2	3.9	4.1	1.7
Chaddars and duties	7.6	2.1	2.3	1.9
T. cloth and domestics	21.6	1.3	.6	.4
Drills and jeans	.6	.1	.1	.2
Other sorts	12.2	2.8	1.7	.8
TOTAL ..	44.2	10.2	8.8	5.0
Coloured piece-goods	45.0	87.5	95.8	61.4
TOTAL PIECE-GOODS ..	89.2	97.7	104.6	66.4

Jute and Jute Manufacturers (Rs. 31,44 lakhs).—The total area under jute in 1932 was estimated at 2,143,000 acres as compared with 1,862,000 acres in the preceding year. The yield for the 1932 crop was estimated to be 5,845,000 bales since revised to 7,097,000 bales of 400 lbs. each as against 5,567,000 bales in the preceding year. The total weight of raw and manufactured jute exported during the year amounted to 1,243,000 tons, or 7,000 tons less than in the preceding year. The total value declined from a little over Rs. 33 crores in 1931-32 to nearly Rs. 31½ crores in 1932-33, a drop of Rs. 1½ crores. Raw jute accounted for 31 per cent. of the value and jute manufactures for 69 per cent. as compared with 34 per cent. and 66 per cent. respectively in the preceding year. The following statement compares the quantities exported during the year 1913-14 and each of the past three years:—

	1913-14	1930-31	1931-32	1932-33
Jute (in thousand tons)	768	620	587	563
Bags (in millions)	369	434	389	415
Cloth (in million yards)	1,061	1,271	1,021	1,012

The quantity of raw jute exported was 4 per cent. less than in the preceding year and 27 per cent. less than in the pre-War year 1913-14. Exports of gunny bags increased in number from 389 millions to 415 millions, but those of gunny cloth declined slightly from 1,021 million yards to 1,012 million yards. The production Indian mill consumption and exports of raw jute for the last 20 years are given in table No. 29 and detailed figures of exports of manufactures are given in tables Nos. 30A and 30B.

The total exports of raw jute declined from 587,000 tons valued at Rs. 11 crores in 1931-32 to 563,000 tons valued at Rs. 9¼ crores in 1932-33. Exports to Germany amounted to 123,000 tons valued at Rs. 2,14 lakhs in 1932-33 as compared with 131,000 tons valued at Rs. 2,44 lakhs in 1931-32. The share of the United Kingdom in the year under review decreased to 130,000 tons valued at Rs. 2,24 lakhs from 154,000 tons valued at Rs. 3,11 lakhs. Exports to France amounted to 69,000 tons valued at Rs. 1,16 lakhs in 1932-33 as compared with 52,000 tons valued at Rs. 99 lakhs in 1931-32. Spain took 42,000 tons as compared with 36,000 tons in the preceding year, whereas the United States of America, Italy and Belgium reduced their shares from 49,000, 44,000 and 46,000 tons to 36,000, 37,000 and 39,000 tons respectively.

Foodgrains and flour (Rs. 16,08 lakhs).—The exports under this head declined considerably in the year under review, both in quantity and value, as compared with the preceding year. The total quantity of foodgrains and flour exported amounted to 2,056,000 tons valued at Rs. 16,08 lakhs as compared with 2,614,000 tons valued at Rs. 20,37 lakhs in the preceding year. Exports of rice declined from 2,372,000 tons to 1,887,000 tons. Consignments of wheat dwindled to the paltry figure of 2,000 tons as compared with 20,000 tons in the preceding year and 197,000 tons in 1930-31. Decreases were also noticeable in the shipments of wheat flour, barley, and jowar and bajra from 43,000, 27,000 and 59,000 tons in 1931-32 to 21,000, 17,000 and 16,000 tons respectively in 1932-33. The only increase in exports was in the case of pulses from 93,000 tons to 111,000 tons. There were no exports of maize as in the preceding year.

Tea (Rs. 17,15 lakhs).—The total production of tea in India in 1932 was estimated, as remarked above, at 433 million lbs. as compared with 394 million lbs. in 1931, 391 million lbs. in 1930 and 433 million lbs. in 1929. As usual, Assam contributed the largest share, *viz.*, 257 million lbs. or 60 per cent. of the total output and Southern India 62 million lbs. or 14 per cent. Production in Assam increased by 13.8 million lbs. and in the rest of Northern India by about 19.6 million lbs. The total area under tea in 1932 was 807,500 acres as against 806,700 acres in 1931.

The total shipments of tea during the year recorded an advanced of 11 per cent. in quantity, but the value fell by 12 per cent. There were no exports of green tea during the year and the entire quantity of 379 million lbs. consisted of black tea. Exports to the United Kingdom improved from 291 million lbs. to 331 million lbs., but the value recorded a decline from Rs. 17 crores to Rs. 15 crores. The share of the United Kingdom was 87 per cent. of India's total exports as compared with 85 per cent. in the preceding year. Re-exports of Indian tea from the United Kingdom amounted to 40 million lbs. in 1932-33 as against 50 million lbs. in 1931-32. Stocks in London amounted to 187 million lbs. at the end of the year as compared with 139 million lbs. at the corresponding date of the preceding year. Re-exports of Indian tea from the United Kingdom to the Irish Free State were 14.6 million lbs. as against 17.8 million lbs. a year ago. Re-exports to Russia amounted to 6.3 million lbs. in the year

under review as compared with 3.8 million lbs. in the preceding year. Direct shipments to Russia recorded a slight decline from 3.5 million lbs. to 2.9 million lbs. in 1932-33. Thus the total exports of Indian tea to Russia advanced from 7.3 million lbs. in 1931-32 to 9.2 million lbs. in 1932-33. From the London market other European countries took Indian tea to the extent of 8.7 million lbs. as compared with 10.8 million lbs. in the preceding year. Re-exports from the United Kingdom to the United States of America contracted from 7.9 million lbs. in 1931-32 to 6 million lbs. in 1932-33. Direct shipments to the United States of America, however, advanced from 9.8 million lbs. to 11.1 million lbs. Thus the total exports to the United States of America declined slightly from 17·7 million lbs. to 17·1 million lbs. Re-exports from the United Kingdom to Canada and Newfoundland fell from 6·9 million lbs. in 1931-32 to 3·2 million lbs. in the year under review. Direct shipments to Canada, however, showed an increase from 14·1 million lbs. to 16·7 million lbs. Exports to China fell away from 1·2 million lbs. to 4,500 lbs. only. Exports to Australia, including New Zealand also dropped from 3·5 million lbs. to 2·8 million lbs. and to Egypt from 3·3 million lbs. to 2 million lbs. Exports to Persia declined from 2 million lbs. to 1·5 million lbs.

Exports of tea by sea to foreign countries.

—	1906-07	1915-16	1927-28	1928-29	1929-30	1930-31	1931-32	1932-33
	lbs. (1,000)	lbs. (1,000)	lbs. (1,000)	lbs. (1,000)	lbs. (1,000)	lbs. (1,000)	lbs. (1,000)	lbs. (1,000)
From Northern India (Calcutta and Chittagong).	217,931	301,403	315,109	369,845	326,363	307,147	295,294	323,825
From Southern India (Madras Ports) ..	13,980	25,830	45,744	49,321	49,671	48,575	45,901	54,897
From Bombay, Sind and Burma.	1,743	11,227	761	436	600	517	323	500,115
TOTAL ..	233,654	338,470	361,614	359,602	376,634	356,239	341,518	878,837

Oilseeds (Rs. 11,31 lakhs).—The total exports of Indian oilseeds declined by 26 per cent. in quantity from 988,000 tons in 1931-32 to 733,000 tons in 1932-33 and by 22 per cent. in value from Rs. 14,59 lakhs to Rs. 11,31 lakhs. An examination of the detailed figures given on the margin shows that there has been a substantial decline in the exports of all the principal oil-bearing seeds with the exception of rapeseed.

The following are the quantities of oilseed exported in recent years :—

—	Pre-war average.	1930-31.	1931-32.	1932-33
	(Thousands of tons.)			
Linseed ..	379	257	120	72
Rapeseed ..	273	33	54	115
Groundnuts	212	601	672	433
Castor ..	114	91	104	86
Cotton ..	240	41	12	2
Sesamum ..	119	1	12	10
Copra ..	31	..	..	..
Others ..	85	13	14	15
TOTAL ..	1,453	1,037	988	733

Hides and Skins (Rs. 7,43 lakhs).—The trade under this head has been progressively smaller in the last two or three years. The total value of the trade has fallen from Rs. 8,92 lakhs in 1931-32 to Rs. 7,43 lakhs in the year under review, a fall of 16 per cent. The main reason for this decline, as explained in earlier issues of this Review, is the trade depression, which led to a reduction in the demand for hides and skins. The average declared value for raw hides and skins declined from 7 as. 9 p. to 7 as. 2 p., whereas in the case of tanned hides and skins, the decline was from Rs. 1-7-10 per lb. to Rs. 1-7-0 per lb. Shipments of raw hides and skins during the year amounted to 27,300 tons valued at Rs. 2,77 lakhs as compared with 33,600 tons valued at Rs. 3,66 lakhs in the preceding year. Exports of raw hides declined from 16,600 tons valued at Rs. 91 lakhs in 1931-32 to 13,300 tons valued at Rs. 63 lakhs in 1932-33. Exports of raw skins declined in weight from 16,500 tons to 13,300 tons. The total value of the consignments declined from Rs. 2,74 lakhs in 1931-32 to Rs. 2,14 lakhs in 1932-33. Exports of tanned or dressed hides or skins decreased from 15,700 tons valued at Rs. 5,26 lakhs in 1931-32 to 14,500 tons valued at Rs. 4,66 lakhs in 1932-33. Exports of tanned hides amounted to 9,000 tons valued at Rs. 1,62 lakhs in the year under review as compared with 10,300 tons valued at Rs. 2,13 lakhs in the preceding year. There was a slight increase in the exports of tanned skins from 5,400 to 5,500 tons, but the value showed a decline from Rs. 3,14 lakhs in 1931-32 to Rs. 3,04 lakhs in 1932-33.

Lac (Rs. 1,24 lakhs).—Business in the lac markets abroad continued to decline, the depressed conditions in the large consuming industries being pronounced throughout the year

The total exports of lac fell by 10 per cent. in quantity from 464,000 cwts. in 1931-32 to 418,000 cwts. in 1932-33 and by 33 per cent. in value from Rs. 1,84 lakhs to Rs. 1,24 lakhs. the decrease being noticeable in the case of shellac, button lac and stick lac.

Raw Wool (Rs. 1,23 lakhs).—The trade in Indian raw wool received a setback, the exports falling from 41 million lbs. to 32 million lbs. in quantity and from Rs. 2,77 lakhs to Rs. 1,23 lakhs in value. Of the total quantity shipped the United Kingdom took 28 million lbs. or 87 per cent. as compared with 35 million lbs. or 85 per cent. in the preceding year, while the remainder went mainly to the United States of America and, to a less extent, to Germany and other Continental countries. Besides Indian wool, a fairly large quantity of foreign wool of Tibetan and Central Asian origin is imported across the frontier and then re-exported from India.

Oils (Rs. 54 lakhs).—The total exports of oils, consisting mostly of vegetable oils, were valued at Rs. 54 lakhs in 1932-33 as compared with Rs. 57 lakhs in 1931-32. Shipments of vegetable oils increased from 1,900,000 gallons valued at Rs. 30 lakhs to 2,444,000 gallons valued at Rs. 38 lakhs. Exports of castor oil continued to increase and amounted to 1,125,000 gallons valued at Rs. 17 lakhs as compared with 982,000 gallons valued at Rs. 15 lakhs in the preceding year and 477,000 gallons valued at Rs. 9 lakhs in 1930-31. Exports of groundnut oil showed a remarkable expansion and totalled 917,000 gallons in 1932-33 as compared with 455,000 gallons in 1931-32 and 166,000 gallons in 1930-31. Despatches of coconut oil declined from 36,000 gallons in 1931-32 to 29,000 gallons in 1932-33.

Metals and Ores (Rs. 4,68 lakhs).—The total exports of ores amounted to 227,000 tons valued at Rs. 1,36 lakhs in 1932-33 as compared with 235,000 tons valued at Rs. 1,47 lakhs in 1931-32. Exports of manganese ore which represent about 87 per cent. of the total quantity of ores exported were even lower than the poor record of the preceding year and totalled 198,000 tons as compared with 212,000 tons in 1931-32 and 486,000 tons in 1930-31. As usual, France was the largest purchaser, but she reduced her takings from 80,000 tons to 75,000 tons. Shipments to Belgium also declined from 35,000 tons to 32,000 tons. Exports to the United Kingdom, which had fallen from 114,000 tons in 1930-31 to 54,000 tons in 1931-32, improved to 55,000 tons in the year under review. A noticeable feature of the trade was the increased participation of Japan, which took 31,000 tons in 1932-33 as against 6,000 tons in the preceding year. There were smaller shipments to Germany and the Netherlands, amounting to 1,300 tons and 2,000 tons respectively. Exports to the United States of America, which had declined from 49,000 tons in 1930-31 to 28,000 tons in 1931-32, ceased altogether in the year under review. The export trade in manganese ore was largely confined to Bengal and Bombay, the former accounting for 69 per cent. and the latter 23 per cent. as compared with 70 and 30 per cent. respectively in the preceding year, the remainder being shipped from Madras. There were no exports of ferro-manganese and ferruginous manganese ore during 1932-33.

Exports of pig iron further declined by 38 per cent. in quantity from 351,000 tons in 1931-32 to 218,000 tons in 1932-33 and by 40 per cent. in value from Rs. 1,23 lakhs to Rs. 74 lakhs. Normally, Japan is the best purchaser of Indian pig iron, but her takings were considerably reduced from 188,000 tons in 1931-32 to 72,000 tons in the year under review. It may be pointed out that in June 1932 Japan raised the import duty on pig iron from 1·70 yen to 6·00 yen per ton. India has been the principal exporter of this material to Japan and the enhancement of the duty has led to a substantial reduction of exports to that country. Exports to the United States of America also declined from 108,000 tons in 1930-31 to 51,000 tons in 1931-32 and further to 33,000 tons in 1932-33. These losses were to some extent compensated by increased shipments to the United Kingdom, which amounted to 76,000 tons in 1932-33 as against 69,000 tons in the preceding year. Exports to China also showed an advance from 15,000 tons to 17,000 tons, while those to Germany declined from 13,000 tons to 8,000 tons. The following table shows the production of pig iron and steel in India during the past three years:—

(In thousand tons.)

——	1930-31.	1931-32.	1932-33.
Production of pig iron	1,140	1,070	880
,, ,, steel (ingots)	625	602	591
Production of finished steel	434	450	427

Other Exports.—Other important exports from India include paraffin wax (Rs. 2,02 lakhs); oilcakes (Rs. 1,96 lakhs); Coffee (Rs. 1,10 lakhs); spices (Rs. 72 lakhs); teakwood (Rs. 40 lakhs); dyeing and tanning substances (Rs. 75 lakhs); unmanufactured tobacco (Rs. 73 lakhs).

Index Numbers of Prices.

The Director General of Commercial Intelligence, Calcutta, publishes from time to time an addendum to the publication Index Numbers of Indian Prices 1861-1926 which brings up-to-date (1) the unweighted index numbers of 28 exported articles; (2) the unweighted index numbers of 11 imported articles; (3) the general un-weighted index number for 39 articles and (4) the weighted index numbers of 100 articles on base 1873-100.

The following table contains these index numbers since the year 1925 :—

Year.	Exported articles 28 (un-weighted).	Imported articles 11 (un-weighted).	General Index No. for all (39) Articles (un-weighted).	Weighted Index No. (100) Articles equated to 100 for 1873.
1925	233	211	227	265
1926	225	195	216	260
1927	209	185	202	258
1928	212	171	201	261
1930	216	170	203	254
1931	177	157	171	213
1932	125	140	128	..
.. .. ..	120	144	..	..

Besides the above wholesale price index numbers, the Director General of Commercial Intelligence, Calcutta, compiles a wholesale price index number for Calcutta while the Bombay Labour Office compiles similar statistics for Bombay and Karachi.

The following table gives these index numbers since 1925.

Wholesale price index numbers for Calcutta, Bombay and Karachi (*Base* 1914).

Year.	Calcutta.	Bombay.	Karachi.
1925	159	163	151
1926	148	149	140
1927	148	147	137
1928	145	146	137
1930	141	145	133
1931	116	126	108
1932	96	109	95
1933	91	109	99
.. ..	87	98	97

About the end of the year 1929 there began a sharp decline in wholesale prices which continued during 1930 and 1931. During 1932 although wholesale prices were slightly lower than in 1931, the fluctuations were within narrow limits. In 1933 prices again recorded a considerable fall.

The various Provincial Governments publish in their respective *Gazettes* fortnightly and monthly statements of retail and wholesale prices of certain important commodities. In addition to these, however, some of the Provincial Governments also publish working class cost of living index numbers. Such index numbers are being published regularly every month for the following centres; for Bombay, Ahmedabad, and Sholapur by the Labour Office of the Government of Bombay; for Nagpur and Jubbulpore by the Department of Industries, Central Provinces and Berar; for seven centres in Bihar and Orissa by the Department of Industries, Bihar and Orissa, and for Rangoon by the Office of the Director of Statistics and Labour Commissioner, Burma, Rangoon.

The Bombay working class *cost of living* Index number with base July 1914-100 stood at 931 in December 1933, the average for the year being 103. The Ahmedabad cost of Living index number with base August 1926 to July 1927-100 stood at 71 in December 1933 while the Sholapur cost of living index number with base February 1927 to January 1928-100 stood at 68 in December 1933. The Nagpur cost of living index number on base January 1927-100 was 59 in November 1933 while the Jubbulpore Index on the same base was 55. For Rangoon, four different index numbers with base 1931-100 are compiled for (*a*) Burmese, (*b*) Tamils, Telugus and Oriyas, (*c*) Hindustanis and (*d*) Chittagonians. The Index Number in December 1933 for these were 88, 91, 91 and 87 respectively.

The catastrophic fall in prices which commenced at the end of 1929 continued also during 1931 although with less vigour than in 1930. In 1932 prices ruled at a slightly lower level than in 1931. In 1933 the downward tendency of prices continued.

The inadequacy as also the general unreliability of Indian price statistics has been the subject of comment by many committees and commissions of enquiry and the majority of the Indian Economic Enquiry Committee of 1925 made many suggestions for the improvement of price statistics and advocated the passing of a Census and Statistics Act. This latter suggestion was also endorsed by the Whitley Commission on Indian Labour and the Government of India have already taken up the consideration of the subject. It is to be hoped that Messrs. Bowley and Robertson who have recently arrived here at the invitation of the Government of India will make recommendation for putting Indian price statistics on a sound footing.

Air Routes.

Imperial Airways service provides through transport from Karachi to Europe and London, arriving at Karachi from Europe each Thursday evening where it connects with Indian Trans-Continental Airways whose service departs from Karachi on Thursday evening reaching Jodhpur the same night. Leaving Jodhpur on Friday morning, it proceeds *Via* Delhi and Allahabad, arriving at Calcutta on Friday evening. On Saturday morning it leaves for Rangoon and Singapore.

From Calcutta, Indian National Airways operate a daily service to Dacca and a bi-weekly service to Rangoon *via* intermediate ports.

In the reverse direction, through air transport is provided from Singapore to Karachi by Indian Trans-Continental Airways and on to Europe and London by Imperial Airway's westbound service, leaving Karachi each Wednesday morning.

The Tata Air Mail Service connects at Karachi with Imperial Airway's Eastbound and Westbound services and provides through air transport to Ahmedabad, Bombay, Bellary and Madras.

The following are the Time Tables for the various services :—

East Bound.

		Time (Local (Standard.)	Day.
London, (*Croydon*) ..	Dep.	12.30	Sat.
Paris	Dep.	17.15	,,
Cairo	Dep.	03.00	Tues.
Baghdad	Dep.	03.00	Wed.
Karachi	Arr.	Afternoon	Thurs.

Imperial Airways.

West Bound.

Karachi	Dep.	09.00	Wed.
Baghdad	Dep.	04.30	Fri.
Cairo	Dep.	04.30	Sat.
Paris	Dep.	09.30	Mon.
London, (*Croydon*) ..	Arr.	11.45	,,

Intermediate calls are made at Brindisi, Athens, Mirabella, Alexandria, Gaya, Rutbah, Basra, Koweit, Bahrein, Sharjah and Gwadah in both directions.

The fares from Karachi are as follows :— to Baghdad, £34 ; to Athens £71 ; to London £95. The through fare from Karachi to London allows for a weight of 100 kilos (221 pounds) per passenger, and a passenger is entitled to free conveyance of luggage to the extent of the difference between his own weight and the 221 pounds mentioned above.

If the difference between the weight of the passenger and 221 lbs. is less than 30 lbs. an additional 33 lbs. of luggage may be carried free. The rate for excess luggage is just over twelve shillings per kilo. Children in arms are weighed with and carried under the same tickets as their mothers or nurses, and other children are charged full fare.

Tata Air Mail.

South Bound.

		Time.	Day.
Karachi	Dep.	6.30	Fri.
Ahmedabad ..	Arr.	10.20	,,
	Dep.	10.50	,,
Bombay	Arr.	13.40	,,
	Dep.	14.10	,,
Bellary	Arr.	18.10	,,
	Dep.	6.30	Sat.
Madras	Arr.	9 15	,,

North Bound.

Madras	Dep.	14.00	Mon.
Bellary	Arr.	16.45	,,
	Dep.	6.30	Tues.
Bombay	Arr.	10.30	,,
	Dep.	11.00	,,
Ahmedabad ..	Arr.	13.50	,,
	Dep.	14.20	,,
Karachi	Arr.	18.10	,,

Indian Trans-Continental Airways.

East Bound.

		Time.	Day.
Karachi	Dep.	15.45	Thurs.
Jodhpur	,,	05.00	Fri.
Delhi	,,	08.15	,,
Cawnpore	,,	10.30	,,
Allahabad	,,	12.15	,,
Calcutta	,,	05.30	Sat.
Akyab	,,	09.30	,,
Rangoon	,,	04.00	Sun.
Bangkok	,,	08.30	,,
Penang	,,	15.00	,,
Kuda Lumpur ..	,,	17.30	,,
Singapore	Arr.	Evening	,,

West Bound.

Singapore	Dep.	05.15	Sun.
Kuala Lumpur ..	,,	07.45	,,
Penang	,,	10.15	,,
Bangkok	,,	05.00	Mon.
Rangoon	,,	08.30	,,
Akyab	,,	11.45	,,
Calcutta	,,	05.00	Tues.
Allahabad	,,	09.30	,,
Cawnpore	,,	10.45	,,
Delhi	,,	14.15	,,
Jodhpur	,,	04.30	Wed.
Karachi	Arr.	09,00	,,

Indian National Airways.

CALCUTTA TO RANGOON.

		Local Time.	Day.
Calcutta	Dep.	07.00	Tues.
Chittagong	,,	09.50	,,
Akyab	,,	12.45	,,
Bassein	,,	16.10	,,
Rangoon	Arr.	17.15	,,
RANGOON TO CALCUTTA.			
Rangoon	Dep.	07.00	Fri.
Bassein	,,	08.20	,,
Akyab	,,	12.05	,,
Chittagong	,,	13.59	,,
Calcutta	Arr.	16.15	,,
CALCUTTA TO DACCA (Daily).			
Calcutta	Dep.	07.00	Daily.
Dacca	Arr.	08.52	,,
Dacca	Dep.	11.32	Daily.
Calcutta	Arr.	13.03	,,

Africa and the Far East.

Several new air services which are of considerable importance to India have been inaugurated, and of these the most notable is the England-Africa service which connects with the England-India service at Cairo to and provides an entirely new route between Delhi and South Africa.

Other important air lines established are the French service between Paris and Saigon and the Dutch service between Amsterdam and Batavia, both of which pass through Baghdad and Karachi.

Baghdad, in particular, is developing rapidly in importance and it is said, not without reason, that it will soon become the Clapham Junction of the air. This will certainly be the case if the projected services from Persia and Russia materialise.

The proposed extension of the England-India Air Mail to Australia is expected to be brought into operation shortly and a service already operates as far as Singapore.

The Indian Stores Department.

A detailed account of the organisation of the Indian Stores Department at Government of India headquarters and of the successive orders issued by Government to assure as far as possible the purchase of stores of Indian manufacture or in India is to be found in earlier issues of the Indian Year Book. The current rules to regulate stores purchase prescribe that preference in making purchases shall be given in the following order :—

First, to articles which are produced in India in the form of raw materials or are manufactured in India from raw materials produced in India, provided that the quality is sufficiently good for the purpose ;

Second, to articles wholly or partially manufactured in India from imported materials, provided that the quality is sufficiently good for the purpose.

Third, to articles of foreign manufacture held in stock in India provided they are of suitable type and quality requisite.

Fourth, to articles manufactured abroad which need to be specially imported.

The new rules were calculated materially to widen the scope of operations of the Department.

The total value of orders placed by the Department during the year 1932-33, the latest period for which figures are yet available, was Rs. 3,30,90,903, as compared with Rs. 3,60,00,006 during 1931-32. The fall in business was a result of the all round contraction and this was a direct consequence of the curtailment of the activities of the Spending Department imposed by prevailing conditions of trade depression and aggravated by a further drop in commodity prices.

As a result of the close observance of the Rupee Tender Rules by departments of the Central Government and other provincial governments, the number of stores indents submitted for sending to the Director General in India Store Department, London, was 835 and their value Rs. 70,36,880 against 951 for stores valued at Rs. 93,84,301 in the preceding year.

The Department continued throughout the year to assist manufacturers in India to improve the quality of their products. The means adopted included technical advice and suggestions. Every endeavour was made to substitute supplies of indigenous manufacture, wherever possible, without sacrificing economy and efficiency. Among the more notable instances of developments in this direction the Department in their annual report give foremost place to the textile industry.

The final accounts of the Department for the year 1931-32 closed with a total revenue of Rs. 13,84,370 and expenditure of Rs. 24,89,699 showing nett deficit of Rs. 11,05, 329. The expenditure of the year 1932-33 is provisionally shown at Rs. 21,67,056. The reduction which the figures indicate, in spite of a normal growth of expenditure, due to annual increments estimated at Rs. 40,000 per annum, was produced by vigorous retrenchment measures. There was, however, a heavy fall on the credit side of the account, the total earnings amounting to Rs. 10,14,439 as against Rs. 13,84,370.

The question of definitely declaring the Department to be a commercial or service undertaking was under consideration of Government and they decided in January 1930 that it could not for the present be declared a commercial undertaking, as some of its activities were admittedly not a of a commercial character, and that it should therefore be treated as a public service department.

Bombay Stamp Duties.

	Rs.	a.
Acknowledgment of Debt ex. Rs. 20 ..	0	1
Affidavit or Declaration	2	0
Agreement or Memo. of Agreement—		
(a) If relating to the sale of a bill of exchange		
(aa) If relating to the sale of Govt. Security—Subject to a maximum of Rs. 20, as. 2 for every Rs. 10,000 or part.	0	4
(b) If relating to sale of a share in an incorporated company or other body corporate—two annas for every 5,000 or part thereof of the value of the share.		
(c) If not otherwise provided for ..	1	0
Appointment in execution of a power—		
(a) Of trustees		
(b) Of property, moveable or immoveable	15	0
Articles of Association of Company—	30	0
(a) Where the company has no share capital or the nominal share capital does not exceed Rs. 2,500 ..	25	0
(b) Where the nominal share capital exceeds Rs. 2,500 but does not exceed Rs. 1,00,000	50	0
(c) Where the nominal share capital exceeds Rs. 1,00,000	100	0
Articles of Clerkship	250	0
Award, any decision in writing by an Arbitrator, other than by an Order of the Court. The same duty as a Bond for the amount or value of the property to which the award relates as set forth in such award subject to a maximum	20	0
Bill of Exchange—		
here payable otherwise than on demand but not more than one year after date or sight (if drawn singly)—Not exc. Rs. 200, a. 3; exc. Rs. 200, not exc. Rs. 400, a. 6; exc. Rs. 400, not exc. Rs. 600, a. 9; exc. Rs. 600, not exc. Rs. 800, a. 12; exc. Rs. 800, not exc. Rs. 1,000, a. 15; exc. Rs. 1,000, not exc. Rs. 1,200, R. 1 a. 2; exc. Rs. 1,200, not exc. Rs. 1,600, R. 1 a. 8; exc. Rs. 1,600, not exc. Rs. 2,500, Rs. 2 a. 4; exc. Rs. 2,500, not exc. Rs. 5,000, Rs. 4 a. 8; exc. Rs. 5,000, not exc. Rs. 7,500, Rs. 6 a. 12; exc. Rs. 7,500, not exc. Rs. 10,000, Rs. 9; exc. Rs. 10,000, not exc. Rs. 15,000, Rs. 13 a. 8; exc. Rs. 15,000, not exc. Rs. 20,000, Rs. 18; exc. Rs. 20,000, not exc. Rs. 25,000, Rs. 22 a. 8; exc. Rs. 25,000, not exc. Rs. 30,000, Rs. 27; and for every add. Rs. 10,000, or part thereof, in excess of Rs. 30,000, Rs. 9.		
Where payable at more than one year after date or sight, same duty as a Bond.		
Bill of Lading	0	8
Bond (otherwise provided for)—		
Not exceeding Rs. 10	0	2
Exc. Rs. 10 but not exc. Rs. 50 ..	0	4
Exc. Rs. 50 but not exc. Rs. 100 ..	0	8
Exc. Rs. 100 & does not exc. Rs. 200	1	0
Exc. Rs. 200 & does not exc. Rs. 300	2	4
Up to Rs. 1,000, every Rs. 100 or part	0	12
For every Rs. 500 or part, beyond Rs. 1,000	3	2
Bond, Administration, Customs, Security or Mortgage Deed—For amount not exceeding Rs. 1,000, same duty as a Bond.		
In any other case..	10	0
Cancellation	5	0
Certificate or other Document relating to Shares	0	2
Charter Party	2	0
Cheque and demand drafts are exempt from stamp duty with effect from 1st July 1927.		
Composition—Deed	20	0
Conveyance, not being a Transfer—		
Not exceeding Rs. 50	0	8
Exceeding Rs. 50 not exceeding Rs. 100	1	0
Exceeding Rs. 100 but does not exceed Rs. 200	2	0
Exceeding Rs. 200 but does not exceed Rs. 300	4	8
For every Rs. 100 or part in excess of Rs. 100 up to Rs. 1,000	1	8
For every Rs. 500, or part thereof, in excess of Rs. 1,000..	7	8

Conveyance relating to immoveable property situate *within the cities of* Bombay, Ahmedabad, Poona and Karachi, for the entries in article 23 the following entries shall be substituted, namely :—

23. Conveyance (as defined by section 2 (10) not being a Transfer charged or exempted under No. 62—

	1 Bombay. Rs.	a.	2 Ahmedabad, Poona & Karachi. Rs.	a.
Where the amount or value of the consideration for such conveyances as set forth therein does not exceed Rs. 50	0	8	0	8
Where it exceeds Rs. 50 but does not exceed Rs. 100 ..	1	0	1	0
Where it exceeds Rs. 100 but does not exceed Rs. 200 ..	2	0	2	0
Where it exceeds Rs. 200 but does not exceed Rs. 300 ..	8	8	6	8
Where it exceeds Rs. 300 but does not exceed Rs. 400 ..	12	0	9	0
Where it exceeds Rs. 400 but does not exceed Rs. 500 ..	15	8	11	8
Where it exceeds Rs. 500 but does not exceed Rs. 600.	19	0	14	0
Where it exceeds Rs. 600 but does not exceed Rs. 700 ..	22	8	16	8
Where it exceeds Rs. 700 but does not exceed Rs. 800 ..	26	0	19	0
Where it exceeds Rs. 800 but does not exceed Rs. 900 ..	29	8	21	8
Where it exceeds Rs. 900 but does not exceed Rs. 1,000..	33	0	24	0
And for every Rs. 500 or part thereof in excess of Rs. 1,000	17	8	12	8

	Rs.	a.
Copy of Extract—If the original was not chargeable with duty, or if duty with which it was chargeable does not exceed 1 Rupee	1	0
In any other case	2	0
Counterpart or Duplicate—If the duty with which the original instrument is chargeable does not exceed two rupees—The same duty as is payable on the original. In any other case	2	0
Delivery Order	0	1
Entry in any High Court of an Advocate or Vakil	500	0
In the case of an Attorney	500	0
Instrument—Apprenticeship	10	0
Divorce	5	0
Other than Will, recording an adoption or conferring or purporting to confer Authority to adopt	20	0
Lease—Where rent is fixed and no premium is paid for less than 1 year, same duty as Bond for whole amount; not more than 3 years, same as Bond for average annual rent reserved; over 3 years, same as Conveyance for consideration equal to amount or value of the average annual rent reserved; for indefinite term, same as Conveyance for a consideration equal to the amount or value of the average annual rent which would be paid or delivered for the first ten years if the lease continued so long; in perpetuity, same as Conveyance for consideration equal to one-fifth of rents paid in respect of first 50 years. Where there is premium and no rent, same as Conveyance for amount of premium; premium with rent, same as Conveyance or amount of premium in addition to the duty which would have been payable on the lease if no fine or premium or advance had been paid or delivered.		
Letter—Allotment of Shares	0	2
Credit	0	2
License	10	0
Memo. of Association of Company—If accompanied by Articles of Association	80	0
If not so accompanied	80	0
Notarial Act	2	0
Note or Memo. intimating the purchase or sale—		
(*a*) Of any Goods exc. in value Rs. 20.	0	4
(*b*) Of any Stock or marketable Security exceeding in value Rs. 20—a. 2 for every Rs. 5,000, or part.		
(*bb*) Of Government Security—Subject to a maximum of Rs. 20, 2 as. for every Rs. 10,000, or part.		
Note of Protest by a Ship's Master ..	1	0
Partnership—Where the capital does not exceed Rs. 500	5	0
In any other case	20	0
Dissolution of	10	0
Policy of Insurance—		
(1) *Sea*—Where premium does not exceed rates of 2a., or $\frac{1}{8}$ per cent. of amount insured	0	1
In any other case for Rs. 1,000 or part thereof	0	1
(2) *For time*—For every Rs. 1,000 or part insured, not exc. 6 months ..	0	2
Exceeding 6 and not exceeding 12 months	0	4
If drawn in duplicate, for each part.—Half the above rates, for Sea and Time.		
(3) *Fire*—When the sum insured does not exceed Rs. 5,000..	0	8
In any other case	1	0
In respect of each receipt for any payment of a premium on any renewal of an original policy—One-half of the duty payable in respect of the original policy in addition to the amount, if any chargeable under Art. 53 (*Receipt*).		
(4) *Accident and Sickness*—Against Railway accident, valid for a single journey only	0	1
In any other case—for the maximum amount which may become payable in the case of any single accident or sickness where such amount does not exceed Rs. 1,000, and also where amount exc. Rs. 1,000, for every Rs. 1,000 or part	0	2
(5) *Life, or other Insurance, not specifically provided for*—		
For every sum not exceeding Rs. 250	0	2
Exceeding Rs. 250 but not exceeding Rs. 500	0	4
For every sum insured not exceeding Rs. 1,000 and also for every Rs. 1,000 or part	0	6
If drawn in duplicate for each part half the above rates.		
Insurance by way of indemnity against liability to pay damages on account of accidents to workmen employed by or under the insurer or against liability to pay compensation under the Workmen's Compensation Act of 1923. For every Rs. 100 or part payable as premium ..	0	1
In case of a re-insurance by one Company with another—$\frac{1}{4}$ of duty payable in respect of the original insurance, but not less than 1 anna, or more than 1 Re.		
Policies of all classes of Insurance not included in Article 47 of Schedule I of Stamp Act of 1899 covering goods, merchandise, personal effects, crops and other property against loss or damage, are liable to the same duty as Policies of Fire Insurance.		
Power of Attorney—		
For the sole purpose of procuring the registration of one or more documents. In relation to a single transaction or for admitting execution of one or more such documents	1	0
When required in suits or proceedings under the Presidency Small Causes Courts Act, 1882	1	0
Authorising 1 person or more to act in a single transaction other than that mentioned above	2	0
Authorising not more than 5 persons to act jointly and severally in more than 1 transaction, or generally ..	10	0

	Rs.	a.
Authorising more than 5 but not more than 10 persons to act	20	0
When given for consideration and authorising the Attorney to sell any immovable property—The same duty as a *Conveyance* for the amount of the consideration.		
In any other case, for each person authorised	2	0
Promissory Notes—		
(*a*) When payable on demand—		
(i) When the amount or value does not exceed Rs. 250	0	1
(ii) When the amount or value exceeds Rs. 250 but does not exceed Rs. 1,000	0	2
(iii) In any other case	0	4
(*b*) When payable otherwise than on demand—The same duty as a Bill of exchange for the same amount payable otherwise than on demand.		
(It is important that only *one* stamp of the correct denomination should be used).		
Protest of Bill or Note	2	0
Protest by the Master of a Ship	2	0
Proxy	0	2
Receipt for value exc. Rs. 20	0	1
Reconveyance of mortgaged property—		
(*a*) If the consideration for which the property was mortgaged does not exceed Rs. 1,000—the same duty as a bond for the amount of such consideration as set forth in the Reconveyance.		
(*b*) In any other case	10	0
Release—that is to say, any instrument whereby a person renounces a claim upon another person or against any specified property—		
(*a*) If the amount or value of the claim does not exceed Rs. 1,000—The same duty as a Bond for such amount or value as set forth in the Release.		
(*b*) In any other case	10	0
Revpondentia Bond—The same duty as a Bond for the amount of the loan secured.		
Security Bond—(*a*) When the amount secured does not exceed Rs. 1,000—The same duty as a Bond for the amount secured.		
(*b*) In any other case	10	0
Settlement—The same duty as a Bond (but in its application to the cities of Bombay, Ahmedabad, Poona and Karachi the same duty as a conveyance if the property set apart is immoveable and the purpose is one other than charitable or religious) for the sum equal to the amount or value of the property —settled as set forth in such settlement.	10	0
Revocation of Settlement.—The same duty as a Bond (but in its application to the cities of Bombay, Ahmedabad, Poona and Karachi the same duty as a conveyance if the property set apart is immoveable and the purpose is one other than charitable or religious) for a sum equal to the amount or value of the property concerned as set forth in the instrument of revocation but not exceeding ten rupees.		

	Rs.	a.
Share-warrant to bearer issued under the Indian Companies Act.—One and a half times the duty payable on a conveyance for a consideration equal to the nominal amount of the shares specified in the warrant.		
Shipping Order	0	1
Surrender of Lease—When duty with which lease is chargeable does not exceed Rs. 5—The duty with which such Lease is chargeable.		
In any other case	5	0
Transfers of Shares—One-half of the duty payable on a Conveyance for a consideration equal to the value of the share.		
Transfer of any Interest secured by a Bond, Mortgage-deed, or Policy of Insurance—If duty on such does not exceed Rs. 10—The duty with which such Bond, &c., is chargeable.		
In any other case	10	0
—of any property under the Administrator General's Act, 1874, Section 31.	10	0
—of any trust property without consideration from one trustee to another trustee or from a trustee to a beneficiary—Five rupees or such smaller amount as may be chargeable for transfer of shares.		
Transfer of Lease by way of assignment and not by way of under-lease—The same duty as a conveyance for a consideration equal to the amount of the consideration for the transfer.		
Trust, Declaration of—Same duty as a Bond for a sum equal to the amount or value of the property concerned, but not exceeding	15	0
Revocation of—Ditto, but not exceeding	10	0
Warrant for Goods	0	8

N. B.—The following Press Note issued by the Director of Information, Bombay, on 28th November 1933, is republished for information of the public :—

"At present ½ Anna, 1 Anna, 2 Annas and 4 Annas unified stamps (marked 'India Postage and Revenue') are used for purposes of postage as well as for stamping certain documents *e.g.*, receipts. Government have decided that these stamps should be abolished from 1st April 1934 and that in their place separate stamps for postage and revenue respectively should be introduced. From 1st April 1934 the new postal stamps cannot be used for revenue purposes and the new revenue stamps cannot be used for postal purposes.

"With a view to accustom the public to this change, Government have decided to introduce, during the period from 1st January 1934 to 31st March 1934, special overprinted revenue stamps concurrently with the existing unified stamps. During this period it will be open to the public to use either the special overprinted revenue stamps (marked 'Bombay Revenue') or the unified stamps (marked 'India Postage and Revenue') for the purpose of stamping documents. After 31st March 1934, the new stamps mentioned in paragraph 1 of this Press Note must be used. The special overprinted revenue stamps and the new revenue stamps to be introduced from 1st April 1934 will be available for sale at all post offices.

The Indian National Congress.

For a complete history of the movement represented by the Indian National Congress the reader is referred to earlier editions of the Indian Year Book. The Congress was founded in 1885 by Mr. Allan Octavian Hume, a retired member of the Indian Civil Service, and it held its first session in Bombay at Christmas of that year, the fundamental principles of the Congress were laid down to be :—

Firstly, the fusion into one national whole of all the different and discordant elements that constitute the population of India;

Secondly, the gradual regeneration, along all lines, mental, moral, social and political of the nation thus evolved; and

Thirdly, the consolidation of union between England and India by securing the modification of such of the conditions as may be unjust or injurious to the latter country.

With these objects in view the Congress pursued an uneventful career until 1907. It undoubtedly exercised a great influence in inducing a spirit of national unity amongst the diverse peoples of India, in focussing the chief political grievances, and in providing a training ground for Indian politicians. But in 1907 the Extremists, chiefly of the Deccan and the Central Provinces, who had for some time chafed under the control of the older generation, succeeded in wrecking the Surat session of the Congress and produced a split which had long been seen to be imminent. The senior members of the Congress therefore re-crystallised its creed in definite terms. They laid down that—

"The objects of the Indian National Congress are the attainment by the people of India of a system of Government similar to that enjoyed by the self-governing members of the British Empire, and a participation by them in the rights and responsibilities of the Empire on equal terms with those members. These objects are to be achieved by constitutional means by bringing about a steady reform of the existing system of administration and by promoting national unity, fostering public spirit and developing and organising the intellectual, moral, economic and industrial resources of the country."

For some years following 1907 efforts were made to heal the split and these were without avail until 1916 when a re-united Congress met at Lucknow under the presidency of Babu Ambica Charan Muzumdar of Faridpur in Bengal. But the union then effected was purely superficial; the difference between the Moderates and the Extremists was fundamental; the Extremists captured the machinery of the Congress and from the period of the special session held at Calcutta in September 1920 the Congress passed entirely under the domination of Mr. Gandhi and his lieutenants. In 1927 the Congress actually adopted independence as the goal of India. In the following two years the Congress made what the extreme leftists described as a climb-down, while the Liberals moved towards the left, with the result that for a time there appeared to be a commonness of purpose between the Liberals and Congressmen. At its 1928 Session the Congress, while adhering to Independence, agreed to accept Dominion Status if granted, before the end of 1929. Things were tending towards a satisfactory settlement when in the latter half of 1929 the Congress insisted on the immediate grant of Dominion Status or an assurance that Dominion Status would be the basis of discussion at the Round Table Conference to be convened in England between representatives of England and the two Indias. Here was the parting of the ways. The Liberals went their way and the Congress its own. In fulfilment of the "ultimatum" issued at its previous Session, the Congress, at its 1929 Session, declared for complete independence or "Purna Swaraj." Throughout the year 1930 the Congress was engaged in a defiance of the law of the land which, it was hoped, would help India to attain complete independence. Early next year the Congress actually suspended civil disobedience by virtue of an agreement arrived at with the Government, but the fulfilment of the terms of this agreement gave rise to trouble and another agreement was concluded. As a result of this Mr. Gandhi, on behalf of the Congress, actually went to London to take part in the Round Table Conference. While he was away things took a turn for the worse in the country, and matters reached a crisis with the birth of the New Year. In 1932 the Government bent all its efforts to making it impossible for the Congress to carry on its subversive activities and succeeded fully in its object. Congress was crushed and all forms of Congress work throughout the country were successfully prevented. In fact as well as in law Congress ceased to exist. It became impossible for Congressmen even to hold their annual sessions since 1932. For some time it existed in fact, though not in law; but of late it has ceased to exist even in fact.

THE NON-CO-OPERATION MOVEMENT.

It was in 1920 that Mr. Gandhi, who had only in the previous year unsuccessfully started his Passive Resistance struggle as a protest against the Rowlatt Act, conceived his idea of non-co-operation. Originally intended to be a protest against the British policy towards Turkey, the "fighting" of two other grievance was later on added to its first object, namely, the punishment of officials in the Punjab Martial Law regime and the securing of Swaraj for India. Mr. Gandhi and Mr. Shaukat Ali were able in 1920 to get the Calcutta Special Congress

to endorse their programme of "progressive non-violent non-co-operation" which was reiterated by the annual session at Nagpur which, on Mr. Gandhi's motion, changed its old creed into "the attainment by India of Swaraj by all legitimate and peaceful means." The stern measures adopted by local Governments led to the imprisonment of a large number of active Congressmen with the result that the Ahmedabad Congress in 1921 made a "grim resolve" to challenge the "repression movement" by appointing Mr. Gandhi as dictator and by resolving to start a "No Tax" campaign at Bardoli. The riots in Chauri Chaura in 1922, preceded by the Bombay riots in 1921 during the Prince of Wales' visit (see 1923 and 1924 editions of this book) opened Mr. Gandhi's eyes to the impossibility of maintaining a non-violent atmosphere under exciting conditions. He suspended his proposed civil disobedience campaign, and replaced it by what is known as the Bardoli Programme which eschewed all the aggressive items of non-co-operation in favour of the promotion of intercommunal unity and khaddar. Soon after Mr. Gandhi was arrested for sedition, tried and sentenced to undergo imprisonment for six years. (See 1923 and 1924 editions.)

This turn of events threw cold water on the enthusiasm of non-co-operators who got discouraged. In order, therefore, to sound the country's readiness for aggressive action once more, the All-India Congress Committee appointed a Committee, known as the Civil Disobedience Committee, in June 1922. The Committee toured the country and in October, 1922, produced two reports, one favouring Council entry to offer obstruction to Government and the other recommending the adoption of the Bardoli Programme. A battle royal ensued between the two parties for two or three years, the Swarajists—or the "Co-operators," as they were derisively called by the non-co-operators—carrying the day throughout. Every little triumph of the Swarajists meant a diminution of the prestige and influence of the No-Changers. This went on for some time until the Belgaum session of the Congress, presided over by Mr. Gandhi himself, suspended the non-co-operation programme. Thereby the movement was practically killed, and, strange to say, it received its death-blow at the hands of the very author of its being. But the fond parent did not lose heart and bided his time. His chance came in 1928 when the Congress was split into two warring camps. One was ready to accept Dominion Status for India, while the other would have nothing short of independence. At the psychological moment, Mr. Gandhi staged a re-entry into the political arena—he had been but a silent spectator during the five preceding years—and, professing to effect a compromise within the Congress, provided a loophole for the revival of non-co-operation. Although Dominion Status was actually declared in 1929 to be the goal of Indian political progress, Mr. Gandhi insisted on having it on the spot and when that was naturally refused he returned to his old love, non-co-operation and boycott. He had been biding his time, and the astute politician, that he is, he reintroduced in December 1929 his formula that had been dead five years. Indeed the Congress Executive was authorised to give the signal also for a campaign of non-payment of taxes and civil disobedience. Early in 1930 the Congress executive appointed Mr. Gandhi as "Dictator" for all India and gave him power to launch civil disobedience as and when he thought fit. This Mr. Gandhi did in March and practically the whole country was set ablaze. There was open defiance of the law all over the land, notwithstanding the efforts of the Government to put down illegal activities. The movement waned by the end of the year through sheer exhaustion and civil disobedience was suspended early in 1931 as a result of negotiations between the Viceroy and Mr. Gandhi. The year 1931 was a year of negotiations although the discussions centred on alleged breaches of the Viceroy-Gandhi understanding. The efforts for peace were carried to the point of inducing Mr. Gandhi to participate in the Round Table Conference in London to formulate a constitution for India. All this, however, proved to be a lull in the storm which again broke out in fuller fury early in the New Year. On the ground that the Government had broken the understanding arrived at between the Viceroy and Mr. Gandhi, the Congress leader declared in favour of a revival of aggressive non-co-operation. The Government, however, was apparently prepared for it: simultaneously with the announcement of the Congress decision the Government set in motion its powerful machinery and grappled with the renewed non-co-operation movement before it had time to take root again. Civil disobedience was scotched before it was born this time. In short the Government killed the non-co-operation movement. Another attempt was made in the middle of 1933 to revive it in an attenuated form, but the "individual civil disobedience", as it was called, was still born. (See later).

Congress in 1925-32.

The career of the Congress between the Belgaum session, when the N. C. O. movement was suspended, and the years 1929-30, when civil disobedience was revived, was comparatively dull. During the first half of 1925 the Congress policy was one of aimless drift. The death of Mr. C. R. Das demoralised the Swarajists. Mr. Gandhi promptly went to their rescue and at the end of the year the Swarajists' political programme was formally adopted by the Cawnpore Congress. The 41st session of the Congress, which met in Assam during Christmas week in 1926, set its face against the acceptance of ministerships or other offices in the gift of the Government—in other words, discountenanced "Responsive Co-operation", a new creed which had sprung up within the Swarajist ranks—and approved of the policy of rejection of budget and refusal of supplies until a response to the "national demand" was forthcoming.

All this talk and quarrel about the internal affairs of the Congress were set at rest by the non-inclusion of Indians on the personnel of the **Royal Commission on Indian Reforms.** Most of the leaders fancied that it would be an insult to India if Indians were not appointed members of the Commission. Even moderates, reputed for their sobriety and reasonableness, affected extremism. The Viceroy endeavoured —but in vain—to explain the position to Indian leaders (See Year Book of 1928).

Congressmen, of course, met during Christmas 1927 and resolved to boycott the Simon Commission, declared independence as the goal of India and offered some solutions for the Hindu-Muslim problem. In the following year the Congress, in its plenary session at Calcutta, declared that Dominion status would be acceptable to India. This, it will be recalled, marks a return to 1908 when, soon after the Surat split, it was stated that the objects of the Congress were, among other things, "the attainment by the people of India of a system of Government similar to that enjoyed by the self-governing members of the British Empire." This, however, proved to be a mere smoke-screen raised by Congress tacticians to conceal from the world their real intention which was disclosed in December 1929.

The Congress which met in Calcutta during Christmas in 1928 under the presidency of Pandit Motilal Nehru, was divided into three camps; the advocates of complete independence, those who wanted Dominion status and nothing beyond that, and Pandit Motilal sandwiched between the two, with one foot in either camp. This was just the opportunity for which Mr. Gandhi had apparently been waiting, and he staged a come back at the psychological moment. He threw in his weight with Pandit Motilal and sponsored a compromise formula. This satisfied neither wing but eventually a resolution was adopted which approved of the Nehru Reports embodying a "Swaraj" constitution framed by a committee under the Chairmanship of the Pandit Motilal Nehru and consisting of members of all parties) as a great step in political advance and, whilst adhering to the Madras resolution on independence, the Congress was prepared, subject to the exigencies of the political situation, to adopt the Nehru constitution, if it was accepted by the British Parliament before the expiry of 1929; and if that did not happen the Congress would revive non-violent non-cooperation; Congressmen could, in the meanwhile, carry on propaganda for independence.

The political outlook was gloomy, indeed, and there was a clear call for a generous gesture from Britatin. Lord Irwin, the sympathetic Viceroy, saw this and strove his utmost to ; lacate legitimate Indian feeling. He undertook a trip to England on four months' leave and had long conversations with the India Office Chief and the newly formed Labour Cabinet of Britain. He returned in the last week of October and within a few days of his arrival issued from Delhi a statement which has since become famous as the **Viceroy's Declaration** of October 31, 1929. "I am authorised", he said, "on behalf of His Majesty's Government, to state clearly that, in their judgment, it is implicit in the Declaration of 1917 that the natural issue of India's constitutional progress, as there contemplated, is the attainment of Dominion Status." His Excellency announced the British Government's intention to summon a conference of representatives of British India and Indian States to discuss British Indian and All-Indian problems for seeking the greatest possible measure of agreement for the final proposals to be placed before Parliament.

The main feature of the Congress session held shortly after was the reascendancy to power of Mr. Gandhi. The principal resolution went through successfully and, in fulfilment of the Calcutta Congress "ultimatum," Independence was declared when the New Year was rung in and the "Independence flag" was hoisted.

Events moved very fast in India in 1930 which has been epochal in the country's political history. On the one hand, the British Government took practical measures to devise a constitutional machinery that would place India on the highroad to responsible self-government (see Round Table Conference section); on the other, the Congress, the premier political organisation of the country, made a bold bid for complete independence—or "Purna Swaraj".

Civil Disobedience Movement.

In pursuance of the resolution of the Lahore Congress, it was decided by the Congress leaders early in the year to test the strength and willingness of the country to undertake and carry on a programme involving loss, suffering and sacrifice, and with this end in view they organised what has since been called the "Independence Day" demonstration. The response, according to the Congress leaders, "exceeded anticipations". Having thus ventilated the new revolutionary policy of the Lahore Congress and satisfied themselves that their methods would obtain general support in the country, the Working Committee appointed at Lahore met at Ahmedabad and decided to inaugurate mass civil disobedience. It appointed Mr. Gandhi as the "Dictator" of the Congress and gave him full powers to launch, conduct and carry on the movement.

Before taking what he described as his "final plunge" in politics, Mr. Gandhi wrote in first week of March his famous letter to the Viceroy announcing his determination to launch civil disobedience if his demands were not met. They were the famous Eleven Points of Mr. Gandhi—total prohibition; reduction of the rupee ratio to 1*s.* 4*d*; reduction of the land revenue to at least 50 per cent. and making it subject to legislative control; abolition of the salt tax; reduction of the military expenditure to at least 50 per cent., to begin with; reduction of the salaries of the higher grade service men to one half or less, so as to suit the reduced revenue; protective tariff on foreign cloth; the passage of the Coastal Traffic Reservation Bill; discharge of all political prisoners, withdrawal of all political prosecutions, abrogation of section 124-A, of the Regulation of 1818 and the like, and permission to all Indian exiles to return; the abolition of the C. I. D. or its popular control; and the issue of licenses to use fire-arms for self-defence, subject to popular control.

The reply sent to Mr. Gandhi by the Private Secretary to the Viceroy regretted that Mr. Gandhi contemplated "a course of action which is clearly bound to involve violation of the law and danger to the public peace."

When his impossible demands were turned down, Mr. Gandhi outlined a programme of civil disobedience consisting of various items calculated to subvert the Government by breaking certain laws, reducing its income from excise and customs duties, inducing Government servants to resign, picketing liquor shops and shops dealing in foreign, particularly British, goods, mainly British cloth, and urging the masses not to pay land revenue, chowkidari tax and forest grazing fees. The salt Act was the first target.

After organising his forces in various centres in the country, Mr. Gandhi inaugurated his civil disobedience movement by setting out on a march on foot from his Ashram at Sabarmati with the object of breaking the salt law and defying the Government. He reached Dandi on the seashore and picked up salt without paying duty. The police did not interfere. This was the signal for Congressmen to break the law all over the country simultaneously.

On the first few occasions, the Government merely looked on, but the law-breaking fever spread fast and wide. Eventually the authorities took measures to prevent the manufacture and sale of illicit salt. They were resisted by Congress volunteers who formed a cordon round the spot where salt was made and defied the police to arrest them. The police arrested them at first, but they could not obviously arrest hundreds of spectators who, though not actually engaged in salt making, were encouraging the law-breakers, jeering at the police and indulging in hostile demonstrations. When these crowds began to indulge in violence against the police, the latter had perforce to disperse them by means of the regulation staff known as "lathi". This went on for a while without bringing Purna Swaraj any nearer. Mr. Gandhi found a way out of the rut by declaring that he proposed to raid the salt works at Dharasana, near Surat. Similar raids were planned on the salt depot at Wadala, in Bombay. Shortly after this, however, Mr. Gandhi was arrested under the provisions of a century-old Regulation and confined during the pleasure of the Government as a state prisoner whose activities were a danger to the Government established by law.

The raids on the salt works at Dharasana and Wadala were carried out repeatedly and hundreds were injured when the police repelled the raid and dispersed the raiders and sympathisers. The advent of the monsoon put an end to salt making and salt depot raids. But other illegal activities were taken up.

The anniversary of a dead leader, "Independence Day" or some such pretext was utilised to organise anti-Government demonstrations. The arrest of persons who were courting arrest was also the occasion for a display of hostility against the Government. Such disturbances occurred in several places, and the police had to impose a ban on meetings, processions, demonstrations and the like which invariably disturbed the public peace and led to clashes. Even these prohibitory orders were disobeyed thereby compelling the police to use force. Two such instances occurred in **Sholapur and Peshawar.** In the former place the police were attacked, constables mobbed and murdered in broad daylight, and Government buildings and law courts set on fire. Martial law was introduced and quiet restored after a long time. In Peshawar also rowdy crowds defied the police and even the military. British troops were stoned. People were so much inflamed that it took a number of weeks for the return of normal conditions. It was revealed during the Peshawar disturbances that the Congress propaganda had to some extent interfered with the discipline of a few Indian sepoys.

Nor did the Congress stop here. Thanks to its persistent propaganda, the martial races inhabiting the border were taught to hate the British and to expect the establishment of "Gandhi Raj" at an early date. A belief that the British administration was weakening spread across the border to the Afridis who carried out a series of raids on Peshawar. Not that these were by any means successful; they were easily repelled and severely punished. But it would not do to allow them to continue in the false belief that they could defy the British Government with impunity. The Government, therefore, took prompt punitive measures and put an end to the raids.

Congressmen living in inland areas stirred up villagers against the Government and persuaded them to refuse to pay dues for grazing cattle in the forests. Forest regulations were broken.

Gujerat, where Mr. Gandhi's influence was greatest, was the stronghold of the movement for non-payment of land revenue. In all the four districts of Gujerat ryots were persuaded to withhold payment of arrears of the previous years and, later on, of the instalments of the following year.

The no-tax campaign and the seditious appeals calculated to disturb the loyalty of the police and the troops could not be allowed to continue. Similarly, the authorities could not look on when Government servants in Gujerat, who refused to resign their posts in obedience to the Congress mandate, were subjected to countless hardships in the shape not only of social boycott but also refusal of daily supplies and even of water. In several instances Government servants were coerced and prevented from doing their duty—things were made so hot for them. The activities of the Congress in other spheres also became too mischievous to be tolerated any longer and the Viceroy issued a **series of Ordinances.** One of these gave power to the Government to confiscate the premises of Congress offices whence baneful doctrines emanated. Refusal of normal supplies and services to Government servants was also made an offence. Later in the year all the Congress and allied bodies were declared unlawful associations under another Ordinance.

One of the main objects of the Congress was to deplete the Government treasury by attacking the excise and customs revenue. Excise was the main source of revenue to most provinces and customs to the central government. It was also intended seriously to affect British industry, particularly the Lancashire textile

trade. For this purpose systematic **picketing** of liquor and foreign (especially British) cloth shops was resorted to. This work was reserved for the large number of women who, for the first time in the history of politics in India, joined the movement in response to Mr. Gandhi's appeal. The willing co-operation of the commercial community made the task of the women pickets somewhat easy; but in several cases coercion replaced peaceful persuasion and the consuming public were put to untold hardships. The Viceroy issued an Ordinance making picketing accompanied by intimidation or coercion punishable.

The upheaval had its own effect on impulsive and immature youths and the year witnessed a large number of revolutionary outrages, in many of which bombs and fire-arms were used. Police officers were killed, and an attempt was made to assassinate the Governor of the Punjab. An armed raid was made on the Chittagong armoury. Many deplored these incidents, but the mischief had been done.

The year 1931, however, opened bright, for before the end of January Mr. Gandhi was again a free man. His release was a magnanimous gesture on the part of the British Government, intended to create a favourable atmosphere in India for the reception of the Premier's statement of 19th January and to give the Congress a fair chance to consider the offer embodied therein. On the very day on which the Premier made his famous pronouncement (See "Indian Round Table Conference") leading delegates in London urged the Premier to follow up his statement with a generous gesture in the shape of general amnesty to all political prisoners. M. MacDonald complied and within a week the principal Congress leaders were released from prison.

They soon met together and considered the Premier's statement which, of course, they deemed unacceptable, a deadlock was again threatened; but, thanks to the good offices of eminent Liberal leaders, the Congress secured the Government's assent to what has since become famous as the Irwin-Gandhi Pact or the Delhi Pact. (See 1932 *Indian Year Book*).

This "truce" was signed on the 5th of March and was hailed all over the country as the dawn of a new era of co-operation. The past was for a time forgotten and there was a lull in political activity. All were eagerly looking forward to the Congress delegates contributing the weight of their influence and experience to the success of the second Round Table Conference. Nevertheless, a strong under-current of resentment ran through the ranks of the Congress who openly complained that Mr. Gandhi had weakly surrendered to the Government in agreeing to call off the struggle. This feeling, which was held by the wild men of the left and impetuous youths, was enhanced by the execution of Bhagat Singh and his accomplices who had been judicially found guilty of murder and other terrorist crimes. The execution was the signal for a furore in the country, much to the chagrin of Mr. Gandhi.

It was in this state of feeling that the forty-fifth session of the Congress met at Karachi under the Presidentship of Mr. Vallabhbhai Patel. (See last year's *Indian Year Book*).

The outstanding feature of the Karachi session was the unprecedented outburst of revolutionary sentiment which throughout characterised its proceedings. It was always there, but dormant; and the execution of Bhagat Singh stirred it up. The revolutionaries, particularly from Bengal, asserted themselves publicly and a determined effort was made to torpedo the Delhi Pact. The intensity of feeling could be gauged by the action of a few youths who on the arrival of Mr. Gandhi went to the length of presenting him with a black flower in token of Bhagat Singh's execution. Thus Mr. Gandhi had to work against insuperable odds and it speaks volumes for his great personal influence that he managed to carry the day. This, however, he achieved only by subscribing to a resolution which only half-heartedly condemned terrorist outrages, extolling at the same time the terrorists' motives and their "courage and self-sacrifice." In this connection it may be noted that following this resolution a number of revolutionary crimes were perpetrated during the year. (See last year's *Indian Year Book*).

To return to the Karachi Congress. Such was the charm exercised by Mr. Gandhi over his followers, sober as well as terrorist, that, in the midst of cries denouncing the Delhi Pact as a surrender, the open session of the Congress almost unanimously ratified it and nominated Mr. Gandhi to proceed to the R.T.C. as its representative.

The resolution ran: "This Congress, having considered the provisional settlement between the Working Committee and the Government of India, endorses it, but desires to make it clear that its cult of independence remains intact. The Congress delegation will work for this goal so as to give the nation control over the army, external affairs, finance and economic policy and to have a scrutiny by an impartial tribunal on the financial transactions of the British Government in India and to examine and assess the obligations to be undertaken by India and England—with right for either party to end the partnership at will. Provided, however, that the Congress delegation will be free to accept such adjustments as may be demonstrably necessary in the interests of India, the Congress appoints Mr. Gandhi as its delegate to the R.T.C. with the addition of such representatives as the Working Committee may add later."

Another important resolution passed by the Congress defined "Purna Swaraj." This again was a sop to the clamant left wing and its passage gave a clear indication of the way the wind was blowing. The main idea underlying the resolution was the creation of a socialistic state as outlined by Pandit Jawaharlal Nehru in his presidential address to the previous session of the Congress at Lahore. Astute politician that Mr. Gandhi is, he saw in this resolution a formula which would prevent an alternative revolutionary programme from taking the field.

"Purna Swaraj" was defined as a government which would secure certain specified fundamental rights for the people, living wage for the workers,

reduction of land revenue, levy of inheritance tax, adult suffrage, free primary education, reduction in military expenditure and in civil servants' salaries, control of key industries, etc.

The feeling that prevailed at Karachi characterised the activities of the Congress throughout the rest of the year—the same restlessness at having to accept the Delhi Pact, the same lip condemnation of terrorism side by side with sympathy with terrorists. The "War Lords" of the Congress were chafing under the enforced silence and could hardly resist the tendency to create mischief.

It was very easy for them to pick a quarrel with the Government over the implementing of the Delhi Pact. They accused Government of being "slow and niggardly" in releasing political prisoners. They insisted on the reinstatement of all village officials who had resigned when the Congress campaign was at its height—even in the case of those who had been replaced since. They claimed substantial, if not wholesale, remissions of land revenue on the slightest pretext. They bitterly complained against alleged excesses of the police in collecting land revenue. Taking shelter under the withdrawal of the anti-picketing ordinance they continued their picketing operations as they did during the civil disobedience movement. This last led to several clashes, notably in **Cawnpore** where aggressive picketing resulted in serious and prolonged Hindu-Muslim rioting—described as a "ghastly holocaust"—involving widespread massacre.

Speaking of the Cawnpore disturbances and the communal tension that they led to, one is reminded of the growing differences between the Congress and the Muslims that were a feature of the year's politics. Ever suspicious of Congress bona fides towards Muslim rights, the Mahomedans kept aloof from the civil disobedience movement and any attempt on the part of Congress leaders to rope them in resulted in a clash. Mr. Gandhi, however, made repeated attempts to placate the Muslims, making numerous offers to meet their demands from time to time. The bulk of the Muslim community was particularly angry with Mr. Gandhi and the Congress for the tactics adopted by them to secure the support of the entire community to an agreed formula. Mr. Gandhi and the Congress sought to make capital of the presence of a few Muslims in the Congress, calling themselves Nationalist Muslims. Congress was ready, it was stated, to accept any scheme on which the entire Muslim community, including the Nationalist Muslims, put forward and attempts were accordingly made in Bombay, Ahmedabad, Bhopal, Delhi and Simla, in various parts of the year, to evolve a communal formula; but all fell through.

The Congress made two more attempts in July to arrive at a formula and eventually drew up a "compromise between undiluted communalism and undiluted nationalism." Joint electorates were to form the basis of representation in the future constitution of India, but it was agreed that there should be reservation of seats in the Federal and Provincial Legislatures on the basis of population with the right to minorities to contest additional seats in any province where they were less than 25 per cent. This was, of course, not acceptable to the Muslims, who, to a man, stood by the Fourteen Points.

Disappointment at the failure to solve the communal tangle rendered the political outlook gloomy and the Congress leaders began to wonder whether any good would result from their participation in the Round Table Conference. Meanwhile, those of them who were itching for a fight had succeeded in working up in the country parts, particularly in Gujerat and the U.P., a situation which the Government could hardly tolerates.

In the United Provinces, particularly, an agrarian dispute of a purely economic character, aggravated by growing trade depression, was turned to political advantage by Congressmen. In the result, although the no-rent campaign being part of the civil disobedience movement, was abandoned under the Delhi Pact, it was revived now, nominally as an economic agitation but really as a political weapon. The Government had perforce to take measures to ensure the collection of land revenue, but the Congress protested against them. This was added to the long list of sins of omission and commission, of which the Congress accused the Government. Similarly in Gujerat, it was alleged that the police were using excessively coercive measures to collect Government dues.

On all these grounds, cumulatively, Mr. Gandhi declared that the Delhi Pact had been broken by the Government and that, therefore, he was released from his obligation thereunder to participate in the Round Table Conference on behalf of the Congress. "The civilians have undone the statesman's work", Mr. Gandhi complained. Mr. Gandhi released for publication what he described as a charge-sheet against the Government, who replied with an equally long list of instances in which the Congress agents had broken the Delhi Pact. Lengthy correspondence passed between Mr. Gandhi and the officers of the Government of Bombay and the Government of India, the main point of which was Mr. Gandhi's demand that the Congress should be recognised as an intermediary between the people and the Government and the Government's firm repudiation of that contention. Numerous interviews took place between Congress leaders and Government officers, all of which unfortunately proved fruitless. This new deadlock again darkened the political horizon, but Mr. Gandhi was induced to ask for an interview with the new Viceroy, Lord Willingdon, to "clear up certain misunderstandings."

Then began what were known as the Simla talks. Mr. Gandhi asked for an impartial inquiry into the incidents at Bardoli and once again the Government of India turned it down. Nor was the Congress allowed to negotiate with the Government as a parallel body on an equal footing. Eventually, however, the Government offered to institute a departmental inquiry into the charges made by the Congress against officials in Bardoli and this provided a loop-hole for the Congress to get out of the awkward corner into which it had placed itself. Affecting to be satisfied with this concession, Mr. Gandhi agreed to go to London.

(The part played by Mr. Gandhi at the R.T.C. is referred to in the "Indian Round Table Conference" section.)

With Mr. Gandhi away, conditions worsened in India and his lieutenants continued their activities in defiance of both the Delhi and the Simla Pacts. Very soon an unsatisfactory situation was created in India which found its counterpart in the poor progress made in London towards reaching an agreed formula for the future constitution of India.

Congress propaganda in areas like the North-West Frontier Province, easily susceptible to subversive doctrines, resulted in a flare-up. The tribes on and across the Frontier were led to believe that the British authority was on the wane, and Peshawar was actually invaded. The "Red Shirt" movement, organised by a follower of Mr. Gandhi, was assuming menacing proportions and the Government had to act. An Ordinance was promulgated with a view to checking the spread of this movement, and Khan Abdui Gaffar Khan, its author, was deported from the scene of his operations.

Similarly, an Ordinance was issued to check the aggressive no-rent campaign in the United Provinces, and Pandit Jawaharlal Nehru was arrested for disobeying certain orders passed on him under this Ordinance.

The hollowness of the Congress charges was revealed by the findings of the Inquiry Officer who went into the allegations against the police and the Government in Bardoli. He held that there had been no cases of undue coercion and found most of the Congress charges unfounded.

This gloomy situation coincided with the return of Mr. Gandhi on the 28th of December, without having achieved anything substantial at the Round Table Conference beyond re-stating the impossible Congress demands proclaimed many a time before. The stage was thus set for another political struggle in the country, which began in the first few days of the new year with the arrest of Mr. Gandhi.

Congress in 1931-32.

The Government had planned out its programme thoroughly and was ready to meet any emergency. Within a few hours of the arrest of Mr. Gandhi the Government issued ordinances of a comprehensive character giving wide powers to the executive to deal with the civil disobedience movement with determination, so that there was little scope for escape on the part of Congressmen. (See last year's *Indian Year Book*).

With such wide powers put into operation with extraordinary speed and rigidity, Congressmen all over the country were hauled up within the very first week after the issue of the ordinance. In most cases they were rounded up on suspicion arising out of their past conduct. Later on option was given to them to give undertakings about their future behaviour and thereby obtain their release. In some cases the authorities succeeded in securing such undertakings, but in the majority of cases Congressmen remained firm. In the first three months of the operation of the ordinance the jails in almost every province were full to overflowing and special accommodation had to be found for the thousands of prisoners who were incarcerated under the new policy.

When the life of the ordinances was about to expire at the end of six months the Government in the centre as well as in the various provinces acknowledged that they had almost succeeded in scotching the Congress movement; but they pleaded that, although the movement had been brought under control, the danger of its revival was not absent. It was therefore decided to consolidate all the ordinances into one omnibus ordinance and renew them till the end of December. Before the year closed the Government came forward with Bills both in the centre and in the provinces to put into the form of a statute the more important provisions of the consolidated ordinance. The legislatures in the country had no strong Congress element on account of the boycott of councils adopted by the Congress during the last general election, so that the Government did not find much difficulty in getting the ordinance bills passed into statutes. The only concession they made was to limit its duration to one or two years in the different provinces.

After the first flush of the operation of the ordinances the Congress movement gradually weakened. No doubt the Congress had its so-called Emergency Councils and Dictators carrying on civil disobedience activities in a spasmodic manner, but it became apparent as the year 1932 advanced that the support from the country became less and less month by month.

Early in the year 1932 an attempt was made to hold the annual session of the Congress at Delhi. Similarly another attempt was made early in 1933 also. On both occasions Pandit Madan Mohan Malaviya came forward to preside. Batches of Congressmen went from different parts of the country to Delhi and Calcutta, respectively, but they were all arrested on leaving their places or before reaching their destination and set free again after the date of the projected session. The Congress claimed that in spite of all this obstruction they held the sessions and passed resolutions reaffirming the civil disobedience movement; but the whole thing was practically reduced to a farce. It was really a game of hide and seek. It is not impossible in such large cities like Delhi or Calcutta for a handful of men to meet in spite of the determination of the police to prevent any formal meetings. Such was really the case. When the police were not within sight and before they could come a few men crowded together, "held the session" and passed resolutions. No sooner was this done and, in fact, while the "session" was in progress, the police arrived, dispersed the meeting and arrested those who participated in the "proceedings".

One side effect of the movement for the boycott of British goods was the riot between Hindus and Muslims in the city of Bombay. It appears

that the Muslim community was against the boycott movement and in the attempt to assert its liberty to purchase whatever goods it wanted it came into conflict with the Hindu section of the commercial public. Words led to blows and quarrels led to a riot which lasted nearly two months levying a heavy toll of nearly 400 killed and several thousands wounded.

Thus from very early in the year 1932 the country was in the grip of the civil disobedience movement and the measures which the Government adopted to suppress it. After the Government had put about 75,000 persons in jail all over the country, the movement, as stated before, began to wane and by the end of the year it had nearly disappeared.

In the latter half of 1932 His Majesty's Government published what is known as the Communal Award laying down what it considered to be an equitable settlement of the mutual claims of the different religious sections in the country as regards seats in the legislatures and the proportion in which they should be divided among them. This award was necessitated by the failure of the representatives of different communities to arrive at a common settlement during the first two sessions of the Round Table Conference. In the course of the second R.T.C. the minorities, consisting of the Muslims, the depressed classes and the Anglo-Indians, arrived at a mutual settlement known as the Minorities Pact which, they claimed, had the support of 46 per cent. of the population of India.

When the Award was published it was strongly resented by the Hindu community and by the extreme section of the Muslim community which did not get everything that was claimed for the community. In the Punjab and Bengal, especially, it led to a strong agitation on the part of the Hindus.

A section of public men made repeated attempts to arrive at a mutual settlement in order to replace the Award as provided in the Award itself, but nothing resulted.

Similarly there was great dissatisfaction among the Hindu community about the separate electorates on which basis provision had been made in the Communal Award for the representation of the depressed classes. The Hindus claimed that the depressed classes, being but a section of the Hindu community, should not be permanently separated from the bulk of the Hindu community. Mr. Gandhi from his prison cell made it a question of conscience and suddenly declared a fast unto death unless the Communal Award was amended in respect of the representation of the depressed classes by means of separate electorates.

This sudden declaration led to a commotion in the country and several leaders gathered together in Poona and, with the help of Dr. Ambedkar and Rao Bahadur Raja, representing the two rival groups of the depressed classes, and the help of representative Hindus like Pandit Malaviya, arrived at a formula known as the Poona Pact, which was a modification of that portion of the Communal Award which dealt with the representation of the depressed classes. As the crisis in Mr. Gandhi's life was approaching, owing to prolonged fast, the Prime Minister and the British Cabinet lost no time in effecting a modification of the Award as desired by the signatories to the Poona Pact. (See last year's *Indian Year Book*.)

An incidental effect of this fast of Mr. Gandhi was that it served to bring him once more in the limelight after months of obscurity. As during the past two or three years the Congress stood for Mr. Gandhi and *vice versa* and as the Government had successfully suppressed the Congress movement, Mr. Gandhi's name and personality receded into the background at least temporarily. This oblivion into which Mr. Gandhi had been forcibly thrust was shattered by the "fast unto death", and he became once more the dynamic influence of the previous year. It is true that his activities were confined to the uplift of the depressed classes, but the contact that he was thereby enabled to establish with the outer world served to hearten his sympathisers. During the fast he was given the option of leaving the jail and choosing his own residence, provided he undertook not to take any part in the civil disobedience movement, but Mr. Gandhi did not avail himself of this conditional offer of freedom and continued to remain in jail.

Even after he broke his fast he was permitted to continue his activities for the amelioration of the condition of the depressed classes and to work for the abolition of untouchability from within his prison cell. His agitation for a change in the age-long social law among Hindus provoked a counter-agitation on the part of orthodox Hindus who went to the length of suggesting that even if it meant Mr. Gandhi's death they would not surrender an inch. The outburst of social-reformist enthusiasm engendered by the "fast unto death" gradually waned and in certain respects even a set-back ensued. Untouchables' claim for equality with caste Hindus in the matter of entry into temples led to clashes. These circumstances induced Mr. Gandhi to undertake an unconditional fast for twenty-one days. Thus once again Congress leaders and sympathisers had the satisfaction of seeing the author of non-co-operation in the public eye, though in a non-political sphere.

In consideration of the moral and spiritual value attached by Mr. Gandhi to his new fast and in view of his old age and weakened state of health, Government unconditionally released him the day after the commencement of the fast. Immediately after his release Mr. Gandhi suspended civil disobedience for six weeks, and the period of suspension was subsequently extended till August 1. The fast ran its prescribed course and was broken at the end of three weeks. Mr. Gandhi is an adept in fasting for long periods and therefore stood the ordeal very well. Very soon he regained his normal health. During his convalescence he held consultation with Mr. M. S. Aney, the acting President of the Congress, and with Dr. M. A. Ansari and Dr. B. C. Roy, two leading Congressmen, who were attending upon him as his medical advisers. As a result of these conversations, Mr. Gandhi convened an informal conference of such of the leading Congressmen as were out of jail at the

time for considering how far and in what direction the Congress should change its policy. The Conference met in Poona in the middle of July and was attended by representative Congressmen from all over the country.

Mr. Gandhi had in the meanwhile sent for the Rt. Hon. V. S. Sastri, who came from Coimbatore. One could now gauge what his advice must have been, but it is clear that the Congress leader paid little heed to his counsel.

The proceedings of the Conference were throughout lively. Two schools of thought emerged from the discussions: one held that civil disobedience had had sufficient trial but had failed to achieve the end in view, "as the repressive policy of Government has proved too strong for it"; the other school was not willing to admit defeat. Even though the number of persons ready to go to jail and make sacrifices for the country was steadily falling, it was argued, it was not numbers but the determination to win freedom which was an important factor in changing the mentality of Government. Many favoured the abandonment of civil disobedience and openly acknowledged the failure of the movement, but it seemed clear that Mr. Gandhi refused to surrender; according to him a Satyagrahi should not rest until his objective was attained.

Eventually the Conference resolved to withdraw civil disobedience as from August 1, provided an honourable agreement was reached with the Viceroy by Mr. Gandhi, who was authorised to seek an interview with his Excellency for that purpose. The Conference refused unconditionally to withdraw civil disobedience or to accept Mr. Gandhi's suggestion to replace mass civil disobedience by individual civil disobedience.

In pursuance of this resolution, Mr. Gandhi requested the Viceroy to grant him an interview; but the request was turned down on the ground that the interview was for the purpose of initiating negotiations with Government regarding conditions for the withdrawal of civil disobedience and that Government could not enter into any negotiations for the withdrawal of a wholly unconstitutional movement. A second request by Mr. Gandhi, offering to explain to the Viceroy that the proceedings of the Poona Conference, taken as a whole, were calculated to bring about honourable peace, met with a similar fate. The reply to the second request was that there could be no question of holding conversations with the representative of an association which had not abandoned a movement intended to coerce Government by means of unlawful activities.

Soon after the conclusion of the Conference, Mr. Aney, the acting President of the Congress, issued a statement in which he refused unconditionally to withdraw the civil disobedience movement, but ordered the discontinuance for the time being of all mass civil disobedience, including the no-tax and no-rent campaigns, reserving the right to any individual who might be ready for suffering. The secret methods adopted till then were to be abandoned and all Congress organisations, including the office of the A.I.C.C., should cease to exist for the time being.

Meanwhile, Pandit Jawaharlal Nehru was released from jail a short while before his time, owing to the serious condition of his mother's health. This gave him an opportunity of meeting Mr. Gandhi and they had several days' close consultations. It was agreed that they should record their respective opinions on the Congress policy in the form of letters to each other and these were later published. Sharp differences of opinion manifested themselves during these conversations, but the two leaders agreed to ignore them for the present and concentrate on such aspects of Congress work which were common ground between them. From the published correspondence between them it became known that Pandit Nehru insisted that the Congress should put into practice its professed sympathy for the masses and not rest content with mere paper resolutions. He would have the Congress come into the open and engage itself in active work in the cause of the peasants and workers. In short, he adumbrated an economic scheme based on his socialistic ideals. Mr. Gandhi, however, accepted the young leader's scheme as an ideal, but refused to adopt it as a working programme for the immediate future. They agreed to differ and each pursued his own course.

Mr. Gandhi left Poona and reached Ahmedabad through Bombay. Anticipating his sudden arrest, he dismantled his Sabarmati Ashram, giving the inmates full freedom to act as they liked, either to follow him to jail or to work for their ideals according to their lights. He offered the Ashram property to Government and at the same time intimated his desire to march to the village of Raas, accompanied by a few devoted followers, to practice "individual civil disobedience." The contemplated march was prevented and Mr. Gandhi and his followers were taken into custody. The Congress dictator was taken to Yeravda and served with an order under the Criminal Law Amendment Act restricting his movements, which he naturally disobeyed. Thereupon he was re-arrested, tried in court and sentenced to one year's imprisonment in "A" class. He was thus no more a State prisoner detained under a century-old regulation at the will of the executive government, enjoying extra-penitentiary rights in respect of interview, etc., but an ordinary prisoner like other political offenders. This circumstance notwithstanding, Mr. Gandhi insisted on being given the same facilities to do propaganda on behalf of the Harijans as he enjoyed during his incarceration under Regulation III of 1818. As a special case Government waived certain of the jail rules and allowed him, within limits, to direct the Harijan uplift movement. He first accepted these concessions, but changed his mind and announced a hunger strike until he was given the former facilities. Government remained unmoved and after a few days' fast he was removed to hospital still as a prisoner. When, however, he entered the danger zone, he was unconditionally released on medical advice. He broke his fast, but declared that he would not exploit the release granted under such peculiar circumstances to

further political ends. He would consider himself a political prisoner till the expiry of the period of sentence imposed on him. During all this period there was very little Congress activity. Government did not allow the Congress to raise its head. What little interest there was in Congress work was side-tracked and people's attention, was diverted to Harijan work—one more instance of how the Congress was Mr. Gandhi and *vice versa* during the past few years. He threw himself heart and soul into the Harijan campaign, but as far as politics were concerned he issued on himself a self-restricting ordinance. Government let him free to tour the country urging the removal of untouchability, collecting funds for the education and social amelioration of the Depressed Classes, pleading with high class Hindus to open the doors of caste temples to Harijan worshippers and to give them the use of public roads, wells, etc. He visited several places in the Karnatak, Andhra, the Tamil Districts and Malabar, including Mysore, Cochin, Travancore and Hyderabad States. He met with opposition from orthodox Hindus, and rowdy scenes and even clashes occurred at more than one place between the Sanatanists (orthodox people) and the reformers.

The tour was interrupted by the disaster in Bihar where unprecedented earthquake shocks had laid waste fields and reduced towns to ruin. On reaching Patna after same delay Mr. Gandhi found that the situation called for immediate and sustained relief and reconstruction, and at a meeting of the Central Relief Committee he announced his readiness to offer the respectful co-operation of the Congress with Government in affording relief to the destitute victims. Once before Congress leaders had taken an active interest in the proceedings of the Assembly in connection with the Temple Entry Bill (which has been circulated for eliciting public opinion); and now in the face of a great disaster the Congress again decided to co-operate. Many attached great significance to this gesture and foresaw the development of co-operation in other fields of public activity.

In fact, the country had been prepared for a change in Congress policy. One small but important section of Congressmen in Maharashtra (including the Berars) proclaimed a revolt against civil disobedience and started a separate party within the Congress to work for the lifting of the ban on Councils and to contest the elections under the new reform scheme. The Democratic Swaraj Party (as the new organisation was called) was composed predominantly, of right wing Congressmen of the Maharashtra districts of Bombay and C.P. This constituted a definite move to break the influence of Mr. Gandhi and his junta on nationalist opinion in the country. The three articles of the Party are firstly, the achievement of complete independence by all legitimate and peaceful means should be the country's goal; secondly civil disobedience, whether of the individual or mass variety, should in the present circumstances of the country be withdrawn; and, thirdly, all representative institutions from the village panchayats to the Central Legislature should be captured for the political advancement of the country.

These efforts were assisted by similar action by other sections of Congressmen in Madras and the Andhra Provinces. The intensity of revolt grew steadily until an attempt was made to convene a conference during the Easter at Delhi to discuss the re-orientations of Congress policy. Nothing definite, however, has happened upto the time of writing this review, but indications point to a swing to the right. A change in Congress policy seems certain soon after the publication of the report of the Joint Select Committee.

Indian Princes and Reforms.—During the past four or five years the Indian Princes have figured largely in discussions on the future constitutional machinery of British India. They became actively interested in British Indian Reforms with the announcement made by representative Princes at the First Round Table Conference that they would join an All-India federation provided there were adequate safeguards for them. This enthusiasm however, waned in 1931 when some prominent Princes began to entertain doubts about the advisability of their joining the Federation. The Congress resolution which set its goal as the establishment of a socialist state and the subsequent pronouncements of Congress leaders, including Mr. Gandhi, on their intentions if they gained power, made the Princes pause before they plunged. The Maharaja of Patiala was the first to come into the open to warn his brother Princes against the dangers to their very existence involved in the Federal Structure Committee's plan. He declared that smaller States were bound to suffer the fate of the smaller German principalities under the Confederation of 1815 and disappear from the map of India. He suggested the advisability of a Union of Indian States directly in relationship with the Crown. He was later followed by other Princes, who shared his fears, and the view gained in strength that unless adequate guarantees were given for the continued maintenance of their rights and privileges, they should not give their consent to join the proposed Federation.

When the Maharaja of Bikaner accepted the idea, on behalf of his brother Princes, at the first Round Table Conference, to join the All-India Federation, no details of the scheme for the entry of the Princes were discussed. When the question was later gone into at the Federal Structure Sub-Committee of the R. T. C. it became evident that the Princes had a number of mental reservations and conditions precedent to their entry. On their return to India they had mutual consultations and the Maharaja of Patiala became the sponsor of a modified plan of federation, namely, that, instead of each Ruler entering the Federation singly on his own terms, the matter should be discussed by the Chamber of Princes and the terms for their entry should be so settled that the Princes as a body should form one group of their own and join the federation only for certain specific purposes and to the extent that they consented to do so.

This gave a new aspect to the whole question. For some time there was difference of opinion between one section of Princes led by the Maharaja of Bikaner and another led by the Maharaja of Patiala.

Later on they arrived at a settlement between themselves and a common plan was evolved whereby the Princes were to settle the terms of entry of all of them ; it was also proposed that unless a proportion of over fifty per cent. of the States joined no State should join singly. As regards their representation in the two federal Chambers, it was found that however widely the legislatures were enlarged seats could not be provided for each one of the 600 odd Indian States. Out of these 600 more than half are what may be called small or minor States. And the larger States like Hyderabad, Mysore and Baroda naturally objected to be placed on the same level as the smaller States which are no more than mere principalities. Then an attempt was made to give representation to the smaller States on the group system. At the meeting of the Chamber of Princes held in Delhi in March 1933 the Princes made a serious attempt to bring about a settlement of this question. Efforts were also made since then to settle this thorny problem, but the general opinion seemed to be in favour of leaving it to be settled by Government.

Apart from this, the main anxiety of the States in joining the federation is that their integrity and their rights under treaties should not in any way be affected except to the extent that they voluntarily agree to accede in what are called treaties of accession. They fear that once they enter democratic chambers they will not be able to hold on against the onslaught of democracy and by a process of wearing down they will soon be reduced to the position of mere principalities. It was with this object that the late Jam Saheb of Nawanagar, as the Chancellor of the Chamber of Princes, proposed several safeguards for guaranteeing the position of the States against the danger foreshadowed above.

Almost all the Princes of India or their representatives had gathered at Delhi about the time of the publication of the White Paper. The scheme was generally supported by the Princes, subject to the incorporation in the Constitution Act of safeguards for the maintenance of internal autonomy, an equitable distribution of seats among the States in the federal legislature and a satisfactory settlement of the claims made by the Princes under the vague term "paramountcy." The White Paper laid down, among other things, that the allocation of seats for States in the legislature should be dependent (in the case of the upper chamber) on the rank and importance of the States as indicated by dynastic salutes, etc., and (in the case of the lower chamber) on population. On this question the White Paper left room for adjustments among the Princes themselves. In the absence of a settlement, it became clear, an Award by the British Government might become necessary.

Interest next shifted to London where the Joint Parliamentary Committee took evidence on the Reforms proposals. Representatives of the Standing Committee of the Princes' Chamber demanded statutory provisions rendering it permissible for States to enter the proposed Federation collectively through a confederation, measures to secure weightage for the representation of States in the Legislature in the event of a bare minimum federating at the outset, prohibition of discussion of the domestic affairs of States in the Federal Legislature, co-ordinate powers for the Upper House in voting supplies at joint sessions, freedom for States from direct taxation and inviolability of treaties. These conditions were considered essential, but entry into federation would depend on the final completed picture of the Indian constitution.

Some difference of opinion was noticeable amongst the representatives of the Indian States on the question of confederation. Mr. Maqbool Mahmood said that 40 out of 109 Chamber members favoured confederation, which was not opposed to federation but was intended to be a collective organisation to keep the States together for exchange of views with British Indian representatives. Sir Akbar Hydari opposed this idea. He said : Hyderabad would not join a confederation, but did not object to the option of joining being available to other States.

In the course of the proceedings of the Committee, the Princes' representatives declared that the States would not take more than a year after the Constitution Act and the Treaty of Accession had been finally formulated to come to a final decision on federation, provided the door was left open for federating at a later stage.

On the question of finance, Sir Akbar Hydari announced that, if the Budget of British India, central and provincial, was balanced at the time the Constitution Act was passed, the States would immediately enter the federation on the basis of the position then existing.

A certain amount of confusion was created by the claim made by Sir Manubhai Mehta, on behalf of the Chamber of Princes, for the right to secede if the Princes felt it necessary to do so after their experience over a period of time. He conceded the same right to Burma. Sir Akbar Hydari, however, opposed this. The proposal was stoutly opposed by the Secretary of State also. Sir Samuel Hoare said in the course of his evidence before the Committee that when the Crown placed the power acquired from the Indian States at the disposal of the Federation for the functioning of the Federation, it became part of the Federation and the Crown could not return it to the States ; nor could the States demand or resume it later on.

Yet another sensation was caused by the insistence of Mr. Churchill and his followers that the Princes were being jockeyed into accepting Federation so that the White Paper scheme could be pushed through. This, however, was unequivocally repudiated by the representatives of the Princes themselves and by the Secretary of State.

Meanwhile the States peoples met in conference and urged that it should be made obligatory on the Princes to join the Federation and demanded that the States peoples must be represented on the Federal Legislature.

The National Liberal Federation

The definite breach between the moderate and extremist elements in the Congress at its special session in Bombay in August 1918 (*vide* 1919 edition of this book) witnessed the birth of the National Liberal Federation which has, since then, been the platform of Indian moderate leaders. It held its first session in Bombay in 1918, Sir Surendranath Banerjee presiding. The Federation adopted for its creed the old Congress formula which was set aside by the Nagpur Congress.

Those who had held the Federation in high esteem for its moderation, sobriety and balanced judgment suffered a rude shock in 1927 when the Liberal body and its leading lights proved the saying, "If you scratch a Liberal you will find an extremist." Liberal leaders bade goodbye to their avowed principle of co-operation with the Government when they expressed themselves in favour of a boycott of the Royal Commission on Indian Reforms on the ground that there was no Indian on it.

Thenceforward Liberal politics became negative and barren, and leaders who had enjoyed a reputation for sane-thinking came to be regarded as the "wild men" of the Congress. Boycott was the breath of their nostrils, although they were declaring now and then that the door was still open for Government to "make a gesture of co-operation". Their monotonous stagnation was, however, slightly relieved by the efforts at constitution making undertaken at the instance of the Congress. Liberals heartily co-operated in this endeavour and attended the All-Parties Conference summoned by the Congress in the middle of the year. Sir Tej Bahadur Sapru, President of the Liberal Federation, consented to serve on the Committee appointed by the Conference to draft a constitution for India. After months of toil the Committee produced a constitution according to which India would enjoy the status of the Dominions of the British Empire. The report also offered a solution for the communal dissensions and a formula to govern the relations between British India and the Indian States. It was, in a sense, a Liberal document, for the Liberals were the only group of men in the country who unanimously and unreservedly accepted the entire report.

The plea for the grant of Dominion Status was very strongly urged by Sir Chimanlal Setalvad, President of the 1928 Session of the Liberal Federation, who said that the trusteeship of England was coming to an end. The British had to deal with a people who had attained majority and were demanding from the so-called trustees their property and also asking for accounts. The British must change their mentality and must realise the feeling that was growing in the country, which if not guided properly, would swallow everything. This firm attitude on the part of the Liberals whom Government were not slow to recognise as their allies served to hasten the advent of a new era. The changing political situation was exhaustively reviewed at personal interviews between the British Cabinet and the India Office and Lord Irwin, who had gone home on four months' leave. As a result of these conversations, the Viceroy made soon after his return from leave what is now famous as the Proclamation of October 31, 1929. (For details see Congress section).

By the time the Liberals foregathered at Madras, things had moved pretty rapidly in Congress circles. Congress talk of severance of British connection led Liberals to break away from the extremists. Once again the Liberals expressed disapproval of Congress methods. Sir Phiroze Sethna, who presided, denounced the movement which aimed at the severance of India's connection with the Empire and opposed the campaign of civil disobedience.

The Liberal Party's leaders had a busy time of it throughout the year 1930. They had, on the one hand, to set their faces against the civil disobedience movement conducted by the Congress and, on the other, to prepare a strong case for Indian Reforms such as would withstand the attack of diehards in Britain.

The annual session of the Liberal Federation during Christmas had to be postponed owing to the absence of many of its leaders in London and owing to the fact that the discussions at the Round Table Conference had not concluded by then.

The session met in July 1931 under the presidency of Mr. C. Y. Chintamani.

The principal resolutions passed by the Federation demanded that the Federal Executive should be made responsible to the popular Chamber of the Legislature; the residuary powers must be vested with the Central Government; a definite scheme for the Indianisation of the Defence Forces including officers and men within a specified time should be immediately propounded and provision of facilities for the training of Indians for service in all arms of defence, so as to complete the process within a specified period, should be in charge of a Minister responsible to the Legislature; the future Government of India must have complete freedom to adopt measures for the promotion of basic trades and industries; no special powers must be given to the Governor-General and the Governors except in extreme cases of emergency; separate electorates should be done away with and there should be joint electorates with reservation of seats for minorities; there should be no statutory fixation of a majority and the position of all important minorities should be equitably considered in the determination of weightage.

This firm attitude was further stiffened when details of the Round Table Conference scheme began to be worked out both in England and in India in the latter half of 1931.

Early in the year 1932 the personnel of the three committees foreshadowed by the second R.T.C. was announced. The Indian States Committee, presided over by the Rt. Hon. J. C. C. Davidson, dealt with the Indian States only and considered the problems arising out of the federation of the Indian States with British India. Similarly the Percy Committee concerned itself with the financial aspects arising out of the All-India Federation from the Indian point of view. Neither of these committees included any Indian public men from British India. The most important of the three committees was the Franchise Committee presided over by Lord Lothian. It contained a good number of Indians. The recommendations of the Franchise Committee were practically endorsed by the third R.T.C. But the White Paper containing the prop sals of His Majesty's Government for the constitutional reform of India has not embodied these recommendations in important particulars.

While the committees were drafting their reports, Sir Samuel Hoare, the Secretary of State for India, took up the question of constituting the third Round Table Conference. In doing so the British Cabinet at first adopted a plan and procedure radically different from that of the two previous Conferences. The proceedings were to be in camera; the agenda was to be fixed; the number of delegates was considerably cut down; in short, the conference method, according to political opinion in India, was materially whittled down.

This led to angry protests from the progressive Indian section of the R.T.C. They held meetings and leading members like Sir T. B. Sapru threatened non-co-operation. The Council of the Liberal Party met simultaneously and announced the conditions on which it would co-operate with the Cabinet in the matter of the R.T.C. and called upon the Government to make a public announcement accepting these conditions.

In response to these protests and appeals a slightly more liberal scheme was announced. The Liberal Party complained that the Cabinet had paid no heed to the conditions published by it and the party as such refused to co-operate with the R.T.C. Sir T. B. Sapru and the progressive section which worked with him, however, accepted the modified plan and consented to work in the third R.T.C.

When the results of the third R.T.C. were known in India they led to protests on the part of the Liberals and other politically minded sections. A manifesto signed by about one hundred leading and influential public men was issued pointing out many defects in the scheme of the Secretary of State.

When the White Paper embodying the proposals of His Majesty's Government were actually issued the Liberals began to complain even more bitterly and affirmed that the White Paper prop sals were to some extent even more retrograde than the announcement at the Round Table Conference. Even communal parties were not satisfied with it.

The main point of criticism was that the White Paper was based on entire mistrust of the capacity of Indians to bear the burden of responsible government. Consequently, it was argued, it was overweighted with so many checks and safeguards that, in their desire to keep the control of affairs in the hands of Parliament and the Secretary of State by means of the special powers of the Governor-General and the Governors, real responsibility was almost blotted out both in the federal centre and the provinces. Similarly, some Liberal leaders contended, the reservations in the Central Government in respect of defence, foreign relations, etc., and important deductions from the control of the legislatures, had placed a bar sinister against the evolution towards Dominion Status. As regards finance, nearly eighty per cent. of the budget was earmarked, so that the financial responsibility of the legislature was circumscribed to one-fifth portion of the budget. "Questions like tariffs, currency, exchange and the development of indigenous trade and commerce," some complained, "will practically be controlled from Whitehall through the agency of the Governor-General in the exercise of his special powers. The scheme does not lay down any time limit for bringing to an end the period of transition; nor does it provide any constituent powers for the democratic growth of the constitution without reference to Parliament.

A session of the Liberal Federation was held at Calcutta during the Easter of 1933. Dewan Bahadur Ramachandra Rao, a member of the first two R.T.Cs., presided. Leading Liberals like the Rt. Hon. V. S. Sastri took prominent part in the deliberations. The Federation, after two days' full discussion in committee, passed a comprehensive resolution pointing out what in its opinion are defects in the White Paper scheme and suggesting modifications therein so as to render it acceptable to moderate sections in the country. The Liberal Party as such was not represented in the body of Indians chosen to be associated with the Joint Select Committee, nor did the Party as such send any witnesses to give evidence before the Joint Committee.

About this time fresh attempts were made to induce the Liberal Party to co-operate with the Joint Parliamentary Committee, but they remained firm and kept themselves aloof as a party. But Sir Phiroze Setlna and Mr. N. M. Joshi (both Liberals) were invited to go to England, and went in their individual capacity. Free to take their own action, Liberals organised opinion in the country and issued a manifesto signed by members of all parties pointing out the defects in the White Paper. The press and the platform were also utilised to carry on propaganda against the White Paper.

As the Joint Committee began to take evidence they suspended their activities for a while, watching how the Government's proposals were re-shaping themselves under pressure of cross-examination in the committee.

During the interval they held the Annual Session of the Liberal Federation at Madras in Christmas week when the resolutions of the Calcutta Session were reiterated. The most important part of the proceedings of the Federation at Madras was a resolution authorising its President, Mr. J. N. Basu, to take the initiative on behalf of the Liberal Federation as soon as the report of the Joint

Committee was published and convene a conference of all progressive parties in the country to discuss the recommendations made by the committee. At the time of writing, the report is being drafted.

From the Indian point of view, the evidence led before the Joint Parliamentary Committee was incomplete in that the two leading political organisations of the land, namely, the Congress and the Liberal Federation, did not co-operate. Opinion in India steadily hardened as evidence of a reactionary character continued to be tendered to the Committee. (See Round Table Conference Chapter).

As the Congress had practically ceased to function during this period, Liberals and other progressive sections in the country thought it advisable to meet to discuss the White Paper and suggest modifications in it. The Liberals took the lead in this matter and circulars were sent to various leaders. The response, however, was not encouraging, and it did not seem easy to reconcile the various elements in the country and bring them to agree to a common basis. For example, if the Communal Award was to be discussed the Muslims would not join; and if it was to be excluded, the Hindu Mahasabhaites would stay aloof. Similarly, Congressmen did not look with favour on the scheme when they found that the proposed conference would have no "sanction" to enforce its demands. Partly in consideration of these circumstances and partly because it was realised that the White Paper had been sufficiently criticised, the idea of calling a conference was deferred until after the publication of the report of the Joint Select Committee.

MUSLIM ORGANISATIONS.

The awakening of political consciousness among Muslims in India as a separate entity dates back to 1906 when the All-India Muslim League was formed. It worked up its influence steadily, so that when it was hardly ten years old it became sufficiently important to enter into an agreement—known since as the Lucknow Pact—with the powerful Indian National Congress. The League fell on evil days in the 'thirties, and differences set in among its members. When enhanced powers were conferred on India by the Montford Reforms, Muslims became more and more politically minded and began to aspire for a greater share in the control of the administration of the country and in Government posts. This feeling gave rise to the formation of a new body whose promoters concentrated on aggressive presentation of Muslim demands. With the prospect of still further constitutional reforms at the end of the first ten years of the working of the Montford Scheme, these leaders strove to organise Muslims into an influential body which would safeguard their interests more effectively than the League. The result was the All-Parties Muslim Conference in 1928. Muslims' attention had already been diverted towards the end of the War by the Khilafat agitation carried on by the Khilafat Committee. The growing weakness of the League and the dissensions within it were at once the cause and effect of the birth of rivals which while it contributed to wider political education of the community, diffused the energy of its leaders and divided their loyalty among different organisations. The constitutional discussions in the Round Table Conference and later served to check the spread of this fissiparous tendency. The publication of the Communal Award and its inclusion in the White Paper Scheme of Reforms in 1933 helped this process of consolidation. At the time of writing, thanks to the efforts of the Aga Khan and other leaders, the League has been unified, the various Muslim organisations brought into closer and co-ordinated activity and encouraging progress made in the task of bringing in the Conference also into the Muslim Unity Scheme.

The Moslem League.—The All-India Moslem League came into being in 1906 out of the universal desire among leading Mussalmans of that time for an effective organisation to protect their communal interests. With a view to secure separate Muslim representation in the legislative bodies of the land under the Minto-Morley scheme of constitutional reform then under discussion, Indian Moslems who had been hitherto keeping aloof from politics organised the League. Its original objects were the promotion of loyalty to British Government, the protection of political and other rights of Mussalmans and to place their needs and aspirations before Government in temperate language and to promote inter-communal unity without prejudice to the other objects of the League. Moslem opinions slowly advanced: and in 1913 the securing of self-government within the British Empire was included in the objects. The League was a powerful and influential body in 1916 and 1917, and what is known as the Lucknow pact of communal representation arrived at between the League and the Congress in 1916 was bodily incorporated in the Government of India Act, 1919. The birth of the Khilafat Committee however overshadowed the League which from 1919 had almost disappeared till April 1923 when it met for a brief period under the presidentship of the late Mr. Bhurgri, but had to be adjourned for want of a quorum. In 1924, however, some influential Moslem leaders like Mr. M. A. Jinnah thought that the Khilafat Committee's functions having ceased in view of the Turkish deposition of the Khalifa decided to revive the League which met under Mr. Jinnah's chairmanship at Lahore in May 1924. The Lahore session practically did nothing else save to reorganise the scattered branches of the League.

The 1925 and 1926 sessions of the League were noted for their virility. The Muslims displayed greater allegiance to their communal organisation in proportion to the loyalty of the Hindus to their Maha Sabha. Suspicion and distrust, enmity and open hostility began to prevail between the two communities. Proportionate distribution of the loaves and fishes of office, on the political side, and the questions of the Hindus playing music before mosques and the Mahomedans killing cows, on the religious side, constituted the points of difference which frequently led to inter-communal riots. The situation was regarded with grave concern by serious minded leaders, some of whom, under

the leadership of Mr. Jinnah, met at Delhi early in 1927 and offered, in the name of the Muslims, to surrender their right to communal electorates, provided, among other things, Sind was constituted, into a separate province and reforms were introduced in the N. W. Frontier Provinces and Baluchistan. This offer, however, was acceptable neither to the Hindus nor the Muslim masses who insisted on the continuance of the separate electorates. A schism set in the Muslim League which was accentuated by the announcement of the personnel of the Statutory Commission on Indian Reforms. The non-inclusion of Indians on the Commission was construed by a certain section of the Muslims as an insult to India; and those who held this view decided to boycott the Commission. The majority of the community, however, thought otherwise. The gulf between the two sections widened during 1928. The 1929 Session served to strengthen the new organisation, the All Parties Muslim Conference. Refusing to walk into Mr. Jinnah's parlour the supporters of the All Parties Muslim Conference were engrossed in their constructive work. They were joined by the members of the Shafi section of the League who had come to Delhi in the hope of making up their differences with the Jinnah group but who were sadly disillusioned. The two organisations have since been functioning independently, the Conference daily gaining strength and the League losing its grit on the community and suffering from internal differences. The League's domestic quarrels were, however, settled early in 1934 and at the time of writing attempts are being made for bringing the League and the Conference together.

The All Parties Muslim Conference.—The publication of the Nehru Report hastened the advent of the All-Parties Muslim Conference. The Conference was called in 1928 to counteract the effect of the Nehru Report and to formulate the Muslim community's demand in regard to the future constitution of India. Notwithstanding the refusal of the Jinnah Leaguers to participate in the proceedings, the Conference was attended by almost all the prominent Muslim leaders of the country, including a very large number of the members of the Councils and the Assembly. There was ready agreement on the unsuitability of the Nehru Report, but difference of opinion prevailed with regard to the goal of India. Persons like Mr. Mahomed Ali stood for complete independence and, of course, for the boycott of the Commission; while Sir Mahomed Shafi, who had a very large following, favoured co-operation with the Commission in the framing of a constitution within the Empire. Things wore a gloomy aspect for a while, but thanks mainly to the tact of the President, the Aga Khan, a compromise was reached whereby the mention either of "Dominion status" or "Independence" was omitted from the resolution put before the Conference which demanded merely "a federal constitution". Similarly it referred neither to the Simon Commission nor to the Nehru Report, but insisted on compliance with the demands of the Conference by any agency which devised a constitution. The Conference has since held the field as the most important and authoritative exponent of the community's views, despite repeated challenges by the League, etc.

Muslim Activities in 1931-33.—Unlike the Congress, the Muslim political organisations used to be known for their lethargy except during the week when their annual meetings are held. During the past three or four years, however, they displayed unusual activity. This is no doubt due to the summoning of the Round Table Conference to settle the basis of India's future constitution. Unattracted by the negative but spectacular programme of the Congress, the majority of the Muslims appreciated the danger of allowing their case to go by default at the momentous London Conference and took a lively interest in its work before and during its proceedings. Repeated attempts were made throughout 1930, particularly during the latter half, to bring Indian Muslim leaders together for ventilating the community's demands. The credit for this useful activity goes to the All-India Muslim Conference, the Muslim League remaining practically inert. In July the Executive Board of the All-Parties Muslim Conference met at Simla and formulated the community's demands. The Simon Report was examined and rejected, but the Round Table Conference was welcomed. Shortly after the opening of the Round Table Conference, the All-Parties Muslim Conference met at Lucknow and reiterated what have come to be known as Mr. Jinnah's Fourteen Points, which demand a series of provisions calculated to protect the community against possible Hindu aggression. The more important of the Fourteen Points are: federal constitution with residuary powers vested in the provinces; uniform provincial autonomy; effective representation for minorities in all provincial legislatures; one-third representation for Muslims in the Central Legislature; guarantee against a disturbance of the Muslim majority in the Punjab, Bengal, the N.-W. Frontier Province; full religious liberty; no prejudicial communal legislation except under certain conditions; share for Muslims in the cabinet and the services; reforms for the N.-W. F.-P. and Baluchistan; separation of Sind; protection of Muslim culture; and insistence on separate electorates unless the above points are conceded. The Hindus seemed in no mood to concede their demands; the Congress persisted in its civil disobedience campaign, paying little heed to the Muslim desire to settle the communal problem before fighting the Government; the Hindu delegates in London did not allay Muslim fears—these factors produced among the Muslims a frame of mind which found expression in the presidential address delivered by Sir Muhammad Iqbal, at Allahabad towards the fag end of the year. Typifying the prevalent Muslim exasperation, Sir Muhammad demanded the formation of a Muslim State in the North-West, comprising Sind, the Punjab and the N.-W. Frontier Province, within the State of India. Such a state would afford a permanent solution of the communal problem, he said and averred that the cultural development of the community demanded it.

In the year 1931, communal agreement became a necessity in view of the important deliberations in London concerning the future constitution of India. The ratification of the Delhi Pact by the Congress and its resolve to participate in the London Conference brought the communal issue to the forefront. The first Round Table Conference had ended with an assurance by the Premier that no legislation

would be undertaken without satisfaction being afforded to the minorities. And if the Congress wished to have its scheme accepted by the Conference it was up to it to carry the Muslims with it. Faced with the task of making constructive proposals, the Congress seriously set about making provisions satisfactory to the Muslims and other minorities.

The leaders of the community, who had not much faith in promises made by the Hindu-ridden Congress, refused to be satisfied with anything less than statutory guarantees for the protection of their rights and privileges. Their suspicions were increased by the manner in which a few members of their community, styling themselves as "Nationalist Muslims", were playing into the hands of the Congress leaders. The task of carrying on negotiations was thus rendered more complex. A series of conversations was held in the summer between Mr. Gandhi, the Muslim leaders and the Nationalist Muslims, but no useful scheme emerged.

The Muslim leaders, on the other hand, strove to consolidate the position of the community and to present a united front at the Round Table Conference. A special session of the All-India Muslim Conference reiterated the Muslims' Fourteen Points and affirmed that the continuance of the majority community in its present state of mind would produce civil war. It accused the British authorities of spineless handling of the position and warned them that their pandering to the Congress would ruin the country.

The Conference was so strong on the question of guarantees for the continued enjoyment of their rights that a proposal was seriously discussed that if their demands were not conceded the Muslim delegates should refuse to co-operate with the Round Table Conference and oppose Dominion Status or responsibility at the centre. The discussion, however, was adjourned *sine die*.

As time passed on it became increasingly evident to the Muslim leaders that Mr. Gandhi was trying to play off the Nationalist Muslims against the whole community, and Mr. Shaukat Ali gave a stern warning to Mr. Gandhi and the Congress.

Shortly after the All-India Conference had held its special session, the Nationalist Muslims met in conference and passed a resolution which favoured the introduction of a federal constitution, residuary powers vesting in the federating units. Representation in the Legislatures was to be on the basis of (a) universal adult franchise, (b) joint electorates, (c) reservation of seats in the Federal and Provincial Legislatures on a population basis for minorities less than 30 per cent., with the right to contest additional seats. The resolution added that Nationalist Muslims were prepared to negotiate for a settlement of the outstanding questions on the basis of joint electorates and adult franchise.

In pursuance of this offer, negotiations were opened between the two wings of the Muslim community but it came to nothing.

The latter half of 1932 and the early months of 1933 were marked by countless attempts not only to consolidate the ranks of the Muslims but also as between the Muslims and the other communities. Real activity started only with the publication of the Communal Award. The Council of the All-India Muslim League met in September and resolved that although the Award fell short of the minimum demands of the Muslims it represented a method which removed a great obstacle from the path of constitutional advance. This represented the bulk of Muslim opinion.

The unity move took various shapes and engaged the attention of numerous conferences. Paradoxically enough it led to unity and discord at the same time. While it brought together those Muslims who wished to consolidate what they had achieved for the community in recent years by securing for it the seal of approval of the other communities and carry these latter with them through the remainder of the constitutional discussions, it alienated the leftist Muslims who would be party to no compromise with Hindus and others who, they argued, had denied them their due until the British Government came to their rescue. The latter section was led by Sir M. Iqbal, Dr. S. Ahmed, Moulvie Sahfi Dawoodi and others.

The first of these important conversations were held in Lucknow in October when Muslims of almost all shades of opinion except the Iqbal school accepted thirteen of the famous Fourteen Points. As for the 14th, namely, the nature of the electorates, the leaders gathered, agreed to start negotiations on the basis of what is known as the Mahomed Ali Formula which makes it obligatory upon a successful candidate to the councils to secure ten per cent. votes of the other communities and 40 per cent. minimum of the recorded votes of his own community For this method it was claimed that it was better than either joint or separate electorate as "it would enable the right type of Hindu and Muslim to be returned". This was definitely opposed by the Muslim Conference group led by Sir M. Iqbal.

Then followed what were called Unity Conferences in November and December—the latter to ratify the conclusions reached at the former. In connection with both of these, progressive Muslims, including Maulana Shaukat A', but excluding the Iqbal group, held their own communal meetings and drew up a formula embodying the maximum they were prepared to concede for the sake of unity and peace, and their formula was later discussed at the regular Unity Conference. The two sessions of the Unity Conference dragged on for a number of days and after numerous deadlocks reached in understanding on most of the points in dispute such as Sind, Baluchistan, Punjab, residuary powers etc. But when the efforts had all but succeeded the conversations ended abruptly owing to the uncompromising attitude adopted by the Bengal Hindus who refused to yield even an inch.

Thus after months of negotiations the position was as it had been before the publication of the Communal Award. Ideed, it became slightly

worse to the extent that it definitely isolated the Iqbal group and the Punjab Muslims. This unfortunate development found expression in the way in which a provisional settlement arrived at on the Punjab communal question with the aid of Sir Fazl-i-Hussain was rejected by the Punjab Muslims in the first few months of 1933.

Muslim Activities in 1933-34.—Notwithstanding these reverses, a renewed attempt was made early in 1933 to amalgamate the Conference and the League. These met with instant failure. Far from securing the end, they resulted in creating a split in the ranks of the League. When a proposal was made in the Council of the League in March to amalgamate the League with the Conference, the question was raised whether the Council could take a decision binding on the parent body. The motion was ruled out by the acting President, Main Abdul Aziz, who was physically thrown out of the chair for giving that ruling. The meeting ended amidst scenes of confusion and violence. The differences were soon composed, but on the understanding that no controversial subjects like amalgamation with the Conference would be brought up. A manifesto signed by leaders of various provinces urged the re-habilitation of the League into the "Parliament of Indian Muslims" and a cable was sent to Mr. M. A. Jinnah, who was then in England, to return to India, assume charge of the League and restore it to its original status and influence. Despite this, the peace in the League proved to be short-lived. In May the trouble reappeared, and the officers of the League were suspended by the acting President for "improperly" convening a meeting of the Council. At a meeting of the Council in the end of that month, the scenes of March were repeated and the President was again pushed out of the chair. These incidents served to emphasise the breach that had occurred in the ranks of the followers of the League. The gulf became wider towards the end of the year when two sessions of the League were held, one in Calcutta and the other in Delhi. The dispute continued right up to February 1934 when, thanks to the good offices of the Aga Khan, the League was reunited under the presidency of Mr. Jinnah.

The publication of the White Paper set the various Muslim organisations busy. The executive board of the All-India Muslim Conference met together and asked for the largest measure of fiscal, administrative and legislative autonomy for the provinces, demanded the curtailment of the Governor's powers and urged statutory safeguards for the protection of the personal law, education and culture of Muslims. Similarly, the League session at Calcutta expressed dissatisfaction with such of the provisions of the Communal Award and the White Paper as fell short of the Muslim demands in respect of their representation in the legislatures. The Delhi Session of the League wanted the Governors' powers to be clearly defined in the constitution and opposed all efforts to change the Communal Award.

Meanwhile Mr. Shaukat Ali returned to India from his American tour and forthwith got into touch with Pandit Madan Mohan Malaviya to bring about inter-communal unity. The move, which did not progress very smoothly owing to the stiff attitude adopted by the leaders of the Hindu Mahasabha, had to be abandoned when the attention of the Hindus was diverted by Mr. Gandhi's fast. The refusal of the Congress in July to give up civil disobedience made it impossible for Muslims to continue to negotiate with Hindus who were wedded to an unconstitutional body.

Mr. Shaukat Ali instead took active interest in a new move to bring about complete unity among all Muslim organisations, so that the community could act as one when the reforms were introduced. The unity talks continued throughout the year and even in the first two months of 1934. The plan met with considerable opposition from the All-India Muslim Conference and the Hafiz Hidayat Hussain section of the League, who felt that the object of the promoters of unity was to compromise on the electorate question. In spite of the non-co-operation of these two bodies, the unity conference met at Lucknow in December under the presidency of the Raja of Salempur. Representatives of the other League, the Khilafat Committee, the Nationalist Muslim Party and the Jamait-ul-Ulema took part.

The President denied the charge that it was an electioneering stunt and affirmed that the object was to secure the political and social amelioration of the community and to weld the various sections into one body working for their common good. The idea was to form a unity board consisting of representatives of the various organisations each of which would continue to function as a separate entity.

The President criticised the White Paper, but added that they had to accept the Communal Award in the absence of a better and more satisfactory substitute based on inter-communal agreement.

The unity board suggested was formed shortly after; but by way of practical work, not much has been done up to the time of writing.

The Aga Khan had meanwhile arrived in India and his presence acted like a tonic on the League. After a series of conferences between the leaders of the two sections, it was decided that the officers of both sides should resign and submit to the Aga Khan's arbitration. This was done and His Highness suggested that the League should be reunited and Mr. Jinnah requested to become its President. Mr. Jinnah agreed and the League emerged once again a harmonious body after years of strife. The Aga Khan's efforts to bring together the League and the Conference did not meet with success.

The Khilafat Committee.—The origin of the Central Khilafat Committee is to be found in the closing days of the Great War when Turkey was feeling the consequences of defeat at the hands of the Allies. Mussulmans in India naturally sympathised with their co-religionists in Turkey and carried on ceaseless agitation against the division of Turkey into small bits among the Allies. Being anxious for the safety of the holy places of Islam and opposed

to the dismemberment of Turkey, they felt a considerable amount of bitterness against the British, who as the principal Allied Power, were dictating their own terms to vanquished Turkey. Formed thus for the protection of the Khilafat as a temporal as well as a religious Power, the Central Khilafat Committee was exploited to good purpose by the leaders of the Congress movement in India which had found in "the Punjab Wrongs" an effective means of propaganda against the British rule in India. Commonness of ill feeling towards the British brought the two closer. While it gave impetus to the Congress by securing for the Congress support from the Muslims, it also received support from the Congress in agitating for the "righting of the Khilafat wrongs." Thus the two worked side by side, mutually helpful.

Madras Khilafat Conference under the chairmanship of Mr. Shaukat Ali unfolded a programme of progressive non-co-operation and appealed to the country for support. The Khilafat Committee, with the huge funds at its disposal, was able to draft in a large number of delegates to the Calcutta special Congress in 1920 when the non-co-operation programme was accepted by that body with two more objects added to it, namely, the obtaining of Swaraj and the righting of the Punjab wrongs.

With the deposition of the Khilafat by the Kemalists and the revival of the Moslem League, the Committee's activities have been considerably restricted. Recently the Committee sent a deputation to Nejd to intervene and settle the dispute between the warring elements. Though the Government of India were willing to permit a deputation of the Committee to Turkey, the Turkish Government did not quite like the idea which had consequently to be abandoned.

The 1925 session of the Khilafat Conference was rendered lively by Mr. Hasrat Mohani whose speech strongly criticising Sultan Ibn Saud was subsequently expunged. The resolution adopted by the conference under the presidentship of Mr. Abul Kalam Azad condemned the British policy in Iraq and the League's decision on Mosul and declared that if the Turks went to war on the latter issue the Conference would deem it its duty to help them.

For some years since then one heard little about the public activities of the Committee, although many of its domestic quarrels engaged the attention of the public. Funds, however, continued to be collected for the "activities" of the Committee which could hardly be specified. Things dragged on until the latter half of 1927, when the leaders found the Khilafat organisation a useful tool for purposes of their propaganda for boycotting the Statutory Commission on Indian Reforms. This was successfully achieved by the extremist wire-pullers at Madras in 1927.

In the next year, however, a peculiar situation arose as the result of the publication of the Nehru Report. This document raised many controversial issues. Its two main recommendations, namely, Dominion Status for India and joint electorates with temporary reservation of seats, were not acceptable to the Khilafatists whose ideal was an extreme type of nationalism coupled with rank communalism. They wanted complete independence for India but insisted on the continuance of separate electorates. This state of mind found expression at the annual session of the Khilafat Conference which met in 1928 at Calcutta.

In the years following the publication of the Nehru Report, the Khilafat Committee re-appeared on the Indian political stage and vigorously strove to repudiate that document. This it succeeded in doing, as the Muslims with one voice condemned it as pro-Hindu. As months passed by, it became increasingly clear to the Muslims that the Congress was getting more and more Hindu-ridden and that they could not expect due protection for their communal rights from the Congress or its leaders. The appreciation of this situation by the Muslim masses was mainly due to the activities of the Khilafat Committee and its leaders. Thus when the Khilafat Conference met in Lahore in 1929 it was resolved that the Khilafatists should participate in the Round Table Conference convened by the British Government to settle the future constitution of India, although in the same breath the Conference declared itself in favour of independence. This latter, however, was but a wordy sop to the extremists, as the main body of Khilafat workers started in 1929 and continued since then a regular fight against the Congress.

In the past few years, in addition to the effective prevention of the Muslims from joining the Congress unless the communal question was satisfactorily settled, the Khilafat Committee did a considerable work abroad. The Ali brothers, who were the soul of the Khilafat movement, worked for the Arab federation and the Tanzim of Mussulmans all over the world. During this time, the movement lost Maulana Mahomed Ali, who passed away in London in the midst of his strenuous work for his country and his co-religionists; and the work of carrying on the increasing activities of the Khilafat Committee fell on the shoulders of his brother Maulana Shaukat Ali. The invitation to bury the departed leader in the mosque of Omar in Jerusalem brought the Indian Muslims closer to the Arabs. This fellow feeling among Muslims in different parts of the globe found expression in a huge conference held in Jerusalem which served to create a new spirit of internationalism among the followers of Islam—one of the cherished objects of the Indian Khilafatists.

The advent of the Nazi regime in Germany and its anti-semtic policy turned the Jews out of that country. This led to an increasing concentration of Jews in Palestine. Jews all over the world was stirred by the plight of Jewish exiles from Germany and this gave vigour to the movement for a national home for Jews in Palestine. Muslims there were adversely affected by this and involved the sympathy of their co-religionists in India who readily responded. The Khilafat organisation took a leading part in this activity. A Palestine Delegation paid a visit to India and Indian Muslims, whose extra-territorial patriotism was

aroused, called meetings and sent deputation to the authorities. Arrangements were also made for sending a deputation to London.

As the representatives of Indian Muslims in the London Conference, the Ali brothers effectively safeguarded their interests. In addition, Maulana Shaukat Ali repeatedly impressed on British audiences and leaders the advisability of keeping the Indian Muslims contented as it would please Muslims in other parts of the world.

The history of the Khilafat movement followed a peculiar course on the North-Western Frontier Province of India. There the Khilafat organisation conducted a ceaseless agitation over the local grievances of the Muslim population and the disaffection towards the Government thus created was promptly exploited by the Congress for furthering its own lawless activities. Being sturdy people accustomed to fighting, they often found it impossible to observe the Congress creed of non-violence. A number of clashes ensued, with attendant casualties.

The fourteenth session of the Khilafat Conference met at Ajmer in September 1932 under the presidentship of Sheikh Abdul Majid. He condemned the caste system among Hindus which, according to him, was responsible for the demand of separate electorates by the depressed classes. As for separate electorates for Mussalmans, he held there was no choice left to them except to ask for such a safeguard. He reiterated the fourteen points, but was none the less in favour of a compromise if it was possible on honourable lines. He suggested the voluntary dissolution of all the existing political organisations of Mussalmans and the formation of one comprehensive body. At the open session of the conference a resolution was passed characterising the communal award as absolutely unsatisfactory in that only three out of the fourteen points had been conceded by it.

The All-India Khilafat Committee met at Lucknow in December 1933, when the Palestine Conference was also held. The President, Mr. Murtaza Bahadur, protested against the Balfour Declaration which "converted the home of Arabs for centuries, which was sacred to the Muslim world, into a national home for Jews." A resolution was passed deciding to reorganise Khilafat Committees in all parts of India, so that they might "safeguard the sacred lands from occupation and invasion by non-Muslims." The Conference also resolved to send a deputation to the Viceroy, to organise a party of Indian Muslims to visit Palestine and later to place their case before British Ministers.

The Round Table Conference.

The first session of the Indian Round Table Conference, which was held in London during the autumn of 1930 and January 1931, was remarkable for the spirit of unity. At the first sitting Sir Tej Bahadur Sapru, on behalf of the British Indian Delegates, extended an invitation to the Princes and States to consider entering an All-Indian Federation, which would establish a federal government and a federal executive, embracing both the British Provinces and the Indian States in one whole, associated for common purposes, but each securing control of their own affairs, the Provinces autonomous, and the States sovereign and autonomous. This, though it struck an unexpected note at the Conference, was no more than the fruition of an old idea. The authors of the Montagu-Chelmsford Report, which laid the foundations of the great Reform Act of 1919, visualised the steady progression of the federal idea, but the notable passage in which they indicated this purpose slipped into the background in the confused and difficult days that followed. Sir John Simon and his colleagues, who conducted the parliamentary inquiry into the working of this Act, declared their adhesion to the federal idea, and proposed as a contribution to it the establishment of A Council of Greater India, in which the representatives of British India and the Indian States should sit for the discussion of matters of common concern. The Government of India, in a lengthy despatch on the Simon Report, also adhered to the federal principle, though they expressed the view that it was a distant ideal. Many Indian publicists had declared the faith that without the adoption of the federal principle no substantial growth of the Indian constitution was practicable. But although federalism had always been in the background, none had possessed sufficient courage to bring it into the forefront until Sir Tej Bahadur Sapru invited the Princes to consider it. The invitation was promptly accepted. His Highness the Maharaja of Bikaner, speaking for the general body, at once declared that subject to the incorporation in the statute of certain defined conditions—they were in substance the guaranteeing of the sovereignty and treaty rights of the States, and the protection of their essential interests—the Princes and States would favourably consider any such proposal; later he averred his belief that, provided the completed picture was satisfactory, seventy-five per cent. of the States would join a federation.

Real Progress.—By common consent, this patriotic offer by the Princes and States transformed the situation. The goal of the British-Indian publicist was the establishment of responsible government in India, with "safeguards" during the transitional period, and ultimate

Dominion status for that responsible government. With the assurance of the participation of the Princes and States, bringing a powerful element of stability into the governing machine, Lord Reading, speaking for the Liberals, accepted the crucial proposition of a responsible government at the centre. Later, the spokesmen for the Conservative Party took up the same position, though perhaps in more cautious terms. On this guiding principle substantial progress was made in sketching the outline of a federal constitution. True, the Minorities Question, that is to say the adequate protection of the minorities in the Indian population, especially the great Moslem community, remained unsettled and Moslem acceptance of responsibility at the centre was conditional on the solution of this very thorny issue. But the measure of progress was so satisfactory before the Conference separated in January 1931, that speaking for His Majesty's Government the Prime Minister, Mr. Ramsay MacDonald, was in a position to make the following announcement:

"The view of His Majesty's Government is that responsibility for the Government of India should be placed upon Legislatures, Central and Provincial, with such provisions as may be necessary to guarantee, during a period of transition, the observance of certain obligations and to meet other special circumstances, and also with such guarantees as are required by minorities to protect their political liberties and rights.

"In such statutory safeguards as may be made for meeting the needs of the transitional period, it will be a primary concern of His Majesty's Government to see that the reserved powers are so framed and exercised as not to prejudice the advance of India through the new constitution to full responsibility for her own Government."

Participation of Congress.—But representative as it was in all other respects, the first session of the Congress embraced no representative of The Indian National Congress. For various reasons that stood aloof. During the interval between the rising of the first session, and the convening of the second, negotiations were carried on with a view to the Congress suspending the Civil Disobedience Movement on which it had embarked and joining in the task of framing the new constitution. These discussions ended in what was called "The Gandhi-Irwin Pact", which embodied a settlement covering the whole field in dispute, and in an undertaking on the part of the Congress to participate in the Round Table discussions, and to suspend civil disobedience. After many hesitations Mr. Gandhi, who was appointed sole representative of the Congress, sailed for England, and others who had remained aloof from the earlier proceedings joined the Delegation. At first Mr. Gandhi's contribution to the work of the Conference was helpful. Though he was perhaps more anxious to justify Congress, and to maintain its right to speak for India, he accepted the principle of federation, and the task of making it easy for the Princes and States to enter therein. But afterwards his contribution was less helpful. Specially was this the case in relation to the Minorities.

The Communal Award.

The decision of the British Government in regard to the representation of the various communities in British India in the Provincial Legislatures, on which the communities themselves were unable to agree, was published in August 1932. The award followed a thorough and comprehensive inquiry into the proportions and position of the various communities in the Provinces. The decision was not given on strictly arithmetical lines; thus the Sikhs with 32 seats out of a total of 175 in the Punjab Legislature secured a larger representation than they would on a population basis. The table of distribution avoided the term Hindu. Its place was taken by the heading "General", but it was clear that those under that heading would be overwhelmingly, if not entirely, Hindu, for Muslims, Sikhs, Indian Christians (with some exceptions) Anglo-Indians and Europeans would vote in separate communal constituencies. The seats were distributed as follows: General, 705; Depressed Classes, 61; Backward areas, 20; Sikhs, 35; Muslim, 489; Indian Christians, 21; Anglo-Indians, 12; Europeans, 25; Commerce and Industry, 54; Landholders, 35; Universities, 8; and Labour, 38.

With regard to the Depressed Classes, it was explained that they would vote in the general constituencies, but in order to ensure adequate representation to them special seats were also allotted. It was contemplated that this arrangement, which gave the members of these classes two votes, should be limited to 20 years. As to women voters, His Majesty's Government came to the decision to limit the electorate for each special woman's seat to voters from one community.

Accompanying the award was an explanatory statement by the Prime Minister in the course of which he observed as follows:

"Our duty was plain. As the failure of the communities to agree amongst themselves had placed an almost insurmountable obstacle in the way of any constitutional development, it was incumbent upon the Government to take action. In accordance, therefore, with the pledges that I gave on behalf of the Government at the Round Table Conference in response to the repeated appeals from representative Indians and in accordance with the statement approved by the British Parliament, the Government are to-day publishing a scheme of representation in the provincial assemblies that they intend, in due course, to lay before Parliament unless, in the meanwhile the communities themselves agree upon a better plan.

"We should be only too glad if at any stage before the proposed Bill becomes law the communities can reach an agreement amongst themselves. But guided by the past experience the Government are convinced that no further negotiations will be of any advantage and they can be no party to them. They will, however, be ready and willing to substitute for their scheme any scheme whether in respect of any one or more of the Governors' Provinces or in respect of the whole of British India that is generally agreed to and accepted by all the parties affected."

THE THIRD CONFERENCE.

Following the publication of the communal award, the third session of the Round Table Conference was summoned in London. The Congress did not participate in it. Most of its leaders including Mr. Gandhi were in prison for reviving the civil disobedience movement. Profiting by past experience Government refused to consider the question of releasing them unless and until the lawless movement which they had initiated was unconditionally called off. The Conference was nevertheless attended by representatives of all other parties in India and lasted from 17th November 1932 to 24th December 1932. Its achievements were summed up by Sir Samuel Hoare, the Secretary of State for India, in his concluding speech at the final plenary session. He said :

I would venture to sum up the results in two sentences. I would say, first of all, we have clearly delimited the field upon which the future constitution is going to be built. In a much more detailed manner than in the last two years we have delimited the spheres of activity of the various parts of the constitution. Secondly and I regard this result as much more important than even that important first result, we have I believe created an *esprit de corps* amongst all of us that is determined to see the building that is going to be reared upon the field that we marked out both complete in itself and completed at the earliest possible date. Lord Chancellor, I said that we had marked out the ground. Let me explain by a few examples what I mean by that assertion. I take the various parts of the constitutional structure in order.

I begin with the part that Indian India, the India of the States, is to play in the Federation. There we have made it quite clear that there is no risk in any respect to the Treaties or to the obligations into which they and we have entered. I hope that I have made it quite clear that all questions governed by that general term "paramountcy" do not enter into the Federal scheme at all. I think also I may say that we made some progress in the enquiry over which Lord Irwin presided one day this week into the methods by which the States will accede to the Federation.

Let me say in passing—for I think it may help our future discussions both here and in India—that we have always regarded an effective Federation as meaning the accession of a reasonable number of States and, as at present advised, we should regard something like not less than half the States seats and not less than half the population as the kind of definition that we have in mind.

Next I come to the Federation and the Units Here, again, I think we have made great progress in delimiting the field between the Centre on the one hand and the Provincial and States Units on the other. We have been very carefully through the lists of Federal and non-Federal activities, and we have got much nearer to agreement than we have ever reached before.

Next there is the very difficult question of Federal Finance, one of the most vital questions in the whole field of Federal activities. Unfortunately we were discussing that question at a time of great difficulty. We have been discussing it at a time when no Government in the world has sufficient money for its needs. But I think I can claim that there again we have made some substantial progress. I fully admit that there are differences still to be recognised and to be reconciled. I do not think it could be otherwise in any question of this kind.

As regards the size of the Chamber, I had hoped that we should have reached a greater measure of agreement than we have found possible during these last weeks. It has been made clear that there still are differences to be reconciled, not only differences between British India and the States, but differences between the bigger States and the smaller States, differences even between some members of the Chamber of Princes and other members of the Chamber of Princes.

Then there was the question of the representation of the communities in the Centre particularly of the Muslim Community. There I think I can say definitely—I think I have said it indirectly very often before—that the Government consider that the Muslim Community should have a representation of 33⅓ per cent. of the British Indian seats in the Federal Chambers. So far as Indian India is concerned, that must be a matter for arrangement between the communities affected and the India of the Princes. But so far as the British Government has any part in the question, we will at any time give our good offices to making it as easy as possible for an arrangement between those parties in regard to future allocation of seats. There again I venture to say that definitely to-day, because I am anxious that that factor in the problem should not in any way impede the future progress in elaborating the further stages of the Constitution.

Now, with all these Federal questions, I can see that there is a grave anxiety in the minds of many members of the Conference—and I can sympathise with that anxiety—lest the various complications of which I have just given you certain instances should take too long to settle, and that the Federation itself will drift into the dim distance and will cease to be a reality in practical politics.

Feeling that anxiety, Sir Tej Bahadur Sapru asked last night that a definite date should be placed in the Bill at which time the Federation should come into being. He qualified his request—and qualified it, no doubt, quite rightly—with the reservation that if the conditions were not fulfilled, Parliament must have some means at its disposal for postponing the date of the Federation.

Now I agree with him that the last thing in the world that we wish to see the Federation drift back into being simply an idea and not an

integral part of the Indian Constitution. But I think I ought to say that I do find a difficulty in agreeing—if indeed this is the time to agree or disagree—to anything in the nature of a definite date in the provision of the Act. The difficulties that are in my mind are twofold. I am not quite sure—and here I am speaking very candidly in the presence of representatives of the States—what reaction something that might appear to be rather in the nature of an ultimatum might have on the Indian States themselves.

Again, I find this difficulty, I feel the machinery of the Constitution will be of an extremely complicated nature, and I think that Parliament, if it were confronted with a definite date, might demand a longer interval and more cautious provisions than it would require if there were no fixed date. After all the machinery for bringing the Act into operation is going to be of a very complicated nature. I have always contemplated that some such method as a Parliamentary Resolution of both Houses would be adopted for bringing the Federation into operation, and that that method would be adopted at the earliest possible opportunity.

What I can say to Sir Tej Bahadur Sapru is that we are going to do our utmost to remove every obstacle in the way of Federation and to remove it at the earliest possible date. Let me also say to him, we do not intend to inaugurate any kind of provincial autonomy under conditions which might leave Federation to follow on as a mere contingency in the future.

Lastly, let me say a word upon another side of this part of our discussions. For the last two years we have discussed the question of certain new Provinces. We have discussed the question of Sind from the very opening of our deliberations two years ago. Last year we discussed in detail for the first time the question of Orissa. Since those discussions we have had expert enquiries into both questions.

Basing our views upon the Reports of those enquiries, basing our views still more on what appears to be a very general agreement both in India and in Great Britain, we have come definitely to the conclusion that Sind and Orissa should both be separate Provinces. No doubt there will be details of machinery to settle and some of them of a rather complicated kind.

Lord Chancellor, I have now dealt with the more prominent of the features of our discussions that emerge upon the more directly constitutional side of the Federation itself. Let me now come to the other series of problems that in some cases affect more directly Great Britain and in other cases affect certain communities and certain interests in India itself. I mean by this all that chapter of questions that by a rough and ready phrase we have described as "safeguards." Lord Chancellor, let me say at the outset of my observations that I regard the safeguards not as a stone wall that blocks the road, but as the hedges on each side that no good driver ever touches but that prevent people on a dark night falling into the ditch. They are not intended to obstruct a real transfer of responsible power. They are not intended to impede the day to day administration of any Indian Minister. They are rather ultimate controls that we hope will never need to be exercised for the greater reassurance of the world outside both in India and in Great Britain. Let me take the two instances that have been most prominent in this part of our discussions. Let me take the most difficult question of all the difficulty of a transfer of financial responsibility. There, Lord Chancellor, I am not disclosing any secret when I say that during the last twelve months the British Government have fully accepted the fact that there can be no effective transfer of responsibility unless there is an effective transfer of financial responsibility. We have fully accepted that fact and we have done our best in the very difficult circumstances that have faced us to reconcile the legitimate demand of every Indian politician for financial control with the legitimate demand of every one who is interested in finance, not only for stability, but for a situation in which there would not even be a suggestion that stability could be questioned. For in the field of finance it is not only the fact itself that matters, but it is what people say about that fact.

Now our difficulties have arisen from two sources. In the first place, there is the fact that, as things are at present, a large part of the Indian revenue has to be devoted to meeting the obligations that have grown up during these years of partnership between Indian and Great Britain. That in itself—and I am sure no one would question the justice of the point of view—makes people here, investors who invested their money in Indian securities, men and women whose families are interested in the meeting of the old obligations, extremely nervous of any change. Secondly, there is the fact that we are passing through, I suppose, the most difficult financial crisis that has faced Asia and Europe for many generations. In the case of India there is a peculiar difficulty, namely, that a large body of short-term loans raised under the name of the Secretary of State in London, fall due for payment in the next six years. That means that, if the Federation is to start with a good name, if its solvency is to be assured, some means must be found for meeting these short-term maturities without impairing the future of Indian credit.

Lord Chancellor, those are the hard facts that have faced the Government during the last twelve months. Those are the hard facts that we discussed in great detail and with great goodwill at the Financial Safeguards Committee. The British Government, the British delegation, and sections of the Conference, came to the view that in those conditions certain safeguards were absolutely necessary if we were to keep the confidence of the world outside and if we were to make it possible in the future for a Federal Government to raise money upon reasonable terms. That, gentlemen, in a few sentences is the history of the safeguards. In particular, is the history of the safeguards that has loomed very largely in our discussions this year, the history of the Reserve Bank. We feel that, if confidence is to be maintained in the financial stability and credit of India, a Reserve Bank must be in effective operation.

I come now to the question of Defence, a question that again has loomed very large, and rightly so, in our discussions. We had first of all, as you all remember, a debate in full Conference—a debate in which I think I may claim that there was complete unanimity that Defence, until it can be transferred to Indian hands, remains the sole responsibility of the Crown. It was, however, clear to me in the course of the discussions, and afterwards in an informal talk that I was able to have with certain leading members of the Conference, that there were differences of opinion as to the methods by which Indian political opinion might be consulted in the administration of the Reserved subject.

Let me take in order two or three of the principal points to which Sir Tej Bahadur attached importance in these discussions. First of all, there was the question of the discussion of the Defence Budget. We were all agreed that it should be non-votable. In the nature of things, I think that was inevitable, but we are quite prepared to take the necessary steps to see that the Budget should be put, as he and his friends wish, in blocks, not in a perfunctory manner simply to be discussed as a whole.

Next he was anxious about the employment of Indian troops outside India without the approval of the Federal Government or the Federal Legislature. There I think he and his friends were agreed that where it was actually a case of the defence of India, in which no Imperial considerations entered at all, the defence say, of the Frontier of India itself, there the responsibility—the sole responsibility—of the Crown should remain undiluted. More difficult questions arose in cases when Indian troops might be employed for purposes other than directly Indian purposes. Now in those cases I can say to him I would prefer not to be precise as to the exact method. I myself feel sure that a means will be found to leave the decision in some manner to the Federal Ministry and to the Federal Legislature.

Next, there was an important series of questions connected, first of all, with the Indianisation of the Army, that is to say, the greatest participation of Indians themselves in the defence of India and, secondly, as to the bringing into consultation as much as possible the two sides of the Government. He and his friends were anxious that statutory provision should be made in some way for both these objects. The Lord Chancellor and the British Government still take the view, and we feel we must maintain it, that statutory provision is too inelastic, if you define statutory provision in the narrow sense. But I think I can meet him and his friends effectively by including directions to the Governor-General in both these respects in the Instructions.

Now he said, quite rightly, that his attitude towards that proposal would depend very much upon the Instructions themselves. As regards the Instructions we intend first of all to allude to them in the body of the Statute. And then we intend to ask Parliament to agree to a novel procedure, but a procedure that I believe is well fitted to the conditions with which we are faced, namely, that before certain of them are submitted to His Majesty, both Houses of Parliament should have the opportunity of expressing their views upon them. The effect of that would be to give the Instructions a Statutory framework by the allusion in the Act itself, and to give them a Parliamentary framework by the Resolutions that would be passed approving of them before they are submitted for His Majesty's approval.

As to the other proposals that Sir Tej made in the matter of Defence, we still feel that the Governor-General should have an unfettered power in selecting his Defence Minister; but we will make it quite clear in the Instructions that we wish the two sides of the Government to work in the close co-operation, and that we do definitely contemplate—I would ask his attention to this point, and we will make an allusion to it in the Instructions—that before the Estimates are actually put to the Federal Assembly the Finance Minister and that doubt the Prime Minister should have an opportunity of seeing them and giving to the Governor-General their views upon them.

We have been planning a scheme and a very complicated scheme, but we have also been trying to create a spirit of co-operation. Several members of the Conference were very kind to me last night when they said that I had played some small part in helping to foster this spirit of co-operation during the last few weeks. I thank them for what they said, but I say that their kind words were really undeserved. The spirit of co-operation is due to much greater events and to much greater people than any with whom I am connected or any that I could ever hope to emulate.

Immediately after the conclusion of the Conference, His Majesty's Government, in pursuance of their pledges, proceeded to draft the White Paper incorporating their tentative conclusions.

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The White Paper.

The proposals of His Majesty's Government for Indian constitutional reforms which are now under examination by a joint Committee of Parliament were issued in March this year in the form of a White Paper. Though the intention is to speed up the necessary legislation, no date is suggested in the White Paper for the actual change in the Indian system of Government. The Royal Proclamation inaugurating the new system shall not be issued until both Houses of Parliament have agreed on the date.

By the proposals put forward, the Provinces are given autonomy and to a Federal Government is conceded responsible government over the whole field of administration allotted to the Federation except in regard to certain "reserved" subjects. The Federation will consists of the autonomous provinces of British India, 11 in number, including the new Provinces of Sind and Orissa, and the Indian States. It will be brought about by the Princes surrendering a defined corpus of their present sovereign rights to the Federation but retaining internal autonomy in respect of rights not so surrendered, unaffected by any other consideration than the existing suzerainty of the Crown.

It is a condition of the setting up the Federation:—(1) That rulers of States representing not less than half the aggregate population of the Indian States and entitled to not less than half the State's seats in the Upper House of the Legislature shall have executed the necessary Instrument of Accession; and (2) That a Reserve Bank, free from political influence, will have been set up and already successfully operating. These conditions fulfilled, it will rest with both Houses of Parliament to move the Crown by an address to issue a Royal Proclamation inaugurating the Federation.

Reserved Subjects.

The Governor-General and Viceroy will have a dual capacity. Governor-General as head of the Federation, and Viceroy as conducting relations with States outside the federal sphere. As Governor-General he will be aided and advised by a Council of Ministers responsible to the Legislature in all matters save those concerned with the three Departments to be reserved to his personal administration namely, Defence, External Affairs, and Ecclesiastical Affairs.

The Governor-General is also given a special responsibility for certain purposes:—(1) The prevention of grave menace to the peace or tranquillity of India or any part thereof. (2) The safeguarding of the legitimate interests of minorities. (3) The safeguarding of the financial stability and credit of the Federation. (4) The securing to the members of the Public Services of any rights provided for them by t Constitution and the safeguarding of th legitimate interests. (5) The protection the rights of any Indian State. (6) T prevention of commercial discriminatio (7) Any matter which affects the administr tion of the reserved departments.

In fulfilment of these special responsibiliti the Governor-General is empowered to a either without or contrary to the advice of h Ministers and can himself pass a Governo General's Act to secure any of these purpose and is given all powers to secure the necessar finance.

Apart from the reserved departments and these special responsibilities there is another category of prerogatives or powers, the majority of them such as are usually associated with the head of a Constitutional State, the others to meet the particular conditions of India:— (*a*) The power to summon, prorogue, and dissolve the Legislature. (*b*) The power to assent to or withhold assent from Bills or to reserve them for His Majesty's pleasure. (*c*) The power to summon joint sessions of the two Houses of the Legislature in cases of urgency. (*d*) The grant of previous sanction to the introduction of legislation:—(1) Repealing, amending, or repugnant to any Act of Parliament extending to British India or any Governor-General's or Governor's Act or Ordinance; (2) affecting any department reserved to the control of the Governor-General; (3) affecting coinage and currency of the Reserve Bank; (4) affecting religion; (5) affecting the procedure regulating criminal proceedings against European British subjects.

In case of emergency the Governor-General also has certain Ordinance-making powers. In the event of a breakdown of the machinery of government he is empowered to assume full control. The system is continued under which expenditure connected with the reserved subjects is not subject to the vote of the Assembly. In regard to other finance he has power to restore any cut interfering with the carrying out of any of his special responsibilities. Various heads of expenditure will not be subject to the vote of the Legislature although they may be discussed. These include the loans services, the expenditure of the reserved departments, and the salaries and pensions of the Indian Civil Service.

The special and wide powers thus conferred on the Governor-General are by command conveyed in the Instrument of Instructions given him by the King Emperor on assuming office, to be exercised only in special circumstances and not in everyday routine and normal circumstances, except in the case of the reserved departments.

Federal Legislature.

The Federal Legislature resembles the existing Central Legislature in composition and will consist of two Chambers—the Upper Chamber or Council of State consisting of 260 members, 100 appointed by the Princes, 150 elected by members of the Provincial Legislatures of British India, and 10 nominated members; the other, the Lower Chamber or House of Assembly, consisting of 375 members, of whom 125 will be appointed by the Princes and the others elected directly according to the seats allocated to each Province and to the several communities and interests in each Province. In the present British India Legislature Chambers only a proportion of the members is elected.

The Legislature will be debarred from passing laws of a discriminatory character. In particular it will be unable to pass laws subjecting any British subject or company domiciled in the United Kingdom to any disability or discrimination in the exercise of certain specified rights, if a British Indian subject or company would not be subjected in the United Kingdom to a disability or discrimination of a similar character.

The Provinces.

In the Provinces certain subjects (Reserved subjects) have hitherto been administered by the Governor-in-Council and others (Transferred subjects) by the Governor and Ministers in the Legislature. But Governors, like the Governor-General, are given special responsibilities, with corresponding powers to discharge these responsibilities, confined in scope of course to the Province.

The Provincial Legislatures are enlarged and the allocation of seats and method of election are in accordance with the provisions of his Majesty's Government's Communal Award of August 4 last. The present nominated members and official bloc disappear in favour of wholly elected Legislatures, so far as the Lower Houses in the Provinces are concerned. In Bengal, the United Provinces, and Bihar the Legislatures will be bicameral with a small proportion of nominated members (not officials) in the Upper Chambers, in the other eight Provinces unicameral.

For the franchise for the Lower Chamber of the Federal Legislature the proposals lay down qualifications the effects of which should be to enfranchise between 2 and 3 per cent. of the population of British India, and similar but lower qualifications for the franchise for the Provincial Legislatures should produce a Provincial electorate in the neighbourhood of 14 per cent. of the total population of British India or some 27 per cent. of the adult population. Women can vote for and will have seats reserved for them in both the Federal Assembly and Provincial Legislatures.

Public Services.

The proposals confirm existing rights of the Public Services. The Secretary of State will continue to make appointments to the Indian Civil Service, the Indian Police, and the Ecclesiastical Department, and the conditions of service of persons so appointed will be regulated by rules made by the Secretary of State. He will determine the number and character of such appointments and may prohibit the filling of any post declared to be a reserved post otherwise than by the appointment of a person appointed by the Crown, the Secretary of State or the Secretary of State in Council.

At the expiry of five years from the commencement of the Constitution Act a statutory inquiry will be held into the question of future recruitment for the Indian Civil Service, Indian Police, and the Medical and Railway services, and the Governments in India will be associated with the inquiry. The decision on the results of the inquiry will rest with His Majesty's Government and will be subject to the approval of both Houses of Parliament. Pending the decision on this inquiry, the present ratio of British to Indian recruitment will remain unaltered. The administration of the Railways is by a Statutory Railway Board so composed as not to be subject to political interference.

The Secretary of State's Council for India is abolished and its place is taken by not less than three and not more than six advisers to be consulted as the Secretary of State may think fit, except that their concurrence is required in relation to certain service matters.

A Federal Court with both an Original and Appellate jurisdiction in cases raising constitutional issues such as the spheres of the Federal, Provincial and States authorities is set up and power is given to establish a Supreme Court to act as a Court of Appeal in British India.

It has not been possible to include Burma in the proposals, as Burma has delayed a decision as to whether it wishes to be separated from India in accordance with the constitution outlined for it at the close of the Burma Round Table Conference or to remain a Province of India.

JOINT PARLIAMENTARY COMMITTEE.

After the publication of the White Paper, steps were taken to appoint members of the House of Commons and the House of Lords to a Joint Select Committee to consider the proposals and report to Parliament. The White Paper was to be regarded as embodying the Government's scheme, but the Committee had full liberty to produce any plan it thought proper. There was more than one debate in the two Houses of Parliament for the nomination of members to the Joint Committee, and ultimately the three leading parties in Parliament, Conservatives, Liberals and Labour, agreed to appoint their representatives. While the Labour Party showed some unwillingness in the beginning to appoint its nominees, it yielded eventually; but the Right Wing section of the Conservatives in both Houses, represented by Mr. Winston Churchill and Lord Lloyd, refused to co-operate and kept themselves free to deal with the report of the Joint Committee in any manner they thought proper.

Simultaneously steps were taken to select representatives from British India and Indian States to co-operate in the Joint Committee's inquiry. Some difficulty was experienced in fixing the status of these nominees; while under the British constitution Parliament could not appoint any outsiders to its Committee, the Indians would not accept any position except that of practical equality with members of Parliament serving on the Committee. The difficulty was solved by styling the Indian representatives as assessors, and giving them liberty to cross-examine witnesses and hold discussions with the members of the Committee, but not to join in the report or sign it.

The question of the procedure to be adopted by the Committee and the nature and quantum of evidence to be led before it presented an initial obstacle, in view of the wide scope of the inquiry and the voluminous nature of the material to be dealt with, but this was soon tided over. Another real trouble in the initial stages of the Joint Committee's work was the disinclination of almost all political parties in India to co-operate with the Committee or lead evidence before it on their behalf. This objection too disappeared after a time, and the Committee eventually examined a large number of Indian witnesses representing various schools of thought. The inquiry lasted about six months, and all interests, including the Indian Sevices, voiced their cases. Even die-hard Conservatives like Mr. Churchill appeared before the committee; but the principal witness was Sir Samuel Hoare himself, although he was a member of the Committee. His evidence occupied more than a fortnight and covered the entire ground of the White Paper, in the course of which he submitted several memoranda in order to elucidate doubts and fill gaps. By common consent Sir Samuel Hoare ably maintained his ground against the representatives of die-hard Conservatives on the Committee, but Indian political opinion held that on several points he had to yield, Indians looked with disfavour on his explanations in respect of defence, fiscal autonomy, commercial discrimination and India's right to retaliate against Dominions which discriminated against her, which were construed as weakening India's constitutional position.

Immediately on the publication of the White Paper, Indian politicians, even of the moderate variety, expressed themselves in strong terms against some of its provisions.

On the other hand, it had the support of a number of communal parties, including the Muslims.

While the Joint Committee inquiry was in progress, Sir Tej Bahadur Sapru, one of the leading British Indian delegates, was unable to continue in London longer than July and placed on record suggestions for the improvement of the Reform proposals with a view to rendering them acceptable to Indian opinion. Similarly His Highness the Aga Khan, the leader of the British Indian delegation, and his British Indian colleagues submitted a joint memorandum towards the close of the sittings of the Joint Committee in the hope that their suggestions would be taken into consideration at the time of the drafting of the report.

Both these memoranda cover a wide ground and demand a number of radical changes in the White Paper scheme. Sir Tej Bahadur said that "no constitution, which fails to satisfy certain essentials, will meet with the needs of the situation in India. Those essentials are: responsibility at the centre and provincial autonomy with certain safeguards for the period of transition; reserved subjects, army, foreign and ecclesiastical departments to be under the control of the Governor-General for the period transition, which should not be long or indefinite; adoption of a definite policy in respect of reserved departments facilitating their transfer to the legislatures within the shortest period compatible with safety of the country and efficiency of administration, and a definite declaration in the statute of the constitutional position of Indian within the British Commonwealth of Nations."

The other memorandum is specially notable because it was signed by all the Indian Delegates, majority and minority representatives. It made it clear the modifications suggested would not affect the basic structure of the scheme but were intended to ensure that the reserved powers were so framed and exercised as not to prejudice the advance of India to full responsibility and to secure that the period of transition was not indefinitely extended. It urged that the preamble to the Constitution Act should contain a definite statement that the "natural issue of India's constitutional progress is the attainment of Dominion Status." Indian public opinion, it said, had been profoundly disturbed by the attempts made during the last two or three years to qualify the repeated pledges given by responsible ministers on behalf of His Majesty's Government. "Following the precedent of some of the Dominion constitutions, a definite date after the passing of the Act should be fixed for the inauguration of the Federation."

The memorandum also demanded greater control over defence, finance and the services. The signatories urged that the Army Counsellor should be a non-official Indian, there should be a definite programme of Indianisation, the cost of defence should be substantially reduced and the Indian Army should not be employed outside the country except for Indian defence.

On the subject of financial safeguards they did not object to the appointment of an adviser to the Governor-General for a limited period, provided he did not interfere in the day-to-day administration and that he should advise the Governor-General only when he considered the financial stability or credit of the Federation to be in danger. Legislation in respect of currency, coinage and the Reserve Bank must not be subject to the previous consent of the Governor-General.

They demanded statutory recognition of India's freedom to regulate her fiscal policy without reservations or qualifications and, while they had no objection to a general declaration about British subjects holding public offices or practising any profession or trade, they stoutly opposed any provision which would make it impossible for India to discriminate against the subjects of the Dominions and Colonies which imposed disabilities on Indian subjects. The proposal to continue the recruitment to the Services by the Secretary of State was also objected to and the demand was put forth that the Central Services should be recruited by the Federal Government and the Provincial Services by the Provincial Governments.

Mr. N. M. Joshi submitted a separate memorandum making suggestions for health insurance for workers and invalid and old age pensions and seeking to improve the provisions for labour legislation and representation.

THE FUTURE OF BURMA.

Throughout the discussions on the Indian Reforms proposals the question of Burma's future occupied a secondary position, as nothing could be definitely settled until the Burmans themselves decided whether they would join the proposed all-India Federation and share the lot of the Indian provinces, or become a separate unitary entity with constitutional advance analogous to that conferred on India, subject to similar safeguards. It was thought that a new election to the Burma Legislative Council would give the electorate an opportunity to express itself on this question. The election was held and resulted in a majority for the antiseparationists. When, however, the new Council was called upon to give a straight answer to the question Separation or Federation on the lines of His Majesty's Government's proposals it declined to do so. A large number of resolutions were tabled, but not one of them provided a clear indication of the people's mind. Even the anti-separationists did not vote for Federation, but expressed a desire to cast their lot with India as an experimental measure, reserving the right to withdraw from the Federation at a later date. Several adjournments were granted to enable the parties to arrive at a compromise resolution and, after the Governor had refused further to prolong the sittings, which had lasted several days, the special session of the Council was prorogued.

If Burma herself gave an inconclusive verdict, the British Government could not remain idle; that would have been unfair both to India and Burma. Therefore, a few months later (in August) Sir Samuel Hoare presented to the Joint Parliamentary Committee a memorandum embodying Government's proposals for the future constitution of Burma if it were decided to separate Burma from India. He, however, made it clear that if the Joint Committee decided that Burma should be included in the Indian Federation, the proposals of the White Paper (subject to consequential adjustments) would apply to Burma in the same way as they would apply to any other province of India. As the Burma Council had refused to choose separation on the basis of the constitution outlined by the Premier, he suggested that the Committee should invite some Burma representatives for consultation to assist in determining which of the two courses would be in the best interests of Burma. Assuming that Burma was to be separated, he outlined a scheme of constitutional advance under which executive authority in a unitary Burma would vest in the Governor, who would also be the Commander-in-Chief. He would himself direct and control the administration of finance, external affairs, ecclesiastical affairs, monetary policy, currency, coinage, and matters connected with scheduled areas. Other subjects would be administered by Ministers elected by, and responsible to, the Council. The Legislature would be bicamera.

Shortly after the submission of this memorandum Sir Samuel expressed the opinion that an overwhelming body of Burmans had supported separation from India. He added that Burma could not be granted the right of secession, as it would be a bad precedent and would be fatal to Federation.

In pursuance of the policy of giving Burmans the fullest opportunity to determine the future form of their constitution, the Joint Parliamentary Committee decided in November to invite twelve representative Burmans for consultation. A prolonged discussion took place in December, in which both sides freely ventilated their respective points of view. "The result of the elections to the special session of the Burma Council should be construed as a vote against separation"; "There are no two opinions in Burma; all are for separation; the so-called federationists are also for separation—but after a time." These were the conflicting views expressed in London. On behalf of His Majesty's Government, Sir Samuel made it plain that Britain had no axe to grind and that she was actuated solely by the desire to do the best for Burma. There the matter rests pending the report of the Parliamentary Joint Select Committee on the White Paper.

The Indian Legislature.

The Annual Budget Session of the Indian Legislature opened in New Delhi with a meeting of the Legislative Assembly on Wednesday, 1st February, when His Excellency the Viceroy delivered an inaugural address. In the course of this, His Excellency specially referred to the declining civil disobedience movement and, having re-emphasised the determination of his Government not to relax the measures in force against it so long as circumstances made them necessary, referred to the recently passed Legislation on the subject and said: "The Acts which are now on the Statute Book will not be permanent, but will be in force during the difficult period of transition from the present to the new constitution, when there is a special risk of certain elements in the population trying to substitute the methods of revolution for those of constitutional and orderly progress. I trust that when the period for which these Acts will remain in force has expired, those in whose hands the power will then rest will find themselves able safely to discard them and that the threat which direct action presents to the evolution of constitutional self-government will have been destroyed. I regret that there is not as yet any open sign of a recognition on the part of the leaders of the civil disobedience movement of the harm their policy has caused to the country. Though their efforts to revive enthusiasm meet with little success, they still remain pledged to that policy. I am firmly convinced, however, that the march of events will gradually carry them further and further away from the sterile methods of negation and obstruction, and that in spite of themselves they will find that they are caught up in the living forces of constructive politics which the near approach of the new constitution is releasing on all sides."

His Excellency also specially referred to the terrorist movement in Bengal, said there had been some improvement in the situation and declared that the despatch of troops to the Province had had a reassuring effect upon the loyal population.

His Excellency expressed great satisfaction at the general good-will exhibited at the recent Third Round Table Conference and said: "My last and strongest impression is of work well done and of another milestone behind us on the road of constitutional advance. There is no tarrying on that road. Steadily and surely the march to Federation proceeds." The Viceroy showed with what interest he had met individual Indian Delegates since their return from the Conference to India.

His Excellency forecast the introduction of a Bill to establish an Indian Reserve Bank and expressed keen satisfaction at the success of the Finance Department loan conversion programme whereby 50 crores of loan money was dealt with in a manner which "must be a record in the financial history of the Government." His Excellency noted how at each step in the fulfilment of the programme the level of Government's credit had been raised, so that whereas in June 1932, Government borrowed on a basis of somewhat over 5½ per cent. the latest transactions showed Government's credit established very nearly at a 4 per cent. level.

In conclusion the Viceroy, after emphasising the need for further economy in expenditure said: "I think it is true to say that there is now in the world and particularly in India, a growing sense that in present world conditions some sort of economic planning is necessary for every country. My Government are very much alive to this feeling and here again we have our eyes on the future and desire to prepare for the new Government measures for providing more accurate statistical information, and for evolving a co-ordinated economic policy." His Excellency went on specially to refer to investigations lately undertaken to deal with the competition of road and rail transport.

Among the mass of official legislation of a minor character with which the session started was a Bill to prohibit the pledging of labour of children. This came up on report by Select Committee and was passed into law. A motion to refer to Select Committee a Bill to amend the Auxilliary Force Act was passed. The aim of the Bill was to provide for a certain amount of reorganisation and was primarily an economic measure. One of the most important measure brought forward during the session was a Bill to establish a Medical Council in India and to provide for the maintenance of a British-Indian Medical Register. This, after prolonged discussion on various days, was referred to a Select Committee on 12th April. An official Bill to regulate the payment of wages to people employed in industry, a measure brought forward to deal with the undue withholding of wages and the late payment of wages, by employers, was ordered for circulation to elicit public opinion. Other bills dealt with taxation of incomes, with the possession of wireless, receiving apparatus and the extension of the current protection of Indian wheat, cotton, textiles and salt.

A Bill of great importance introduced on 8th April was one to provide for the imposition of additional Customs Duties on imported goods for the purpose of safeguarding industries in British India. The provision of the Bill provided for a duration of the measure until 31st March 1935. The reason for its introduction was the need to deal with the influx of Japanese manufactured goods at destructive competitive rates. The Commerce Member informed the House that Government had taken steps to denounce the Indo-Japanese Trade Convention. The denunciation required six months' notice and would, therefore, not come into operation until 10th October. The new Bill armed Government with extensive powers for the imposition of safeguarding duties by executive order as soon as the denunciation took effect. The Bill was after considerable discussion, passed by the House without a division on 12th April.

Another important measure brought before the House by Government was a Bill to supplement the provisions of measures passed by the Bengal, Bihar & Orissa, Bombay, United Provinces and Punjab Governments and Legislatures to take the place of numerous Ordinances for the suppression of civil disobedience. The Government of India's bill was instituted for the enactment of certain provisions beyond the

competance of Provincial Governments and their Legislatures. The Central measures were the subject of prolonged debate, but the general purport of the speeches was to show a preponderating body of opinion heartily in support of Government's determination to eradicate civil disobedience. The Bill was finally passed by 48 votes to 30, non-official Muhammadans being almost unanimously on the side of Government, while several other non-official Indian members voted in the official Lobby and other elected members who did not feel themselves able to vote for the measure nevertheless assisted its passage by absenting themselves from the division, the total number of votes cast, being only 78 out of a House of 146.

Railway Budget.

The Annual Railway Budget was presented to the Assembly on 16th February by the Hon'ble Sir Joseph Bhore, Member for Railways. He pointed out that it was unavoidable that the Railway estimates should reflect the prevalent severe economic depression but said there were legitimate grounds to hope that the country had at last touched rock bottom and that though recovery might yet be delayed the worst had in all probability already been passed. On that assumption the estimates were framed. The loss in the working of commercial lines in the year 1931-32 finally turned out to be 7¼ crores or a quarter of a crore less than anticipated. The loss on strategic lines was, as usual, just under two crores. The total loss of 9¼ crores, was met to the extent of just under 5 crores by the withdrawal of the uninvested balance of the Reserve Fund and for the remaining 4¼ crores, an equivalent amount was taken as a temporary loan from the Depreciation Fund.

The Budget for 1932-33 anticipated a total deficit on commercial lines of 7½ crores. The Estimates when the Budget was presented in February, 1933, indicated that the results would be 1¾ crores worse, the deterioration being due to a further fall in earnings. Traffic receipts were estimated to be 2½ crores below the budget figures. The loss on lines including 2 crores on strategic lines was thus expected to be 9½ crores, a figure only slightly above the loss of 1931-32. This sum was withdrawn from the Depreciation Fund. The balance to the credit of that fund, which was nearly 15 crores at the beginning of 1932-33 and under the current budget received an increase of about 8 crores (owing to the nett accretion due to the surplus of payments into the fund over withdrawals from it to meet current expenses and renewals) so that at the end of the year it would stand at 13¾ crores.

For the year 1933-34 the estimates showed total traffic receipts 88¼ crores and total working expenses, including depreciation, just over 63 crores, nett traffic receipts thus being nearly 25¼ crores. It was calculated that nett revenue would be insufficient to meet interest charges by about 7¾ crores. This deficit, of which 5¾ crores was in respect of commercial lines, had again to be found by a temporary loan from the Depreciation Fund, which would thus at the end of 1933-34 stand at 13¾ crores. In anticipation that the lowest depths of the economic depression had already been touched, the estimates provided for an increase of 1¾ crores, or a little under 2 per cent. on the current year's figures.

It was announced in connection with the Railway Budget that the 10 per cent. cut in pay previously introduced throughout the Government services would not fully be continued during 1933-34, but could not, on the other hand, completely be restored, and that for the coming year there would again be a cut of 5 per cent. in pay and that in conjunction with that official salaries would for the first time come under the 25 per cent. income tax surcharge already introduced as an emergency measure on all income except non-official ones.

General Budget.

The Finance Member, the Hon'ble Sir George Schuster, presented the Annual General Budget on the evening of 28th February. At the outset he said that the emergency plan introduced in September, 1931, to produce budgetary equilibrium for the years 1931-32 and 1932-33 had worked successfully. The results for 1931-32 turned out nearly 2 crores better than was anticipated in March, 1932, and the accounts for the year showed a deficit, after providing nearly seven crores for the Reduction of Debt, of 11¾ crores. For the year 1932-33 the latest revised estimates indicated an almost exact realisation of the budget forecast of a surplus of 215 lakhs, the actual surplus being placed at 217 lakhs, again after providing nearly seven crores for the Reduction of Debt. The results for the two years combined thus showed a total budgetary deficit of 9.58 crores, against which may be set a total provision of 13.73 crores for reduction and avoidance of debt. The Finance Member expressed satisfaction that in the two years from the beginning of April 1931 to the end of March 1933, "which I think may fairly be described as the two most difficult years for finance that the world in times of peace has ever known," India would not only have paid her way but have provided a nett sum of 415 lakhs for reduction of debt.

Reviewing the trade returns of the concluding year, the Finance Member said they seemed to reinforce one of the points which he emphasised in his speech a year previously, namely, the extreme power of resistance, in spite of diminished purchasing power, which India showed in maintaining the consumption of certain standard necessities of the masses. As regarded the three articles which were taken as necessities for the masses, the quantities for consumption were in all cases higher for 1932 than for the ten-year average 1920-30. Piece-goods, with a total of 5,827 million yards as compared with 4,923 million yards for the earlier period, were 18 per cent. up. Kerosine Oil, with a total 235 million gallons as compared with 232 million gallons for the earlier period, was 1 per cent. up. Salt, with a consumption of 2,106,000 tons as compared with 1,965,000 tons for the earlier period, was 7 per cent. up. The returns showed a fall in value for machinery and mill-work of about 40 per cent. a fall both in quantity and in value of lubricating oil of between 30 and 40 per cent. an increase in quantities of cement, accompanied by a fall in values, and an increase of 26 per cent. in the value of chemicals, the total value of all these articles for 1932 being 70 per cent. of the value for the ten years ending 1930, for which figures had been tabulated. Turning to what he called luxuries, the Finance

Member showed that the imports of motor-cars in 1932 was 5,300 compared with an annual average of 11,400 in the earlier ten years. Tobacco consumed in 1932 represented 61 per cent. in quantity and 51 per cent. in value of the earlier period, liquors 93 per cent. and 73 per cent. respectively. "Altogether, the total value of the three luxury articles consumed in 1932 represents 58 per cent. of the average value for the earlier period." Sir George Schuster added that the figures indicated very heavy decreases in the consumption of certain luxury and quasi-luxury articles.

With exports for the ten months, April-January, at 101¼ crores and imports at 112¼ crores, India had an adverse balance of trade in merchandise, but this was more than made up by sales and export on private account of gold. Out of £80 millions which represented the proceeds of the export of gold, Government acquired £70 millions and £10 millions served to repay foreign funds temporarily invested in India. Government out of its £70 millions used £34½ millions to meet its own current requirements and £35½ millions to repay sterling loans and strengthen its reserves. Therefore, out of the total £80 millions of gold proceeds only £34½ millions were used to meet current requirements and the balance of £45½ millions went to reduce India's external obligations and strengthen her public reserves.

"Looking at the matter from the side of the Indians who have sold the gold, they have acquired 107½ crores of rupees and of this, while a portion has been spent in meeting current requirements (*i.e.*, paying customs duty on imported goods and other taxes), a very substantial portion also, as is clear from the figures which I have given, must have been retained in currency or invested in Government securities."

The Finance Member estimated civil expenditure for 1933-34 at 20,53 lakhs, that is, 36 lakhs less than in the preceding year. He showed nett military expenditure at 46.20 crores.

The Budget, in the course of general discussion, had as good a reception from the non-official benches as could be expected. The Indian Finance Bill was passed without a division on 28th March without having been amended to an extent unacceptable by Government.

Other Business.

The House, on 8th March, received with expressions of regret by the leaders of all parties a message from His Excellency the Viceroy signifying his acceptance of the resignation of the Hon'ble Sir Ibrahim Rahimtulla of his office of President of the Assembly. The election of a new President was fixed for 14th March and on that date Sir R. K. Shanmukham Chetty was unanimously elected, being the only member nominated. Approval of his election was speedily notified by His Excellency the Viceroy and Mr. Chetty was formally congratulated by leaders of all parts of the House. The election of a new Deputy President in place of Mr. Chetty took place on 20th March. There were seven candidates. The election was keenly contested. Five of the candidates withdrew before the ballot was held and the result of the ballot was the election of Mr. Abdul Matin Chaudhury by 64 votes, the other candidate in the ballot, Mr. Muhammad Yamin Khan, receiving 56 votes.

There took place during the session a two days' debate on His Majesty's Government's White Paper containing proposals for Indian constitutional reform. The Hon'ble Sir Brojendra Mitter, as Leader of the House, formally started the discussion by moving that the White Paper be taken into consideration. To this Sir Abdur Rahim moved on behalf of the Opposition Parties an amendment which substituted for the original motion one running as follows :—

"This Assembly requests the Governor-General in Council to convey to His Majesty's Government that, in the opinion of this Assembly, unless the proposals of His Majesty's Government for Indian Constitutional Reform are substantially amended in the direction of conceding greater responsibility and freedom of action to the representatives of the people in the Central and Provincial spheres of Government, it will not be possible to ensure peace, contentment or progress of the country."

The amendment was carried without a division. Government did not participate in the debate.

An important non-official Bill before the Assembly during the session was one by Mr. C. S. Ranga Iyer "to remove the disabilities of the so-called Depressed Classes in regard to entry into Hindu Temples." Mr. Ranga Iyer, on 24th March, moved that it be circulated for the purpose of eliciting public opinion by 30th July 1933. The debate on the motion did not conclude before the end of the session.

Autumn Session.

The annual autumn session of the Legislature commenced with meetings of the Legislative Assembly in Simla, beginning on 22nd August. The first business of importance was a motion for the adjournment of the House in order to raise the question "whether this Assembly wholly approve of the attitude of Government in restricting facilities afforded to Mahatma Gandhi, restricting these much more unlike the previous occasion, which has compelled him to resort to fast unto death." The motion referred to correspondence between Government and Mr. M. K. Gandhi, who was in jail at Yeravda after conviction and sentence by the District Magistrate of Poona for breach of the law. Mr. Gandhi, on the last occasion when he was in jail, was not a convict but was restrained by executive order. He now claimed the same privileges of correspondence and publicity work as he enjoyed on the former occasion. These privileges Government were ready to concede only in part and Mr. Gandhi went on hunger strike in order to coerce Government into conceding the whole. The outstanding feature of the debate in the Assembly was the widespread expression of opinion on the non-official benches in support of Government's decision. The debate proceeded to within half a minute of the two hours permitted to it under the Legislative Rules. The President then informed the member in possession of the House that he only had half a minute more. That member thereupon read a telegram just received from Poona by a news agency and stating that Mr. Gandhi

had unconditionally been released, that he was looking very weak and that he had broken his fast. This concluded the discussion. Government had, as a special case, informed the Provincial authorities that they authorised the release when it became evident that his fait would result in his death.

His Excellency the Viceroy addressed both Houses of the Legislature at a joint sitting on 30th August. His Excellency reviewing events since his last address to the Legislature, referred to the negotiations arranged to take place with Japan and Lancashire in regard to imports of cotton piece-goods. His Excellency pointed to the depreciation of the Japanese currency relatively to the rupee as the main cause necessitating the recent denunciation of the Indo-Japanese Trade Convention, and welcomed the representatives of the Japanese Government and the representatives of the Japanese textile-industry now on their way to India for negotiations with Indian official and industrial delegates respectively. His Excellency also noted that the industrial delegation from Lancashire was on its way to India and emphasised the significance of the fact that the Lancashire industrialists were to take part in a tri-partite industrial conference with Indian and Japanese industrialists and not with Government.

His Excellency reminded the Legislature that when he addressed the Assembly in February he expressed the belief that the march of events would gradually carry the leaders of the civil disobedience movement further and further away from sterile methods of negation and obstruction and that they would find themselves caught up in the living forces of constructive politics. His Excellency added: "I think that what has happened in the last few months has borne out that belief. It is true that civil disobedience still maintains a precarious existence through the personal influence of its author, but the popular judgment has really discarded it, and the pathway to happier conditions is broadening out before us. The minds of men and women are turned in the direction of constructive work rather than of continuing an unmeaning struggle. I hope we can feel that an unhappy page in the history of the country has been turned over, and that advanced political thought in India can henceforth address itself to the problems of the future."

His Excellency pointed out that in that new India to which we were advancing there was need, and there would be scope, for the co-operation of many diverse elements. His Excellency was also able to point out that conditions in Bengal were slowly improving though there had recently, in Madras, been a reminder of the manner in which the infection of the poisonous doctrines of terrorism might spread.

His Excellency noted that the White Paper containing the proposals of His Majesty's Government for Constitutional Reform was now in the hands of the Joint Parliamentary Committee, to which he wished all success. His Excellency concluded his address with an appeal in which he said: "If we are to ensure the rapid progress which we all desire in the way of Constitutional Reforms, we must create the atmosphere in which that progress can develop. Little can be done by Government alone. An equal responsibility must lie upon Honourable Members themselves and other leaders of political thought in India, to whom we must look to use their influence by their speeches, be public meetings and propaganda to see that the electorates of the future are made fully aware of the great advance we are striving to achieve through the White Paper proposals. I appeal to you, therefore, with all the sincerity at my command, to take up the responsibility with courage and energy so as to help your country forward to the attainment of her ultimate goal as an equal partner in the shaping of the destinies of the British Empire."

On the first non-official bill day of the session the first business was the resumption of consideration of a motion made in the Legislative Assembly by Mr. C. S. Ranga Iyer on the 24th March, for the circulation of a bill "to remove the disabilities of the so-called depressed classes in regard to entry into Hindu temples." This motion was, after a one day's debate, carried.

An important official measure introduced during the session was a new Indian States (Protection) Bill, the purpose of which was to prevent agitation or movements in British India organised for the purpose of subverting the administrations of the Indian States. This measure, on the Home Member's motion for consideration, was subject to much apprehensive discussion. There appeared to be general agreement that conspiracies for the subversion of the States' administrations should not be permitted in British India, but it was felt that the Bill was too widely drafted and there were both apprehension that the measure might interfere with the liberty of discussing in British India the affairs of the States and determination that publicists in British India should not be prevented from joining in such discussion. Eventually, the Home Member accepted a suggestion by the leader of the Independent Party that the Bill should be sent for circulation for eliciting public opinion. Further debate was stopped by a closure motion, which was carried by 57 votes to 9, and the motion for circulation was carried by 66 votes to 7.

The Finance Member on 8th September introduced a Bill to institute a Reserve Bank. Owing to the special importance of the occasion, he made a brief explanatory speech in doing so. It explained that he had brought forward the measure now in order that it might eventually be dealt with in a special session of the Legislature to be held before the next Budget Session in Delhi. The Finance Member, therefore, moved reference of the measure to a Joint Committee of both Houses of the Legislature. The debate spread over three days and the motion was then accepted without a division. The motion to refer to the same Joint Select Committee a Bill to amend the **Imperial Bank of India Act** in order to make changes in it in conformity with the new Reserve Bank Bill was also accepted.

The Hon'ble the Member for Industries and Labour secured the assent of the House to a motion to refer to a Select Committee his bill to consolidate and amend the law regulating labour in factories. Both Houses of the Legislature debated at length a former motion submitted

by Government to supplement their promise to bring the future administration of Aden under discussion in the Legislature before orders in regard to it were passed, and each House adopted a motion protesting against the complete transfer to the Colonial Office of the Aden Settlement and requested the Governor-General in Council to convey to His Majesty's Government the strong desire of the people of India that the proposed transfer should not take place.

The report of the Select Committee on the Indian Medical Council Bill was presented. A leading feature of it was a proposed amendment to the Bill eliminating the provision for the establishment of an Indian medical register and thus ending the discussion concerning who should have a right to a place on the register. The Bill was passed by the Assembly on 20th September and was subsequently passed without for the alteration, by the Council of State.

November Session.

A Special Session of the Central Legislature commenced in New Delhi on Monday, 20th November, 1933, and on the first day of it there were presented in the Assembly the reports of the Joint Select Committee on the Reserve Bank of India Bill and the Imperial Bank of India Bill respectively. It was hoped when the session was called that both these bank bills would be passed in the course of about three weeks, but the Assembly did not dispose of the Reserve Bank of India Bill until the afternoon of the 22nd December, and there was then no time for it to take up the Imperial Bank of India Bill at all. In the circumstances, neither Bill reached the Council of State.

The important questions raised by non-official Indian members on the Reserve Bank Bill dealt with the method of election of the governing body of the Bank, the reserve powers provided for the Governor-General, the rupee ratio to which the Bank was directed to work, the share qualification for elections to the governing body, the distribution of shares between the different provinces, the location of the Bank's principal offices, the question whether the Bank should have an office in London or employ the Bank of England for its agency work there, the qualifications of governors of the Bank. The most keenly contested point was probably the clause directing the Bank to maintain the rupee exchange ratio at 18*d.* sterling. A great deal of agitation was carried on outside the House in order to bring pressure upon non-official members in this respect and there were demands for the reduction of the ratio from 18*d.* to 16*d.*, for its being unloosed from 18*d.* and permitted to find its own level and so on. Disagreements among members concerned in these various amendments had a good deal to do with the defeat of each, and in the end the ratio provision as it originally appeared in the Bill was adopted by an overwhelming concensus of opinion and amongst the strongest in support were many of the agrarian members upon whom the devaluationists had mainly relied for the success of their campaign.

The Assembly carried against Government an amendment directing the Bank to establish a London Branch rather than employ the Bank of England for its work in London. The debates in the House were throughout conducted in a spirit of co-operation between the official and non-official benches.

The Indian Tariff Board, 1933.

Sericulture.—The Indian Tariff Board opened the year with the issue of a lengthy questionnaire in connection with an inquiry which the Government of India on 3 December 1932 directed it to make into the claim of the Indian sericultural industry for protection. It later issued a further general questionnaire on the same subject and a special one concerning the silk handloom industry. The Board, comprising Mr. Fazal Ibrahim Rahimtoola, president, and Messrs. G. T. Boag, C.I.E., I.C.S., and H. R. Batheja, I.E.S., members pursued their inquiry thenceforward and signed their report to Government on 15 May 1933, but the report was not published before the year ended, one reason being the organisation and progress of the Indo-Japanese trade negotiations, which were particularly concerned with the cotton and silk industries, during the summer and autumn.

Iron and Steel.—The Government of India on 26 August 1933 published a Resolution in which they directed the Tariff Board to conduct a new inquiry into the protection of the Indian steel industry. The protection afforded to steel manufacture under existing legislation was due to expire on 31 March 1934 and clause 3 of the Steel Industry (Protection) Act of 1927, provided for an earlier inquiry in regard to its continuance. Stop in instituting this new inquiry Government gave the following terms of reference:—

(*a*) The Board is requested to re-examine the measures of protection now enjoyed by the steel industry under the Steel Industry (Protection) Act of 1927 as subsequently amended, the Wire and Wire Nail Industry (Protection) Act of 1932 and the Indian Tariff (Ottawa Trade Agreement) Amendment Act of 1932 and to report in respect of each protected article whether it is still necessary to continue protection and if so whether the existing measure of protection should be increased or diminished or whether the manner in which protection is conferred should be altered:

(*b*) Special consideration to be observed in regard to the wire nail industry, to the claims of industries making iron and steel products and in regard to whether the legislature's original motion affirming the principle of discriminating protection is fulfilled.

The Board's report was not published by the end of the year.

The Peoples of India.

It is essential to bear in mind, when dealing with the people of India, that it is a continent rather than a country. Nowhere is the complex character of Indians more clearly exemplified than in the physical type of its inhabitants. No one would confuse the main types, such as Gurkhas, Pathans, Sikhs, Rajputs, Burmans, Nagas, Tamils, etc., nor does it take long to carry the differentiation much farther. The typical inhabitants of India—the Dravidians—differ altogether from those of Northern Asia, and more nearly resemble the tribes of Malaya, Sumatra and Madagascar. Whatever may be their origin, it is certain that they have settled in the country for countless ages and that their present physical characteristics have been evolved locally. They have been displaced in the North-West by successive hordes of invaders, including Aryans, Scythians, Pathans and Moghals, and in the North-East by Mongoloid tribes allied to those of Burma, which is India only in a modern political sense. Between these foreign elements and the pure Dravidians is borderland where the contiguous races have intermingled.

The people of the Indian Empire are divided by Sir Henry Risley (Caste, Tribe and Race, Indian Census Report, 1901; the Gazetteer of India, Ethnology and Caste, Volume I, Chapter 6) into seven main physical types. There would be eight if the Andamanese were included, but this tiny group of Negritos may be disregarded.

The Turko-Iranian, represented by the Baloch, Brahui and Afghans of Baluchistan and the North-West Frontier Province. Probably formed by a fusion of Turkiand Persian elements, in which the former predominate. Stature above mean; complexion fair; eyes mostly dark but occasionally grey; hair on face plentiful; head broad, nose moderately narrow, prominent, and very long. The feature in these people that strikes one most prominently is the portentous length of their noses, and it is probably this peculiarity that has given rise to the tradition of the Jewish origin of the Afghans.

The Indo-Aryan occupying the Punjab, Rajputana, and Kashmir, and having as its characteristic members the Rajputs, Khattris, and Jats. This type, which is readily distinguishable from the Turko-Iranian, approaches most closely to that ascribed to the traditional Aryan colonists of India. The stature is mostly tall; complexion fair; eyes dark; hair on face plentiful, head long; nose narrow, and prominent but not specially long.

The Scytho-Dravidian, comprising the Maratha Brahmans, the Kunbis, and the Coorgs of Western India. Probably formed by a mixture of Scythian and Dravidian elements. This type is clearly distinguished from the Turko-Iranian by a lower stature, a greater length of head, a higher nasal index, a shorter nose, and a lower orbito-nasal index. All of these characters, except perhaps the last, may be due to a varying degree of intermixture with the Dravidians. In the higher groups the amount of crossing seems to have been slight; in the lower Dravidian elements are more pronounced.

The Aryo-Dravidian or Hindustani, found in the United Provinces, in parts of Rajputana, and in Bihar and represented in its upper strata by the Hindustani Brahman and in its lower by the Chamar. Probably the result of the intermixture, in varying proportions, of the Indo-Aryan and Dravidian types. The head-form is long with a tendency to medium; the complexion varies from lightish brown to black; the nose ranges from medium to broad, being always broader than among the Indo-Aryans; the stature is lower than in the latter group and usually below the average according to the scale. The higher representatives of this type approach the Indo-Aryans, while the lower members are in many respects not very far removed from the Dravidians. The type is essentially a mixed one, yet its characteristics are readily definable, and no one would take even an upper class Hindustani for a pure Indo-Aryan or a Chamar for a genuine Dravidian. The distinctive feature of the type, the character which gives the real clue to its origin and stamps the Aryo-Dravidian as racially different from the Indo-Aryan is to be found in the proportions of the nose.

The Mongolo-Dravidian, or Bengali type of Lower Bengal and Orissa, comprising the Bengal Brahmins and Kayasthas, the Mahomedans of Eastern Bengal, and other groups peculiar to this part of India. Probably a blend of Dravidian and Mongoloid elements, with a strain of Indo-Aryan blood in the higher groups. The head is broad; complexion dark; hair on face usually plentiful; stature medium; nose medium, with a tendency to broad. This is one of the most distinctive types in India, and its members may be recognised at a glance throughout the wide area where their remarkable aptitude for clerical pursuits has procured them employment. Within its own habitat the type extends to the Himalayas on the north and to Assam on the east, and probably includes the bulk of the population of Orissa; the western limit coincides approximately with the hilly country of Chota Nagpur and Western Bengal.

The Mongoloid type of the Himalayas, Nepal, Assam, and Burma, represented by the Kanets of Lahul and Kulu; the Lepchas of Darjeeling and Sikkim; the Limbus, Murmis and Gurungs of Nepal; the Bodo of Assam; and the Burmese. The head is broad; complexion dark, with a yellow tinge; hair on face scanty; stature short or below average; nose fine to broad, face characteristically flat; eyelids often oblique.

The Dravidian type extending from Ceylon to the valley of the Ganges, and pervading Madras, Hyderabad, the Central Provinces, most of Central India and Chota Nagpur. Its most characteristic representatives are the Paniyans of Malabar and the Santals of Chota Nagpur. Probably the original type of the population of India, now modified to a varying extent by the admixture of Aryan, Scythian, and Mongoloid elements. In typical specimens the stature is short or below mean; the complexion very dark, approaching black; hair plentiful, with an occasional tendency to curl; eyes dark; head long; nose very broad, sometimes depressed at the root, but not so as to make the face appear flat. This race, the most primitive of the Indian types, occupies the oldest geological formation in India, the medley of forest-clad ranges, terraced plateau, and undulating plains which stretch roughly speaking, from the Vindhyas to Cape

Comorin. On the east and the west of the peninsular area the domain of the Dravidian is conterminous with the Ghats, while further north it reaches on one side to the Aravallis, and on the other to the Rajmahal Hills. Where the original characteristics have been unchanged by contact with Indo-Aryan or Mongoloid people, the type is remarkably uniform and distinctive. Labour is the birthright of the pure Dravidian whether hoeing tea in Assam, the Duars, of Ceylon, cutting rice in the swamps of Eastern Bengal or doing scavenger's work in the streets of Calcutta, Rangoon and Singapore, he is recognizable at a glance by his black skin, his squat figure, and the negro-like proportion of his nose. In the upper strata of the vast social deposit which is here treated as Dravidian these typical characteristics tend to thin and disappear, but even among them traces of the original stock survive in varying degrees.

The areas occupied by these various types do not admit of being defined as sharply as they must be shown on an ethnographic map. They melt into each other insensibly; and although at the close of a day's journey from one ethnic tract to another, an observer whose attention had been directed to the subject would realise clearly enough that the physical characteristics of the people had undergone an appreciable change, he would certainly be unable to say at what particular stage in his progress the transformation had taken place.

TOWN AND COUNTRY.

The progress of urbanisation in India—if there has been any progress at all—has been very slow during the past thirty years, the whole increase being a little more than one per cent. The percentage of the urban population to the total is only 11, which however shows an increase of 0.8 per cent. since the last census, due partly to the natural increase of the pre-existing urban population and partly to migration from rural areas. The percentage of urban population ranges from 3.4 in Assam to 22.6 in Bombay which is the most urbanised of the major provinces. Compared to this, the urban population in France is 49 per cent., in Northern Ireland 50.8 per cent, in Canada 53.7 per cent, in the U. S. A. 56.2 per cent. and in England and Wales 80 per cent.

The greatest degree of growth has been in the number of towns with a population of from 20,000 to 50,000, the total population of which is now nearly double that of towns of 50,000 to 100,000. All classes of towns have increased in population, except those with populations of between 5,000 and 10,000 and those having under 5,000. Thus the large industrial and semi-industrial towns have benefitted at the expense of the smaller towns.

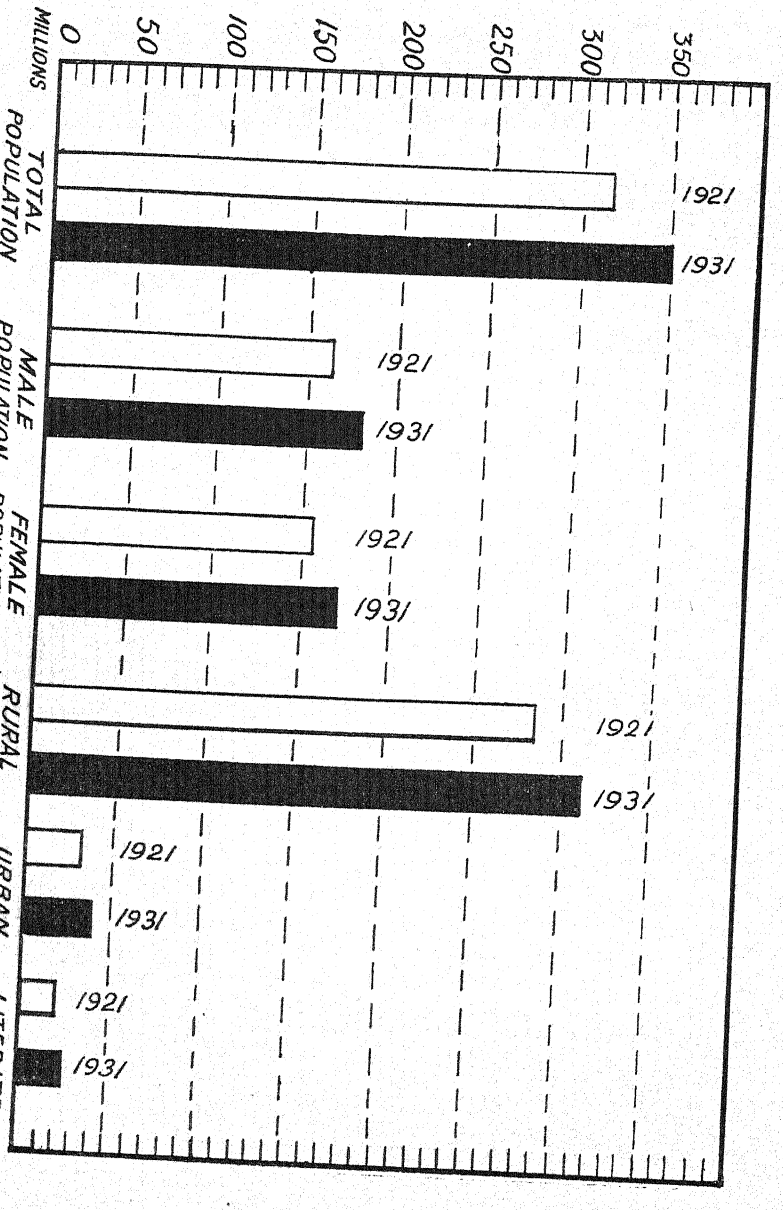
DISTRIBUTION OF POPULATION IN GROUPS OF TOWNS ACCORDING TO SIZE AND IN RURAL TERRITORY.

Class of Places.	1931.		1921.		Percentage of total Population.				
	Places.	Population.	Places.	Population.	'31	'21	'11	'01	'91
Total Population	699,406	352,837,778	687,981	318,942,480	100	100	100	100	100
Rural Areas	696,831	313,852,351	685,665	286,467,204	89	89.8	90.6	90.1	90.5
Towns having 100,000 and over	2,575	38,985,427	2,316	32,475,276	11	10.2	9.4	9.9	9.5
Towns having 50,000 to 100,000	38	9,674,032	35	8,211,704	2.7	2.6	2.2	2.2	2.2
Towns having 20,000 to 50,000	65	4,572,113	54	3,517,749	1.3	1.1	.9	1.2	1.1
Towns having 10,000 to 20,000	268	8,091,288	200	5,968,794	2.3	1.9	1.8	1.7	1.6
Towns having 5,000 to 10,000	543	7,449,402	451	6,220,889	2.1	1.9	2	2.2	1.9
Towns having under 5,000	987	6,992,832	885	6,223,011	2	2	1.9	2	2.1
	674	2,205,760	691	2,333,129	.6	.7	.6	.6	.6

Migration.—Of the population of the Indian Empire only 730,546 were enumerated as born in other parts of the world. Of these 595,078 are of Asiatic birth, 118,089 of European birth and 17,379 others. The emigration from India is approximately 2.5 million, the balance of migration being against India.

Nearly all of these migrants are resident in other parts of the British Empire. There are about 165,500 Indians in the Union of South Africa, of whom 142,979 are found in Natal. There are 26,759 in Kenya; the other overseas Indian communities in order of size are Mauritius 268,870, Trinidad and Tobago 138,667, British Guiana 130,540, Fiji 75,117 and much smaller numbers in Tanganyika, Jamaica, Zanzibar, Uganda and Hong Kong. There are about 11,000 Indians scattered in numbers of under 2,000 in various other parts of the British Empire and probably about 9,000 in the British Isles. The total number of Indians in the Empire outside India is 2,300,000. Outside the Empire there are about 100,000 Indians, 25,000 in the Dutch East Indias, 35,000 in Dutch Guiana, 7,500 in Madagascar and smaller numbers in Portuguese East Africa, the U. S. A., Persia, Iraq and other countries.

The Chart below gives at a glance the changes in India's population in decade the 1921-31—the total, sex, urban rural and literacy.



RELIGIONS.

The subject of religion is severely controversial in India, where often it is coloured by politics and racialism. As the Year Book aims at being impartial, all disputed inferences are excluded. As a matter of fact, Dr. Hutton, the Commissioner for the latest census refers to an excess of zeal on the part of all parties to register as many adherents as possible in view of the possibility of a communal franchise based on the census returns. "So high did feeling run over the return of religion in the Punjab", he says, "that disputes as to whether a man was *Adi Dharmi* (Adherent of the original religion) or Sikh added to a number of affrays and at least to one homicide. Speaking broadly, of every hundred persons in the Indian Empire 68 are Hindus, 22 Mahomedans, 3 Buddhists, 3 follow the religion of their tribes, one is a Christian and one a Sikh. Of the remaining 2 one is equally likely to be a Buddhist or a Christian, and the other most probably a Jain, much less probably a Parsi and just as possibly either a Jew, a Brahmo, or a holder of indefinite beliefs. The enumerated totals of the Indian religious are set out in the following table :—

Religion.	Actual number in 1921. (000's omitted.)	Proportion per 10,000 of population in 1921.	Variation per cent. (Increase +, Decrease—), 1911-1921.
Hindu	239,195	6,824	+10·4
Arya	468	15	+92·1
Sikh	4,336	124	+33·9
Jain	1,252	36	+ 6·2
Buddhist	12,787	365	+10·5
Iranian [Zoroastrian (Parsi)]	110	3	+ 7·8
Musalman	77,678	2,216	+ 13
Christian	6,297	179	+32·5
Jew	24	1	+10·9
Primitive (Tribal)	8,280	236	—15·3
Miscellaneous (Minor Religions and religions not returned)	571	16	+3,072·6

A feature of the above table is easily the large increase in the number of those returned as "miscellaneous". This is explained by the fact that the latest census grouped all those who returned their religion as Adi-Hindu, Adi-Dravida, etc., under "miscellaneous".

The Hindus largely predominate in the centre and south of India, and in the Madras Presidency they are no less than 88 per cent. of the population. Hindus are in the majority in Assam, Bihar and Orissa, the United Provinces, the Central India tracts, Rajputana and Bombay. Muhammadans monopolize the North-West Frontier Province, Baluchistan and Kashmir and are considerably in excess in the Punjab and Eastern Bengal and Sind. They form about 32 per cent. of the population of Assam, 15 per cent. in the United Provinces and 10 per cent. in Hyderabad. The Buddhists are almost entirely confined to Burma where they are 84 per cent. of the population. The Sikhs are localized in the Punjab and the Jains in Rajputana, Ajmer-Merwara and the neighbouring States. Those who were classed as following Tribal Religions are chiefly found in Bihar and Orissa, the Central Provinces and Assam, but Bengal, Burma, Madras, Rajputana, Central India and Hyderabad also returned a considerable number under this head. More than half of the total number of Christians reside in South India including the Hyderabad State. The remainder are scattered over the continent, the larger numbers being returned in the Punjab, the United Provinces, Bengal, Bihar and Orissa, Burma, Bombay and Assam. The Parsis and Jews are chiefly residents of the Bombay Presidency.

Christians.—The Christian community now numbers just 6¼ millions of persons in India or 1.79 per cent. of the population. This constitutes an increase of 32.5 per cent. over the last census of which 20 per cent. is ascribed to convasions during the decade 1921-31. Nearly 60 per cent. of Christians are returned from the Madras Presidency and its States, and the community can claim 35 persons in every 1,000 of the population of the British districts of Madras and as large a proportion as 27 per cent. in Cochin and 31.5 per cent. in Travancore. Elsewhere the Christians are scattered over the larger Provinces and States of India, the Punjab and Bihar and Orissa.

MAIN STATISTICS OF THE INDIAN EMPIRE.

The Census of India was taken on the night of February 24th in Burma and on that of 26th in India. The total population of India as thus ascertained is 352,837,778, *viz.*, British Territory 271,526,933 and Indian States 81,310,845 giving an increase of 24,670,742 in British Territory and 9,224,556 in Indian States.

The following table shows the percentage of variation in the country's population at the last two censuses and in the last 50 years :—

——	1921 to 1931.	1911 to 1921.	1881 to 1931.
Whole India ..	+10.6	+1.2	+39.0
Provinces ..	+10.0	+1.3	+36.8
States	+12.8	+1. (	+46.6

CENSUS OF INDIA 1931—Population of Provinces and States.

Province, State or Agency.	Population, 1931.				Population, 1921.	Percentage of Variation, Increase (+), Decrease (—).		
	Area in Square Miles.	Persons.	Males.	Females.	Both Sexes.	1921-31.	1911-21.	1881-1931.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
INDIA.	1,808,679	352,837,778	181,828,923	171,008,855	318,942,480	+ 10.6	+ 1.2	+ 39.0
Provinces.								
Ajmer-Merwara	1,096,171	271,526,933	139,931,556	131,595,377	246,856,191	+ 10.0	+ 1.3	+ 36.8
Andaman and Nicobar Islands.	2,711	560,292	296,081	264,211	459,271	+ 13.1	— 1.2	+ 21.4
Assam	3,143	29,463	19,702	9,761	27,086	+ 8.8	+ 2.4	+ 101.4
Baluchistan	55,014	8,622,251	4,537,206	4,085,045	7,459,128	+ 15.6	+ 13.4	+ 79.2
Bengal	54,228	463,508	270,004	193,504	420,648	+ 10.2	+ 1.5	+ 21.3*
Bihar and Orissa	77,521	50,114,002	26,041,698	24,072,304	46,702,307	+ 7.3	+ 2.7	+ 37.9
Bombay Presidency including Aden.	83,054	37,677,576	18,794,138	18,883,438	33,995,418	+ 10.8	— 1.4	+ 21.6
Burma	123,679	21,930,601	11,535,903	10,394,698	19,348,219	+ 13.3	— 1.8	+ 32.8
Central Provinces and Berar	233,492	14,667,146	7,490,601	7,176,545	13,212,192	+ 11.0	+ 9.1	+ 292.5
Coorg	99,920	15,507,723	7,761,818	7,745,905	13,912,760	+ 11.5	+ 0.0	+ 29.8
Delhi	1,593	163,327	90,575	72,752	163,838	— 0.3	— 6.4	— 8.4
Madras	573	636,246	369,497	266,749	488,452	+ 30.3	+ 18.0	+ 81.3
North-West Frontier Province (Districts and Administered Territories).	142,277	46,740,107	23,082,999	23,657,108	42,318,985	+ 10.4	+ 2.2	+ 51.6
Punjab	13,518	2,425,076	1,315,818	1,109,258	2,251,340	+ 7.7	+ 2.5	+ 53.9
United Provinces of Agra and Oudh.	99,200	23,580,852	12,880,510	10,700,342	20,685,478	+ 14.0	+ 5.7	+ 39.2
	106,248	48,408,763	24,445,006	22,963,757	45,375,069	+ 6.7	— 3.1	+ 10.6

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Census of India 1931—*Continued.*

Province, State or Agency.	Population, 1931.				Population, 1921.	Percentage of Variation, Increase (+), Decrease (—),		
	Area in Square Miles.	Persons.	Males.	Females.	Both Sexes.	1921-31.	1911-21.	1881-1931.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
States and Agencies	712,508	81,310,845	41,897,367	39,413,478	72,086,289	+ 12.8	+ 1.0	+ 46.6
Assam States	12,320	625,606	306,927	318,679	531,118	+ 17.8	+ 10.2	+ 96.8
Baluchistan States	80,410	405,109	218,410	186,699	378,977	+ 6.9	— 9.8	— 5.5*
Baroda State	8,164	2,443,007	1,257,817	1,185,190	2,126,522	+ 14.9	+ 4.6	+ 12.0*
Bengal States	5,434	973,336	516,162	457,174	896,926	+ 8.5	+ 9.0	+ 39.4
Bihar and Orissa States ..	28,648	4,652,007	2,288,422	2,363,585	3,959,669	+ 17.5	+ 0.4	+ 93.0
Bombay States	27,994	4,468,396	2,288,623	2,179,773	3,867,819	+ 15.5	+ 0.1	+ 28.2
Central India Agency	51,597	6,632,790	3,405,438	3,227,352	6,002,551	+ 10.5	— 2.1	+ 22.0*
Central Provinces States ..	31,175	2,483,214	1,235,385	1,247,829	2,066,900	+ 20.1	— 2.4	+ 79.0
Gwalior State	26,367	3,523,070	1,867,031	1,656,039	3,193,176	+ 10.3	— 1.3	+ 14.6*
Hyderabad State	82,698	14,436,148	7,370,010	7,066,138	12,471,770	+ 15.8	— 6.8	+ 46.6
Jammu and Kashmir State ..	84,516	3,646,243	1,938,338	1,707,905	3,320,518	+ 9.8	+ 5.1	+ 48.3†
Madras States Agency	10,698	6,754,484	3,373,032	3,381,452	5,460,312	+ 23.7	+ 13.5	+ 101.9
Cochin State	1,480	1,205,016	589,813	615,203	979,080	+ 23.1	+ 6.6	+ 100.7
Travancore State	7,625	5,095,973	2,565,073	2,530,900	4,006,062	+ 27.2	+ 16.8	+ 112.2
Other Madras States	1,593	453,495	218,146	235,349	475,170	— 4.6	+ 2.2	+ 32.1
Mysore State	29,326	6,557,302	3,353,963	3,203,339	5,978,892	+ 9.7	+ 3.0	+ 56.6
North-West Frontier Province (Agencies and Tribal Areas).	22,838	2,259,288	1,212,347	1,046,941	2,825,136	— 20.0	+74.2	+ 2,590.8*
Punjab States	5,820	437,787	229,290	208,497	408,019	+ 7.3	— 1.0	+ 21.5
Punjab States Agency	31,241	4,272,218	2,451,394	2,020,824	4,008,017	+ 11.6	+ 5.5	+ 27.7
Rajputana Agency	129,059	11,225,712	5,885,028	5,340,684	9,831,755	+ 14.2	— 6.5	+ 11.1
Sikkim State	2,818	109,808	55,825	53,983	81,721	+ 34.4	— 7.1	+ 260.5†
United Provinces States ..	5,943	1,206,070	618,171	587,899	1,134,881	+ 6.3	— 4.6	+ 9.7
Western India States Agency.	35,442	3,999,250	2,025,754	1,973,496	3,581,610	+ 12.0	+ 0.5	+ 16.5

* Variation calculated from 1901-1931.

† Variation calculated from 1891-1931.

POPULATION OF PRINCIPAL TOWNS.

It is claimed that the city of Calcutta contains 35,000 more inhabitants than Bombay which is the next largest city in India. There are nearly twice as many inhabitants in Calcutta proper as there are in Madras and almost three times as many as there are in Rangoon. Alone of the large cities of India, Bombay records a decrease in population since the 1921 census.

Lahore which has expanded to more than half as large again as it was in 1921 has increased its population by actually a larger numbers during the decade than Calcutta. The same is true of Delhi and Madras which increased by 47 per cent. and 22 per cent. over their population of 1921. On the other hand, although the increase of 119,470 in the population of Calcutta during the last decade is greater than has been recorded in any of the other cities the percentage increase amounts to only 11 as compared with 21.5 in Karachi, 15.9 in Rangoon, 14.5 in Ahmedabad and 14.2 in Lucknow. Taking the suburban areas into account the population of Calcutta is 1,485,582 of which 1,196,734 are to be found in the city proper included in the municipal area.

City.	Total Population.	Density.	Females per 1,000 males.	Literates per 1,000.		Percentage Variation.			
				Males.	Females	1901 to 1911.	1911 to 1921.	1921 to 1931.	1881 to 1931.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Calcutta with Howrah ..	1,485,582	24,354	489	430	269	+ 11.0	+ 4.3	+ 11.9	+ 79.2
Bombay	1,161,383	48,000	554	291	153	+ 26.2	+ 20.0	— 1.2	+ 50.2
Madras	647,230	22,249	897	433	170	+ 1.8	+ 1.6	+ 22.8	+ 59.1
Hyderabad with Secunderabad, etc.	466,894	8,809	889	449	118	+ 12.0	— 19.0	+ 16.0	+ 27.0
Delhi with New Delhi, Shahdara, etc.	447,442	6,835	670	246†	89‡	+ 11.6	+ 30.7	47.0	+ 158.1
Lahore	429,747	10,913	565	297	124	+ 12.7	+ 23.2	+ 52.5	+ 187.7
Rangoon	400,415	16,146	477	512	379	+ 24.9	+ 16.6	+ 17.1	+ 198.4
Ahmedabad	313,789	*	853	*	*	+ 16.6	+ 26.4	+ 14.5	+ 145.9
Bangalore with Civil and Military Station.	306,470	11,799	902	405	168	+ 19.1	+ 25.3	+ 29.0	+ 96.6
Lucknow	274,659	13,272	745	253	43	— 1.6	— 4.6	+ 14.2	+ 8.2
Amritsar	264,840	24,844	666	205	69	— 6.0	+ 4.9	+ 65.3	+ 74.4
Karachi	263,565	6,720	688	286	114	+ 30.2	+ 42.8	+ 21.5	+ 258.3
Poona	250,187	6,400	811	408	149	+ 5.3	+ 23.9	+ 16.5	+ 82.6
Cawnpore	243,755	24,756	696	233	62	— 12.0	+ 21.2	+ 12.6	+ 56.9
Agra	229,764	12,449	813	214	52	— 1.4	+ 0.0	+ 23.8	+ ..4

* Not available.

† For Delhi and New Delhi Cities only.

Population of Principal Towns—*Continued.*

City.	Total Population.	Density.	Females per 1,000 males.	Literates per 1,000		Percentage Variation.			
				Males.	Females	1901 to 1911.	1911 to 1921.	1921 to 1931.	1881 to 1931.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Nagpur	215,165	10,578	848	308	95	— 21.0	+ 43.0	+ 48.0	+ 119.0
Benares	205,315	25,945	802	300	83	— 4.4	— 2.6	+ 3.5	— 6.1
Allahabad	183,914	12,118	776	347	133	— 0.2	— 8.4	+ 17.0	+ 14.9
Madura	182,018	22,555	985	444	94	+ 26.6	+ 2.8	+ 31.0	+ 146.6
Srinagar	173,573	15,779	831	174	14	+ + +	+ 12.2	+ +	+ 46.0‡
Patna	159,690	10,646	751	305	86	+ 3.0	— 11.9	+ 33.1	— 6.42
Mandalay	147,932	5,917	905	704†	390†	— 24.8	+ 7.7	— 0.7	— 21.7‡
Sholapur	144,654	*	885	254†	48†	— 18.5	+ +	+ 21.0	+ 141.5
Jaipur	144,179	48,060	850	218	32	— 14.4	— 94.9	+ 19.9	+ +	+ 1.1
Bareilly	144,031	17,652	842	227	62	— 2.8	— 12.3			
Trichinopoly	142,843	17,657	957	485	152	+ 17.9	— 0.0	+ 11.3	+ +	+ 25.1
Dacca	138,518	23,086	746	444	261	+ 21.0	— 2.5	+ 18.6	+ +	+ 69.1
Meerut	136,709	18,749	750	266	108	— 1.6	+ 10.0	+ 16.0	+ +	+ 76.8
Indore	127,327	14,147	734	348	98	— 48.2	+ +	+ 11.5	+ +	+ 36.8
Jubbulpore	124,382	7,897	796	357	109	+ 11.0	+ 5.1	+ 36.8	+ +	+ 53.4‡
Peshawar	121,866	13,801	607	235†	67†	+ 2.9	+ 107.1	+ 14.0	+ +	+ 64.0
Ajmer	119,524	7,031	811	322	95	+ + 16.8	+ 8.0			
Multan	119,467	9,084	754	200	33	+ 13.6	+ 6.7	+ 16.7	+ +	+ 52.4
Rawalpindi	119,284	9,527	570	326	64	— 1.4	+ 31.7	+ 5.3	+ +	+ 145.2
Baroda	112,860	10,964	799	496	184	— 4.3	— 14.5	+ 40.9	+ +	+ 73.9
Moradabad	110,562	29,020	802	205	75	+ 8.0	+ 16.9	+ 17.9	+ +	+ 125.2
Tinnevelly with Palamcottah	109,068	11,314	1,098	458	108	+ 12.1	— 4.7	+ 19.2	+ +	+ 6.0
Mysore	107,142	10,714	887	420	173	+ 4.7	+ 1.9	+ 33.7	+ +	+ 59.5
Salem	102,179	23,065	973	339	72	— 16.2	+ + 17.7	+ 8.6	+ +	+ 164.8
							— 11.7	+ 27.6	+ +	+ 77.7
								+ 95.6	+ +	+ 101.7

* Not available. † For Municipality only. ‡ 1891–1931.

AGE AND SEX.

The table below shows the age distribution of 10,000 males and females of the Indian population by 10-yearly age groups at the last two censuses:—

Age-group.	1931.		1921.		Age-group.	1931.		1921.	
	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.		Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.
0—10 ..	2,802	2,889	2,673	2,810	40—50 ..	968	891	1,013	967
10—20 ..	2,086	2,062	2,087	1,896	50—60 ..	561	545	619	606
20—30 ..	1,768	1,856	1,640	1,766	60—70 ..	269	281	347	377
30—40 ..	1,431	1,351	1,461	1,398	70 and over.	115	125	160	180
					Mean age ..	23.2	22.8	24.8	24.7

The mean age in India is only 23.02, as against 30.6 in England and Wales. The rate of infant mortality in India in the decade 1921-31 shows an appreciable reduction on the rate of the previous decade, even if allowance be made for the heavy mortality of the influenza years. It is in the towns that the highest infantile mortality is found. The table below shows the rates from 1925 to 1930 for presidency towns and certain provincial capitals.

INFANTILE MORTALITY RATES PER 1,000 LIVE-BIRTHS DURING.

City.	1925.	1926.	1927.	1928.	1929.	1930.
Bombay	357	255	316	314	301	298
Calcutta	326	372	340	276	259	268
Madras	279	282	240	289	259	246
Rangoon	352	320	204	341	321	278
Lucknow	260	287	256	301	269	329
Lahore	222	241	201	204	214	187
Nagpur	258	302	254	299	291	270
Delhi	183	238	201	210	259	199

Special causes contribute to the high mortality of infants in India.

Owing to the custom of early marriage, cohabitation and child-birth commonly take place before the woman is physically mature and this, combined with the primitive and insanitary methods of midwifery, seriously affects the health and vitality of the mother and through her of the child. If the child survives the prenatal and natal chances of congenital debility and the risks of child-birth, it is exposed to the dangers of death in the early months of life from diarrhœa or dysentery. According to the Executive Health Officer of Bombay city, by far the greater number of infantile deaths are due to infantile debility and malformation, including premature birth, respiratory diseases coming next, then convulsions, then diarrhœa and enteritis.

Sex Ratio.—The figures of the population of India by sexes, as recorded by the latest census, show a further continuation of the steady fall in the proportion of females to males that has been going on since the beginning of this century. This shortage of females is characteristic of the population of India as compared to that of most European countries. The female infant is definitely better equipped by nature for survival than the male, but in India the advantage she has at birth is probably neutralised in infancy by comparative neglect and in adolescence by the strain of bearing children too early and too often. A good deal of recent work on sex ratios has tended to the view that an increase in masculinity is an indication of declining population, but this is not the case in India as a whole. The all-India ratio is 901 females per 1,000 males for Muslims and 951 females per 1,000 males for Hindus. The only provinces in which there is actually an excess of women over men are Madras and Bihar and Orissa, though the Central Provinces can be added if Berar be excluded. Where females are in excess, the excess is still most marked in the lower castes and does not always extend to the higher. Among the aboriginal tribes, however, the numbers of the two sexes are approximately equal.

Marriage.—The subject of polygamy has been discussed fully in the report of 1911. Both Hindus and Muhammadans are allowed more wives than one, Muhammadans being nominally restricted to four. As a matter of practice polygamy is comparatively rare owing to domestic and economic reasons and has little effect on the statistics. The custom of polyandry is recognized as a regular institution among some of the tribes of the Himalayas and in parts of south India. It is also practised among many of the lower castes and aboriginal tribes. Its effect is reflected in the statistics of a few small communities such as the Buddhists of Kashmir where the proportion of married women to married men is exceptionally low, but otherwise the custom is of sociological rather than of statistical interest.

The table below shows the percentage for each sex of married persons who are under the age of 15 years.

Number per 1,000 *of total married who are under 15 years.*

Provinces, etc.	Males.	Females.
India	65.7	157.3
Burma	1.8	6.7
India Proper	68.0	161.8
Hindus	73.1	164.1
Muslims	59.4	174.3
Jains	32.5	108.3
Tribal	49.6	93.3
Sikhs	26.9	74.6
Christians	15.4	43.3

Widows and Remarriage.—Infant marriage naturally involves infant widowhood, a feature of no significance where remarriage is allowed, but of serious importance where it is not. Widows among Hindus numbered just under two millions in 1931; but the general ratio of widows has decreased as compared with 1921. In the 1921 census there were 175 widows in every 1,000 females, a figure which had fallen in 1931 to 155. It is, however, Jains and Hindus who place an effective ban on widow remarriage, and in both these communities the total ratio of widows has fallen; Jain widows in 1931 were 253 per 1,000 females, but in 1931 only 221, and the 1921 figure of 191 widows in every 1,000 Hindu females has fallen to 169 in 1931. On the other hand, there has already been a very remarkable increase in child widows particularly under the age of 5 years, which can be attributed to the rush of marriages anticipatory to the Child Marriage Restraint Act, a rush which it is to be feared will contribute large numbers of young widows to the figures of the 1941 census unless there is before then a very pronounced change of attitude towards widow remarriage in Hindu society generally. In every thousand Hindu women there are still 169 widowed, 22 of whom are under thirty years of age and over a quarter of those under 20. In spite of reformist movements to popularise widow remarriages, they are still uncommon enough to attract attention in Indian papers whenever they take place.

Proportion of widows in the population per 1,000 *of all religions.*

Age.	1931.	1921.
All ages	155	175
0—5	1	1
5—10	5	5
10—15	10	17
15—20	34	41
20—30	78	92
30—40	212	212
40—60	507	494
60 and over	802	814

SOCIAL AND ECONOMIC CONDITIONS.

Literacy.—The number of persons in India Literate in the sense of being able to write a letter and read the reply.

Literacy, in the sense of ability to write a letter and to read the answer to it, has grown enormously in the past fifty years, although it is at present not very high in comparison with countries in the west. Ninety-five out of every 1,000 of the population are now literate, as against 82 ten years ago and less than 40 half a century ago. Burma leads the provinces in the matter of literacy; for in that province literacy, even if not of a very high order, is a habit, traditional in both sexes and all classes, both boys and girls being taught in the monasteries of which almost every Burman village has at least one. Cochin, Travancore and Baroda follow Burma in the order of literacy. Cochin State, in spite of a very rapid growth in population and in spite of having started with a very high ratio, has been able to do more than keep pace with that growth.

Literacy is much more prevalent in towns than in the country, as both the need for, and the opportunities of, acquiring it are greater. An analysis of the population of the cities shows that 348 out of 1,000 males and 149 out of 1,000 females are literate, while the corresponding figures for literacy in English in towns are 1,473 males and 434 females.

The country taken as a whole, female literacy is comparatively absent in India proper except in Kerala. Cochin State has more than one literate female to every two literate males and Travancore only a little less, while Malabar has nearly one to every three, Coorg a little less than one to every three, Baroda a little fewer and Mysore one to every five. Besides the

difficulty, still felt very strongly in most provinces, of getting good women teachers, one of the most serious obstacles to the spread of female education is the early age of marriage, which causes girls to be taken from school before they have reached even the standard of the primary school leaving certificate.

Treated in communal or religious groups, the greatest progress has been made by Sikhs, Jains, Muslims and Hindus, in that order, but the leading literate communities are the Parsis, Jews, Burmans, Jains and Christians. The following table analyses the position of the Indian communities in respect of literacy:—

Religion.	Number per 1,000 who are literate.
All religions (India)	95
Hindus	84
Sikhs	91
Jains	353
Buddhists	90
Zoroastrians (Parsis)	791
Muslims	64
Christians	279
Jews	416
Tribal	7
Others	19

English Language.—Literacy in English language is still less in India and is confined mostly to the town-dwelling population. Two hundred and twelve out of every 10,000 males and 28 out of every 10,000 females are literate in English, and both sexes taken together 123 out of 10,000. Viewed in relation to the various religions and communities, the figures are as follow:—

Religion.	Number per 10,000 aged 5 and overs who are literate in English.
All religions (India)	123
Hindus	113
Sikhs	151
Jains	306
Buddhists	119
Zoroastrians (Parsis)	5,041
Muslims	92
Christians	919
Jews	2,636
Tribal	4
Others	28

Territorially, Cochin State leads in literacy in English with 507 per 10,000; Coorg follows with 238, Bengal (211) and Travancore (158) coming next.

Languages.—In the whole Indian Empire 225 languages were returned at the census, dialects, as has been previously explained, not having been separately considered.

The principal languages are given in the following statement:—

Language.	Total number of speakers (000's omitted.)				Number per 10,000, of total population.	
	1931.		1921.			
	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.
Western Hindi	37,743	33,804	50,210	46,504	2,090	1,990
Bengali	27,517	25,952	25,239	24,055	1,523	1,527
Telugu	13,291	13,083	11,874	11,727	736	770
Marathi	10,573	10,317	9,296	9,095	585	607
Tamil	10,073	10,339	9,284	9,496	558	608
Punjabi	8,799	7,040	8,961	7,272	487	414
Rajasthani	7,271	6,627	6,656	6,025	403	390
Kanarese	5,690	5,516	5,253	5,121	315	325
Oriya	5,485	5,709	4,852	5,192	304	336
Gujerati	5,610	5,240	4,967	4,585	311	308
Burmese	4,332	4,522	4,135	4,288	240	266
Malayalam	4,533	4,605	3,736	3,762	257	271
Lahnda (or Western Punjabi)	4,603	3,963	3,050	2,802	255	233

The necessity of a common medium of conversation and intercourse, which has given rise to bi-lingualism and the consequent displacement of tribal languages, has formed the subject of a considerable amount of discussion and suggestion during the last decade and a good deal has been written on the possibility of a *lingua franca* for India. The combined speakers of Eastern and Western Hindi considerably exceed in number the strength of any other individual language in India, and if we add to these two languages Bihari and Rajasthani, which so resemble Hindi as to be frequently returned under that name in the census schedules, we get well over 100 millions of speakers of tongues which have some considerable affinities and cover a very large area of northern and central India. In their pure forms these four languages may be scientifically distinct; but this is not the popular view. There is a common element in the main languages of northern and central India which renders their speakers, without any great conscious change in their speech, mutually intelligible to one another, and this common basis already forms an approach to a *lingua franca* over a large part of India.

Infirmities.—These are classes under four main heads—insanity, deaf-mutism, blindness and leprosy. The appended statement shows the number of persons suffering from each infirmity at each of the last six censuses and the proportion per hundred thousand of the population:—

Infirmity.	Number afflicted with ratio per hundred thousand of the population.					
	—	1921.	1911.	1901.	1891.	1881.
Insane	120,304 34	88,805 28	81,006 26	66,205 23	74,279 27	81,132 35
Deaf-mutes	230,895 66	189,644 60	199,891 64	153,168 52	196,861 75	197,215 86
Blind	601,370 172	479,637 152	443,653 142	354,104 121	458,868 167	526,748 229
Lepers	147,911 42	102,513 32	109,094 35	97,340 33	126,244 46	131,968 57
TOTAL ..		860,099 272	833,644 267	670,817 229	856,252 315	937,063 407

There had been a continuous decline in the total number as well as in the proportion of persons recorded as afflicted up to 1901. This fall has been ascribed partly to a progressive improvement in the accuracy of the diagnosis and partly to an actual decrease in the prevalence of the infirmities, owing to the improvement in the material condition of the people to better sanitation and (especially in the case of blindness) to the increasing number of cures effected with the aid of modern medical and surgical science. In the decade ending 1901 the relatively high mortality of the afflicted in the two severe famines must have been a considerable factor in the decline shown at that census, but the method of compilation adopted in 1901 and in the previous census was defective, and, certainly in 1901, many of the persons afflicted must have escaped notice in the course of tabulation. Compared with the year 1891, there was a slight decrease in the total number of persons recorded as afflicted in 1911, the proportion per hundred thousand persons falling from 315 to 267. The increase in ratio as well as in numbers since then is attributed to increased accuracy of enumeration.

Occupation.—It is a well known fact that the majority of the people in India live on agriculture. The latest census puts down the number of those engaged in the exploitation of animals and vegetation at 103,300,000, while those engaged in industry number 15,400,000. Thus about 67 per cent. of the country's workers are employed in the former and 10 per cent. in the latter. This does not, however, mean that all the 103 millions are land-owners. Rights in land in India are complicated and involved to a degree, incredible to persons familiar only with the simpler tenures of western Europe. Between the man who cultivates land and the man who nominally owns it there are often a number of intermediate holders of some interest or other in the produce of the land. If a comparison is made between the area of land under crops and the number of agriculturists actually engaged in cultivation in British India, it is that for each agriculturist there are 2.9 acres of cropped land of which 0.65 of an acre is irrigated. The cultivation of special crops occupies under two per cent. of the population concerned in pasture and agriculture, the greater part of whom are engaged in the production of tea. Forestry employs fewer than special cultivation.

In recent years there has been an increase in the number of people living on the production and transmission of physical force, that is, heat, light, electricity, motive power, etc. Silk spinning and weaving, manufacture of chemical products, and the manufacture of tobacco have proved more popular than before. Transport by road has attracted more men, while the use of water for internal transport has decreased, harbours being used more freely for external transport by sea. About five million persons are engaged in organised industry.

It is noteworthy that less than one million people, who man, the army, the Navy, the air force, the police, the services, etc., manage the administration of this vast country; in other words, 350 odd millions are ruled by one million servants of the state.

There has of late been increasing unemployment, especially among the educated classes. An attempt to include these in the last census has not met with success, but it is significant that graduates of Madras University join the police department on Rs. 10 per mensem and are held fortunate in getting even that.

Indians Overseas.

NUMBERS.—The total Indian population resident in the countries to which Indians mainly emigrate for purposes of settlement, according to the latest available returns, is as follows: —

Name of country.	Indian population.	Date of Information.
British Empire.		
1. Ceylon	6,50,577†	1932 Agent's Report.
2. British Malaya*	6,24,009	1931
3. Hong Kong	2,555	1911
4. Mauritius	2,65,796	1931 Protector of Immigrants' Report.
5. Seychelles	332	1911
6. Gibraltar	50 (approximately)	1920
7. Nigeria	100	1920
8. Kenya	39,644	1931 (Census).
9. Uganda	13,026	1931 Census.
10. Nyasaland	805	1926
11. Zanzibar	14,242	1931 Census.
12. Tanganyika Territory	23,422	1931 Census.
13. Jamaica	17,950	1932 Report of the Protector of Immigrants.
14. Trinidad	1,40,689	1932 Do.
15. British Guiana	1,34,059	1932 Do.
16. Fiji Islands	78,975	1932 Report of Secretariat for Indian Affairs.
17. Basutoland	172	1921
18. Swaziland	7	1921
19. Northern Rhodesia	56 (Asiatics)	1921
20. Southern Rhodesia	1,700 (")	1931
21. Canada	1,22,911	1931 Census.
22. Australia—		
Western Australia 300		
Southern Australia 200		
Victoria 400		
New South Wales 700	2,000 (approximately)	1922
Queensland 300		
Tasmania 100		
23. New Zealand	1,166	1932 Official Year Book.
24. Natal	1,50,920	1933 Protector of Immigrants Report.
25. Transvaal	15,747	1926 Statistics of Immigration Department.
26. Cape Colony	6,655	1926 Do.
27. Orange Free State	127	1926 Do.
28. Newfoundland	..	..
Foreign Countries.		
29. United States of America	3,175 (Asiatics)	1910
30. Madagascar	5,272 (Indians)	1917
31. Reunion	2,194	1921
32. Dutch East Indies	892,667 (Orientals, chiefly Chinese & Arabs) (say 50,000 Indians)	
33. Surinam	34,957	1920
34. Mozambique	1,100 (Asiatics and half-castes)	Not known.
35. Persia	3,827	1922
Total of Indians in Foreign Countries	100,525	
Total of Indians in British Empire	22,32,676	
Grand Total of Indians Overseas	23,33,201	

* Including Straits Settlements, Federated and Unfederated Malay States.
† Indian Estate Labourers only.

Origin of Indian Emigration.—Emigration is prohibited by the Hindu Shastres, and there is little evidence of any settlement of Indians overseas in early times except in Sumatra, Java and Ceylon. Emigration for purposes of labour dates from the beginning of the 19th century. From 1800 A. D. onwards Indians crossed the Bay to the Straits Settlements to work on the sugar, spice, tapioca, and cocoanut plantations of Penang, and this intercourse was allowed to continue for long without regulation. The first officially recorded instance of genuine recruitment for labour emigration occurred in 1830, when a French merchant, named Joseph Argand, carried some 150 artizans to Bourbon. The abolition of slavery in British colonies in 1834 gave the first great impetus to the movement. The sugar planters of Mauritius at once turned to India as their best recruiting ground, and between 1834 and 1837 obtained at least 7,000 recruits from Calcutta. The Government of India at a very early stage realised the necessity of bringing such emigration under regulation. The Law Commission was asked to investigate the case and to make recommendations for securing the well-being of emigrants. They advised that no legislation was required except in order to prevent undue advantage being taken of the simplicity and ignorance of emigrants by providing that a magistrate should satisfy himself that all contracts were entered into freely and understood by them and in order to secure that sufficient provision was made for their accommodation and sustenance during the voyage. A copy of every engagement was also to be transmitted to the Government under which the emigrants were to live. These recommendations were embodied in the first Emigration Act (V of 1837), which also provided that contracts should be determinable after 5 years.

History of Emigration.—Under the above Act emigration during 1837 was permitted to Mauritius, British Guiana and Australia (89 men, the first and last direct emigrants to Australia). In 1838 emigration was suspended owing to agitation in England regarding the abuses to which the system was liable, and a committee of enquiry reported in 1840 that emigrants were being entrapped by force or fraud, robbed of their wages and treated with brutality. In consequence, emigration was prohibited (Act XV of 1842) except to Mauritius and there control was tightened. In Act XXI of 1844 emigration under still stricter regulation was allowed to Jamaica, British Guiana and Trinidad. Act XIII of 1847 removed the restrictions on emigration to Ceylon. The emancipation of slaves in the French colonies in 1849 gave rise to a system of emigration from French Indian ports to Réunion and Bourbon, which was largely based on crimping in British territory. This practice was checked by Act XXIV of 1852. In 1858 emigration was opened to St. Lucia, and in 1860 to St. Vincent, Natal and St. Kitts. In the latter year a more elaborate Act, based on a convention with the French Government was passed legalising and regulating emigration to Réunion Martinique, Guadeloupe, and French Guiana. Act XIII of 1864 marks an important stage in the history of emigration, since it elaborated and consolidated the whole system of control. It was itself amended in 1869 and 1870 in important respects with the object of preventing epidemics on emigrant vessels and improving sanitary conditions in settlements. In 1869 emigration was permitted to Grenada, and in 1872 to Surinam. Owing to the removal of the Straits Settlements from the control of the Government of India in 1867, emigration to that colony came under all the restrictions imposed by the Emigration Act and was only permitted from the port of Negapatam. Owing to the injury caused to the agricultural industries of the colony, these restrictions were removed in 1872, subject only to magisterial control of recruitment in India. In 1870 complaints reached the Government of India of gross abuses in the treatment of emigrants in British Guiana. A commission of enquiry was appointed, and their report led to important legislation in the colony for the protection of Indian immigrants, which was subsequently extended to Trinidad. Owing to similar complaints from Natal and Mauritius, commissions of enquiry were also instituted in both these colonies, and their reports in 1872 brought to light a number of points requiring amendment.

Recent Legislation.—In 1871 a fresh consolidating Act was passed (Act VII of 1871) by which the Acts regulating emigration to the French Colonies and two amending Acts to Act XIII of 1864 were incorporated in the general law. The question of revision of the law again came up for consideration in 1882, when several cases of kidnapping and other objectionable practices were reported to the Government of India. The opportunity was taken to depute two officials (Major Pitcher and Mr. Grierson) to ascertain, in the N. W. P. and in Bengal respectively, the way in which the system of recruitment actually worked, the respects in which it was open to improvement, and the attitude of the people towards emigration. Their reports were reviewed by the Government of India, and finally in 1883 the law was again recast and consolidated by Act XXI of that year. This Act specifies the countries to which emigration is lawful, but empowers the Governor-General in Council to add to the list by notification, and also to prohibit emigration to any of the countries in the list on the ground of epidemic disease and or excessive mortality among emigrants in such country, or on the ground that proper measures have not been taken for the protection of emigrants, or that the agreements made with them in India are not duly enforced. This Act with certain amendments of no importance to the system of indentured emigration remained in force until 1908, when a fresh revision of the law was undertaken.

Under the Act of 1908 (XVII of 1908) the countries to which emigration was lawful were the British Colonies of Mauritius, Jamaica, British Guiana, Trinidad, St. Lucia, Grenada, St. Vincent, Natal, St. Kitts, Nevis, Fiji, the Seychelles, the Netherlands Colony of Dutch Guiana and the Danish Colony of St. Croix. Emigration to St. Lucia, Grenada, St. Vincent, St. Kitts, Nevis, the Seychelles and St. Croix ceased soon after the passing of the Act, the demand for fresh labour having died out

Emigration to Natal was discontinued from the 1st July 1911 as the Government of India were satisfied that it was undesirable to continue to send Indian labour to that country. Emigration to the French Colonies of Reunion, Martinique and Guadeloupe had been suspended prior to the passing of the Act of 1908 on account of repeated complaints of the inadequate precautions taken for the proper treatment and repatriation of the immigrants.

The labour laws of the several Colonies provide for the protection and welfare of resident Indian labourers. The Government of India also occasionally depute to the colonies their officers to report on the condition of Indian labourers. Deputations from India visited Fiji and British Guiana in 1921. In spite of all precautions certain social and moral evils had grown up in connection with the indentured system of emigration and Indian public opinion has during the last decade been strongly opposed to it. The whole system was exhaustively examined by the Government of India in 1915 in the light of the report received from Messrs. McNeill and Chimanlal, and they arrived at the conclusion that the time has come when contract labour should be abolished. The Secretary of State for India accepted this policy and authorised the Government of India to announce the abolition of the indentured system and the announcement to this effect was made in 1916.

In 1922 a further step forward was taken in Act VII of 1922 which prohibited indentured emigration and all unskilled emigration, except to countries specially approved by the Legislature. Emigration to Ceylon and Malaya was brought under control, and the definition of "Emigrant" was extended to cover all persons "assisted" to depart from India.

References.—The following is a list of the most important reports on questions connected with Indian Emigration that have been published during recent years:—

1. Report of the International Commission appointed to enquire into the condition and treatment of British India immigrants in Reunion, 1879.

2. Report on the system of recruiting coolies in the North Western Provinces and Oudh for the Colonies, 1883.

3. Major Pitcher and Mr. Grierson's report on the system of recruiting labourers in the North Western Provinces and Bengal for the Colonies, 1883.

4. Report of the Natal Indian Immigrants Commission, 1885-87.

5. Dr. Comin's report on the proposed resumption of Emigration to Réunion, Martinique and Guadeloupe, 1892.

6. Dr. Comin's report on Emigration from the East Indies to Surinam, 1893.

7. Mr. Muir-Mackenzie's report on Emigration to Réunion, 1894.

8. Mr. Muir-Mackenzie's report on the condition of Indian immigrants in Mauritius, 1895.

9. Report of the Commissioners appointed to enquire into the question of Indian immigration, 1896.

10. Lord Sanderson's Commission's Report on Emigration from India to the Crown Colonies and Protectorates, 1910.

11. Report of the Indian Enquiry Commission South Africa, 1914.

12. Messrs. McNeill and Chimanlal's report on the condition of Indian Emigrants in the four British Colonies: Trinidad, British Guiana or Demerara, Jamaica and Fiji, and in the Dutch Colony of Surinam, 1914-15.

13. Marjoribanks' and Marakkayar's report on Indian labour emigrating to Ceylon and Malaya, 1917.

14. South Africa Asiatic Enquiry Commission report, 1921.

15. Report by Right Hon. V. S. Sastri regarding his Dominion tour, 1923.

16. India and the Imperial Conference of 1923 compiled by Director of Public Information, Government of India.

17. Reports on the scheme for Indian emigration to British Guiana.

18. Report by Kunwar Maharaj Singh on his deputation to Mauritius, 1925.

19. Report by Kunwar Maharaj Singh on his deputation to British Guiana, 1926.

20. Report by the Right Hon'ble V. S. Srinivasa Sastri, P.C., regarding his Mission to East Africa in 1929.

21. Annual Reports of the Agent of the Government of India in Ceylon for the year 1928, and onwards.

22. Annual Reports of the Agent of the Government of India in British Malaya commencing 1928.

23. Annual Reports of the Agent of the Government of India in South Africa for the year 1928 and onwards.

Present Position.—Indian emigration questions have recently taken on a wider aspect. The status of Indians in the Empire generally is one in which the Indian public now take keen interest. It is no longer possible to deal with the treatment of Indian labour apart from other classes of Indian emigrants and travellers. In several colonies and dominions considerable Indian communities have sprung up, which although composed largely of the descendants of indentured labourers, are themselves free and lawfully domiciled citizens of the countries in which they are settled, but have not yet been placed on a footing of legal, social, political and economic equality with the rest of the population. The issues round which public interest at present centres are three:—

(*a*) Control of emigration.

(*b*) Rights of Indians to admission to other parts of the Empire.

(*c*) Rights and disabilities of Indians domiciled overseas.

These questions may be considered separately.

Control of Emigration.—So far as unskilled labour is concerned, the Government of India have assumed absolute powers of control. The terms of section 10 of the Emigration Act of 1922 are as follows:—

"10. (1) Emigration, for the purpose of unskilled work, shall not be lawful except to such countries and on such terms and conditions as the Governor-General in Council, by notification in the *Gazette of India*, may specify in this behalf.

"(2) No Notification shall be made under sub-section (1) unless it has been laid in draft before both Chambers of the Indian Legislature and has been approved by a resolution of each Chamber, either without modification or addition, or with modifications and additions to which both Chambers agree, but, upon such approval being given, the notification may be issued in the form in which it has been so approved."

Under this law emigration has been legalised to Ceylon on the following conditions:

(1) The emigrant shall—

(*a*) have been recruited by a person licensed for that purpose by and responsible to an officer (hereinafter called the Emigration Commissioner) appointed by the Government of Ceylon, or

(*b*) have applied direct to the Emigration Commissioner for an assisted passage and have been accepted by him.

(2) The emigrant shall not, before leaving British India, have entered into a contract of service for a period exceeding one month.

(3) Within six months from the issue of this Notification, or within such further period as the Governor-General in Council may by notification appoint, the Legislature of Ceylon shall have enacted that any contract of service for a period exceeding one month entered into by an emigrant shall be void.

(4) No part of the cost of his recruitment, subsistence during transport, or transport shall be recoverable from any emigrant and all expenses in this connection shall be defrayed from a common fund to be raised in such manner and managed by such agency as may appear suitable to the Colonial Government.

(5) The Government of Ceylon shall at any time when so desired by the Governor-General in Council admit and give all facilities to an Agent appointed under section 7 of the Act.

(6) Within one year of his arrival in Ceylon any emigrant who has been assisted to emigrate at the cost of the common fund referred to in clause (4) shall, on satisfying the Agent appointed under section 7 of the Act that his return to his home is desirable either on the ground of the state of his health or on the ground that the work which he is required to do is unsuitable to his capacity, or that he has been unjustly treated by his employer, or for any other sufficient reason, be repatriated free of cost to the place of recruitment, and the costs of such repatriation shall be defrayed by the Government of Ceylon or the Ceylon Planters' Association.

(7) If at any time there is no Agent appointed under section 7 of the Act, the Government of Ceylon shall appoint a person to perform the duties of the Agent as set forth in clause (6).

(8) Within six months from the issue of this Notification, or within such further period as the Governor-General in Council may by notification appoint, the Legislature of Ceylon shall have enacted that no payment made in India by a recruiter to an emigrant to enable him to pay off debts before emigrating shall be recoverable.

(9) The Government of Ceylon shall furnish such periodical reports and returns as may be required from time to time by the Government of India in respect of the welfare of persons emigrating to Ceylon in accordance with this Notification.

Similar conditions have been imposed in the case of Malaya. Emigration was also permitted to Mauritius for a period of 1 year only with effect from May 1st, 1923, and limited to a number not exceeding 1,500 labourers. The terms were more onerous than in the case of nearer Colonies and the arrangement has now lapsed.

Emigration to British Guiana for the purpose of unskilled work has also been declared lawful on the terms and conditions given below, but the date from which emigration is to commence has not yet been fixed:—

Emigration to British Guiana.—Emigration to British Guiana for the purpose of unskilled work shall be lawful with effect from such date as the Governor-General in Council may with the concurrence of the Governor of British Guiana notify in the *Gazette of India* on the following terms and conditions, which shall thereupon become operative:—

(1) The family shall be the unit for the purposes of emigration. Not more than 500 families shall be permitted to emigrate and the number of persons included in the said 500 families shall not exceed 1,500.

(2) The emigrants shall either have been recruited by a person licensed for that purpose by and responsible to an officer (hereinafter called the Emigration Commissioner) appointed by the Government of British Guiana, or have applied direct to the Emigration Commissioner for an assisted passage and have been accepted by him.

(3) No part of the cost of his recruitment of subsistence during transport shall be recoverable from any emigrant and all expenses in this connection shall be borne by the Government of British Guiana or met from funds at their disposal.

(4) The Government of British Guiana shall at any time when so desired by the Governor-General in Council, admit and give all facilities to an Agent appointed under section 7 of the Act.

(5) If at any time there is no Agent appointed under section 7 of the Act, or if the Agent is absent or unable to perform his duties, the Government of British Guiana shall at the request of the Governor-General in Council appoint a person to perform temporarily the duties of the Agent.

(6) Prior to the arrival of the emigrants a Settlement Commission shall be appointed in British Guiana to select and prepare suitable agricultural land for the emigrants and generally to supervise their employment. The Agent referred to in clause (4) shall, on appointment, be a member of such Commission.

(7) The Government of British Guiana shall offer to each family for its separate enjoyment a holding comprising not less than five acres of suitable agricultural land prepared for cultivation on the terms hereinafter set out in a locality which shall be healthy and shall have an adequate supply of good drinking water. All expenses in connection with the preparation of the holdings shall be borne by the Government of British Guiana and shall in no case be recoverable from an emigrant.

The annual rent of the holding shall be fixed by the Settlement Commission at a rate not exceeding the lowest rate paid in the locality.

After an emigrant has been in occupation of a holding for three years, he shall, provided that he has cultivated a portion of the holding either by himself or through some member of his family, be entitled to a grant of the holding on payment at any time during the ensuing four years of such fees not exceeding 24 dollars as may be fixed by the Settlement Commission.

On the expiry of seven years from the date of the commencement of his occupation of a holding an emigrant shall acquire absolute ownership in the holding provided that he has paid the rent and fees referred to in the foregoing paragraphs of this clause and has brought under cultivation either by himself or by some member of his family half the area of his holding.

(8) An emigrant on arrival in British Guiana shall be housed and maintained without charge by the Government of British Guiana for at least one month.

(9) If any emigrant so requires loans shall be made to him for maintenance, house accommodation, payment of rent and for agricultural purposes generally. Free medical assistance and free skilled supervision shall be provided.

(10) Any emigrant shall be entitled to repatriation at the expense of the Government of British Guiana to the place of his former residence in India on the expiry of 7 years from the date of his arrival in British Guiana.

Any emigrant shall be entitled to repatriation at the expense of the Government of British Guiana to the place of his former residence in India on the expiry of more than 3 and not more than 5 years from the date of his arrival in British Guiana on payment to the Government of British Guiana of half of the cost of his passage from his residence in India to British Guiana.

Any emigrant shall be entitled to repatriation at the expense of the Government of British Guiana to the place of his former residence in India on the expiry of more than 5 and not more than 7 years from the date of his arrival in British Guiana on payment to the Government of British Guiana of quarter of the cost of his passage from his residence in India to British Guiana.

(11) Notwithstanding anything contained in the last preceding clause the Government of British Guiana on the request of an Agent appointed under section 7 of the Act shall repatriate at its own expense and without any payment by or on behalf of the emigrant to the place of his former residence in India any emigrant at any time after his arrival in British Guiana.

(12) An emigrant shall be at liberty at any time after his arrival in British Guiana to take up work or employment other than or in addition to the cultivation of a holding on lease from the Settlement Commission.

(13) The ordinance enjoining compulsory education in British Guiana shall be enforced to the same extent in the case of Indian children as in the case of children belonging to other communities.

(14) Boards of arbitration in regard to wages shall be established before the arrival of the emigrants and Indians shall be adequately represented on such boards.

(15) Any Indian who has emigrated to British Guiana before the date of this notification and under any agreement in force at the date of this notification is entitled to an assisted return passage to India shall not be required to pay more than 25 per cent. of the excess in the cost of his return passage and clothing over the cost of such passage and clothing at the time of his first arrival in the colony.

(16) Any Indian who has emigrated to British Guiana before the date of this notification and has at the date of this notification become or thereafter becomes destitute shall be entitled to be repatriated to India at the expense of the Government of British Guiana without being further required to prove that he has become incapable of labour.

(17) The Government of British Guiana shall furnish such periodical reports and returns as may be required from time to time by the Government of India in respect of the welfare of the persons emigrating to the Colony in accordance with this notification.

Admission of Indians to Other Parts of the Empire.—On the motion of the Government of India this question was discussed at the Imperial War Conferences, 1917 and 1918, and the policy accepted by the self-governing dominions and the British Government was embodied in the following resolutions:—

"(1) It is an inherent function of the Governments of the several communities of the British Commonwealth including India, that each should enjoy complete control of the

composition of its own population by means of restriction on immigration from any of the other communities.

"(2) British citizens domiciled in any British country, including India, should be admitted into any other British country for visits, for the purpose of pleasure or commerce, including temporary residence for the purpose of education; such right shall not extend to a visit or temporary residence for labour purposes or to permanent settlement.

"(3) Indians already permanently domiciled in the other British countries should be allowed to bring in their wives and minor children on condition: (*a*) That not more than one wife and her children shall be admitted for each such Indian; and (*b*) that each individual so admitted shall be certified by the Government of India as being the lawful wife or child of such Indian."

The first paragraph of this resolution has regularized the various restrictions on immigration which the self-governing dominions have, from time to time, adopted and which, without expressly differentiating against Indians are in practice used in order to check Indian immigration, the objections to which are stated to be not racial or political but economic. Australia prohibits the entry of any person who fails to pass a dictation test of not less than 50 words in any prescribed language. New Zealand prohibits the entry of any person who has not received in advance a permit from the Dominion Government which is refused to any person regarded as unsuitable to settle in the country. South Africa prohibits the entry of any person deemed by the Minister of the Interior on economic grounds or on account of his standard or habits of life to be unsuited to the requirements of the Union. Canada prohibits the landing of any person who has come to the Dominion otherwise than by continuous journey from the country of which he is a native and unless he possesses in his own right 250 dollars. Newfoundland and the Irish Free State impose no restrictions. All the self-governing Dominions have adopted special exemptions in favour of students, tourists and merchants visiting the countries for the temporary purposes of commerce, pleasure, or education. India on its side has assumed power to regulate the admission of immigrants from any other part of the Empire or foreign countries, by means of passports. A bill has also been passed by the Indian Legislature empowering the Government of India to make rules "for the purpose of securing that persons not being of Indian origin, domiciled in any British possession, shall have no greater rights and privileges as regards entry into and residence in British India, than are accorded by the law and administration of such possession to persons of Indian domicile." With regard to the Crown colonies and protectorates, the attitude of the Indian Government is that there is no justification for placing any restrictions on the immigration of British Indians, which are not placed on other classes of British subjects, and this principle has in practice been observed by the Colonial Office except in the case of Kenya colony where, as stated hereafter, the British Government has reserved to itself the right to impose restrictions on the immigration of classes of people whose entry into the colony may have an adverse effect on the economic evolution of the indigenous population.

Rights and Disabilities of Indians Lawfully Domiciled Overseas.—The policy of the Empire is summed up in the resolution of the Imperial Conference, 1921, which was recorded in the following terms:—

"This Conference reaffirms that each Community of the British Commonwealth should enjoy complete control over the composition of its own population by restricting immigration from any of the other communities, but recognises that there is incongruity between the position of India, as an equal member of the Empire, and the existence of disabilities upon British Indians lawfully domiciled in some parts of the Empire, and this Conference, therefore, is of opinion that in the interests of the solidarity of the Commonwealth it is desirable that the rights of such Indians to citizenship should be recognised."

"The representatives of South Africa regret their inability to accept this resolution in view of the exceptional circumstances of the greater part of the Union. The representatives of India while appreciating the acceptance of this resolution, nevertheless feel bound to record their profound concern at the position of Indians in South Africa and hope that by negotiations between India and South Africa a way can be found as soon as may be to reach a more satisfactory position."

The Right Hon'ble Srinivasa Sastri visited the Dominions of Australia, Canada, and New Zealand in the course of 1922 as the emissary of the Government of India to assist them in giving effect to this resolution. The main object of his mission was to appeal to the Governments and public of Canada and Australia fully to enfranchise qualified domiciled Indians. At the time of Mr. Sastri's visit Indians resident in Queensland and Western Australia had neither the provincial nor the federal franchise. In Canada, Indians resident in British Columbia were and are still excluded from the dominion as well as the provincial franchise. While successful in securing a more sympathetic atmosphere towards Indians, Mr. Sastri failed to bring about any modification in the existing electoral laws.

The question of giving effect to the resolution of 1921 was raised by the Indian representatives at the Imperial Conference, 1923. Their proposal was as follows:—

"Let the Dominion Governments who have an Indian population, let His Majesty's Government in the areas under their direct control, such as Kenya, Uganda, Fiji and other places where there are Indians resident, appoint Committees to confer with a Committee which the Government of India will send from India and explore the avenues of how best and how soonest the principle of equality implicit in the 1921 Resolution may be implemented."

This proposal was favourably received by the Dominion Premiers, excluding General Smuts; and by the Secretary of State for the

Colonies who cordially agreed that there should be full consultation and discussions between him and a Committee appointed by the Government of India upon all questions affecting British Indians domiciled in British Colonies and protectorates and mandated territories. In pursuance of the proposal, the Government of India appointed a Committee in March 1924 composed of Mr. J. Hope Simpson, M.P., *Chairman*, H. H. the Aga Khan, Sir B. Robertson, Diwan Bahadur T. Rangachariar, M.L.A., and Mr. K. C. Roy with Mr. R. B. Ewbank, C.I.E., I.C.S., as Secretary to make representations to the Colonial Office on certain outstanding question affecting Indians in Kenya and Fiji. The Committee assembled in London early in April 1924 and dispersed towards the end of July. During this period they had several interviews with the Secretary of State for the Colonies and the officials of the Colonial Office, in which they made representations upon a variety of important matters affecting Indians in Kenya, in Fiji and in the mandated territory of Tanganyika. In regard to Kenya, the representations covered all questions of interest to India dealt with in the decision of His Majesty's Government. The result of these representations was announced by Mr. J. H. Thomas in the House of Commons on August 7th, 1924. The situation in Kenya also improved as a result of the work of the committee by the decision of the Indian community to relinquish their former attitude of non-co-operation and to accept an arrangement by which they will select five members to be nominated by the Governor to the Legislative Council. The result of the representations which the Committee made on certain outstanding questions relating to Indians in Fiji was announced on January 12th, 1927, when the Government of India published the more important papers relating to the negotiations which had been going on with the Colonial Office for some time.

Summary of present Position.—Outside Australia, N. Zealand and Canada the position stands as follows:—.

(1) **South Africa.**—The main grievances of Indians, which led to a passive resistance movement headed by Mr. Gandhi, were settled by the compromise embodied in the Indians Relief Act, 1914 and by the guarantee known as the Smuts-Gandhi agreement. The substance of this agreement is embodied in the following extracts from letters:—

(i) Mr. Gorges, Secretary for the Interior, to Mr. Gandhi, June 30th, 1914: "With regard to the administration of existing laws, the Minister desires me to say that it always has been, and will continue to be, the desire of the Government to see that they are administered in a just manner and with due regard to vested rights."

(ii) Mr. Gandhi to Mr. Gorges, July 7th, 1914:

"By vested rights I understand the right of an Indian and his successors to live and trade in the township in which he was living and trading, no matter how often he shifts his residence or business from place to place in the same township."

This has been officially interpreted to mean "that the vested rights of those Indians who were then living and trading in townships, whether in contravention of the law or not should be respected."

In 1920 an Asiatic Enquiry Commission was appointed to investigate the grievances of Indians regarding their rights to trade and hold land in the Union. Their main recommendations were as follows:—

(1) Law 3 of 1885 (Transvaal), the Gold Law of the Transvaal (Act No. 35 of 1908) and Act No. 37 of 1919 should not be repealed.

(2) There should be no compulsory repatriation of Asiatics; but

(3) Voluntary repatriation should be encouraged.

(4) There should be no compulsory segregation of Asiatics; but

(5) A system of voluntary separation should be introduced under which municipalities should have right, subject to certain conditions:—

(*a*) to lay out residential areas for Asiatics:

(*b*) to set aside certain streets or portions of the town for Asiatic traders to which existing license holders should gradually be attracted.

(6) These areas should be selected and allocated by a board of independent persons in consultation with the Municipal Council and Asiatic community.

(7) In Natal the right of Asiatics to acquire and own land for farming or agricultural purposes, outside townships, should be confined to the coast belt, say, 20 to 30 miles inland.

(8) A uniform "License Law" applicable to all the Provinces of the Union should be possible, be enacted. If that is impracticable, the law relating to the issue of Trade Licenses in the Cape Province, the Transvaal and Natal should be assimilated in a comprehensive consolidating Act of Parliament providing, *inter alia*:—

(*a*) That the granting of all licenses to trade (not being liquor licenses) shall be entrusted to municipal bodies within the area of their jurisdiction; outside those areas, to divisional Councils in the Cape Province, and in the other Provinces to special Licensing Officers appointed by the Administrator.

(*b*) The grounds upon which an application for the grant of a new license may be refused

(*c*) That the reasons for the refusal to grant any license shall be recorded, together with any evidence tendered for or against the application.

(*d*) That, in the case of the refusal of a license on the ground that the applicant is not a fit and proper person to hold the same or to carry on the proposed business, there shall be a final appeal to a Special Appeal Board, appointed by the Administrator,

(e) That municipal bodies shall have the right to prohibit the license holder, or any other person, from residing in any shop, store or other place of business.

(9) There should be no relaxation in the enforcement of the Immigration Laws, and more active steps should be taken to deal with prohibited immigrants who have evaded the provisions of those laws.

(10) The administration of the Asiatic policy of the Government should be placed in the hands of one official, under whose charge would come all administrative functions, together with the official records relating to Asiatics. This officer should also be entrusted with the duty of securing full statistics regarding Asiatics in the Union and of the arrivals in and departures from South Africa. Details of all applications for trade licenses, and transactions in connection with the purchase of land and property made by Asiatics throughout the Union, should be sent to him in order to ensure the enforcement of the provisions of Section 8 of Act 22 of 1913.

On the other hand, he should keep in close touch with the various sections of the Indian community, see that the laws are applied in a just manner, give a ready ear to any complaints or grievances and generally safeguard their interests.

From the above it will be observed that the Commission recommended the retention of a law prohibiting the ownership of land by Asiatics in the Transvaal, and another of its recommendations, threatened the right which Indians had previously enjoyed of acquiring and owning land in the Uplands of Natal. Against this latter proposal the Government of India earnestly protested, but it was not accepted by the Union Government.

Present Position.—Indians enjoy both the political and municipal franchise only in the Cape Province and the municipal franchise only in Natal. In the remaining two provinces they are not enfranchised. They are subjected to differential treatment in the matter of trading licenses, specially in the Transvaal. Their immigration into the Union is barred and severe restrictions exist on inter-provincial migration. In the Transvaal they are not allowed to acquire immovable property outside locations and on the Witwatersrand they are subject to the restrictions of the Gold Law.

The anti-Asiatic party have made several efforts, especially in Natal, further to curtail the rights of Indians. Some of these are merely irritating social disabilities, such as railway regulations debarring Indians from travelling in any other carriages except those reserved for them, and similar rules restricting their use of tramways at Durban, and excluding them from race courses and betting club rooms. Examples of recent anti-Asiatic legislation of major importance are:

(a) The Natal Rural Dealers Licensing Ordinance, transferring the power of granting trading licenses from the Licensing Officer to an elected Licensing Board, on which Indians may not sit.

(b) The Durban Land Alienation Ordinance. This Ordinance, which enables Municipalities in selling land to assign it for particular communities, and to that extent to secure segregation, has been allowed on condition that Asiatic are given reasonable opportunity for acquirin adequate residential sites.

Anti-Asiatic feeling in South Africa.—A bill for the segregation of Asiatics known as the Class Areas Bill was introduced in the Union Assembly in March 1924, which though not specifically directed against Indians, contained provisions which could be used for the compulsory segregation of all Asiatics in certain areas. Indian opinion was deeply agitated over the prospect of this legislation which it was apprehended might in the existing state of public opinion in South Africa result in the economic ruin of a large number of Indian traders in the Union. In response to the vigorous protests made by the Government of India the Union Government gave an assurance that it was their desire and intention to apply the measure if it became law in a spirit of fairness to the interests and reasonable requirements of resident Indians. The Government of India whilst welcoming the assurance were unable to rest satisfied with this position and made every effort to persuade the Union Government to abandon the project. For the moment they succeeded, as in consequence of the unexpected dissolution of the South African Parliament the bill lapsed, but the Union Government thereafter appointed a committee to inquire for some other country in the world which would be suitable for Indian immigration and to be a home for Indians going from South Africa. The report of the committee is awaited.

In Natal an Ordinance was introduced in the Provincial Council in 1921 dealing with the township franchise to the detriment of the Indian community. It was again introduced in 1922 and in a modified form in 1923 but in each instance the Union Government withheld its approval. In 1923, the Union Government itself introduced a measure entitled "The Class Areas Bill," containing provisions which could be used in urban areas for the compulsory segregation of Asiatics. Indian opinion was deeply exercised over the prospects of this legislation, despite the assurance of the Union Government that it desired to apply the measure in a spirit of fairness to the interests and reasonable requirements of Indian residents. But in consequence of the unexpected dissolution of the South African House of Assembly in April, 1924, the Bill lapsed. Towards the end of December 1924, news was received that the Government of South Africa had given its consent to the Natal Borough Ordinance. This measure while safeguarding the rights of Indians already on the electoral roll of Boroughs, prevents further enrolment of Indians as burgesses. Similarly the Natal Township Franchise Ordinance (No. 3 of 1925) was passed to or to render Indians ineligible for Township Franchise in future. Further, towards the end of January 1925, news was received that the Union Government had gazetted a Bill to amend the Mines and Works Act in order to take powers to refuse certificates of competency to natives or Asiatics in certain occupations. The Government of India made suitable representations in the matter to the Union Government and the Select Committee to which the measure was referred altered its wording so as not to refer to Asiatics and natives directly. The Bill as amended by the Select

Committee was passed by the Union Assembly but rejected by the Senate. In January 1926 it was reintroduced and in May it was adopted in a joint Session of the Senate and the Assembly by eighty-three votes to sixty-seven. In reply to representations made by the Government of India they were informed that there was no present intention on the part of the Union Government of extending regulations beyond the position as it existed prior to the judgment of the Transvaal Provincial Division of the Supreme Court in the case Rex *versus* Hildick Smith when it was held that certain regulations with reference to mines and works which have actually been in force in the Union of South Africa since 1911 and in certain provinces for many years before that date were not valid under sections of the Act in terms of which they were promulgated. The Government of India were assured that should any such extension of the scope of these regulations be contemplated in future every reasonable opportunity will be given to all the parties in the Union interested in the matter to make representations.

In July 1925, a more comprehensive Bill, known as the Areas Reservation and Immigration and Registration (Further Provision) Bill, was introduced in the Union Assembly. The Government of India made effective representations against the provisions of this Bill both on grounds of principle as well as of detail.

Deputation to S. Africa.

Towards the end of November 1925, the Government of India, with the concurrence of the Government of South Africa, sent a deputation to South Africa, the personnel of which was as follows :—

G. F. Paddison, Esq., C.S.I., I.C.S., Commissioner of Labour, Madras—*Leader.*

Hon'ble Syed Raza Ali, M.C.S.—*Member.*

Sir Deva Prasad Sarvadhikary, Kt., C.I.E.—*Member.*

G. S. Bajpai, Esq., C.B.E., I.C.S.—*Secretary.*

The main purpose of the deputation was to collect as soon as possible first-hand information regarding the economic condition and general position of the resident Indian community in South Africa and to form an appreciation of the wishes and requirements of the Indian community in South Africa. This deputation was followed by a return visit to India of a Parliamentary deputation from the Union Government of which the following were members :—

The Hon'ble F. W. Beyers, Minister of Mines and Industries, Patrick Duncan, K.C., C.M.G., Messrs. A. C. Fordom, J. S. Marwick, G. Reyburn, O. S. Vermooten, W. H. Rood, and J. R. Hartshorne. As a result of the investigations of these deputations, the Government of India and of the Union arranged for a meeting in the Union of a further delegation from India to explore every possible avenue, in order to arrive at a satisfactory solution of the Indian problem.

The Indian delegation whose members were: Sir Muhammad Habibullah, the Hon'ble Sir Phiroze Sethna, Sir Darcy Lindsay, Sir G. S. Paddison, the Rt. Hon'ble Srinivasa Sastri, Mr. G. L. Corbett and Mr. G. S. Bajpai, assembled in Conference with the Parliamentary deputation in Cape Town on the 17th December 1926. At the Session which lasted until the 11th January 1927, the contentious differences were discussed by the delegates freely and openly and in a spirit of determination to find a satisfactory solution of the outstanding difficulties. At the close of the Conference the delegates were therefore able to recommend the following articles, which were unhesitatingly approved of by the respective Governments, as a basis of agreement :—

(1) Both Governments reaffirm their recognition of the right of South Africa to use all just and legitimate means for the maintenance of Western Standard of life.

(2) The Union Government recognize that Indians domiciled in the Union, who are prepared to conform to Western Standards of life, should be enabled to do so.

(3) For these Indians in the Union who may desire to avail themselves of it, the Union Government will organise a scheme of assisted emigration to India or other countries where western standards are not required. Union domicile will be lost after three years' continuous absence from the Union in agreement with the proposed revision of the law relating to domicile, which will be of general application. Emigrants under the assisted Emigration Scheme, who desire to return to the Union within the three years, will be allowed to do so only on refund to the Union Government of the cost of the assistance received by them.

(4) The Government of India recognise their obligation to look after such emigrants on their arrival in India.

(5) The admission into the Union of the wives and minor children of Indians permanently domiciled in the Union will be regulated by paragraph 3 of Resolution XXI of the Imperial Conference of 1918.

(6) In the expectation that the difficulties with which the Union has been confronted will be materially lessened by the agreement which has now happily been reached between the two Governments and in order that the agreement may come into operation under the most favourable auspices and have a fair trial, the Government of the Union of South Africa have decided not to proceed further with Areas Reservation, Immigration and Registration (Further Provision) Bill.

(7) The two Governments have agreed to watch the working of the agreement now reached and to exchange views from time to time as to any changes that experience may suggest.

(8) The Government of the Union of South Africa have requested the Government of India to appoint an Agent in the Union in order to secure continuous and effective co-operation between the two Governments.

In India, the settlement was on the whole well-received. In South Africa the more responsible newspapers, both English and Dutch, *e.g.*, the "Cape Times" and "Die Burger," paid handsome tributes to both delegations for the statesmanship which they had brought to bear on their work, and the eminently reasonable and practical character of the results achieved by them. The majority of people in both countries doubtless regard it as a good first step in the solution of a complicated problem and the spirit, of which it is the outcome, as the best guarantee of a progressive and friendly adjustment honourable to both parties.

The friendly relations which were happily established between the Government of India and the Union Government of South Africa as a result of the agreement not only continue but have grown in warmth and sincerity. The Government of India sent out as their first Agent in South Africa the Right Hon'ble Srinivasa Sastri, P.C., who was a member of the Government of India's Delegation to the Cape Town Conference. His appointment was received with universal approval both in India and South Africa, the satisfaction felt by the Union Government being indicated by their decision, as an act of grace to make his appointment, to extend an amnesty to all Indians illegally present in the Union. On their part the Union Government after the ratification of the Agreement by the two Governments, lost no time in introducing legislation to give effect to their undertakings under it, so that when Mr. Sastri arrived in South Africa in June 1927 all that remained to be done was to take action under Part III of the Agreement relating to the measures required for the upliftment of the Indian community. Most of the provisions of this part concern the Province of Natal where the bulk of the Indian population of the Union is resident, and the Union Government were not slow in moving the Provincial Administration to appoint a Commission to enquire into the condition of Indian education in that province and to devise the means necessary for its improvement. Co-operation with this Commission on the part of the Government of India was provided by the Deputation from India of two educational experts—Mr. K. P. Kichlu, I.E.S., Deputy Director of Education in the United Provinces, and Miss C. Gordon, B.E. (Edin.), Madras Educational Service, Lecturer in Kindergarten methods at the Government Training College at Saidapet, to advise and assist the Commission in its investigations and deliberations.

A notable feature of the present situation was the marked spirit of friendliness and goodwill which now animates the Union Government in dealing with all problems affecting the domiciled Indian community. An example of this occurred in the year 1927 when a measure was introduced in the Union Parliament known as the Liquor Bill, clause 104 of which purported to prohibit the employment of Indians on any licensed premises—hotels, clubs, breweries etc. The appearance of this clause, which threatened the livelihood of 3,000 Indians engaged in such occupations, caused consternation among them and the Minister in charge decided to withdraw the clause from the scope of the Bill.

Much of the credit for the salutary measures referred to and the spirit of friendliness which they denote were due to the Right Hon'ble Mr. Sastri, the Agent of the Government of India in South Africa, whose tact and honesty earned for him the confidence of the European community, official and non-official alike and an increasing measure of their sympathy and assistance in furtherance of the Indian cause. Gratifying response was made by the Indians to this appeal for £20,000 for the purpose o opening a combined Teachers' Training and High school in Durban. The institution which meets an urgent need for Indians in the Union of South Africa was opened on October 14th, 1922, by His Excellency the Earl of Athlone, Governor General of South Africa. It is known as the Sastri College and has on its staff six fully qualified Indian teachers recruited in India.

In India the Government of India have appointed officers to look after repatriates and their personal property immediately upon their return from South Africa, to arrange for their despatch to their homes and, if possible, to find them employment for which they may be suited.

Early in 1929, the Rt. Hon. V. S. Srinivasa Sastri retired on the expiration of his period of appointment, and Sir Kurma Venkata Reddi, Kt., was chosen as his successor. In December 1929, sudden and serious illness compelled Sir Kurma Reddi to return to India on sick leave. During the time he held his post, Sir Kurma amply justified his selection to this important office. Sickness having compelled him to retire Kunwar Sir Maharaj Singh, Kt., C.I.E., M.A., Barrister, has appointed to succeed him.

Early in February 1930 the Government of the Union of South Africa set up a Select Committee of the House of the Assembly to enquire into certain questions relating to the right of Indians to occupy and own fixed property in the Transvaal and to propose such legislation to the House as it might deem fit. This decision was the result of a number of recent judicial judgments bearing upon the occupation of premises on proclaimed grounds in the Transvaal by persons belonging to the native races of Asia and to the wide-spread belief that the intentions of the Union Parliament as indicated in Act 37 of 1919 which purported to prohibit the acquisition of immovable property by Asiatics subsequent to its coming into operation were being systematically defeated. As the labours of the Committee were likely to affect important Indian interests, and as Sir Kurma Reddi was on leave in India, the Government of India deputed Mr. J. D. Tyson, I.C.S., to make suitable representations to the Committee for safeguarding legitimate Indian interests and to give the Indian community in the Transvaal such assistance as it might need for placing its views before the Committee. The Committee's conclusions which were embodied in a Bill and its Report were placed on the table of the Legislative Assembly of the Union on the 13th May and the Bill prepared by them was

read in the House for the first time on the 14th of that month. As soon as copies of the Bill and the Select Committee's Report reached the Government of India, they made pressing representations to the Government of the Union to allow adequate time for careful examination of the far-reaching provisions of the measure which the Select Committee had prepared. Their representations were not without effect and the Union Government decided to postpone further consideration of the Bill until the next session of the Union Parliament early in 1931.

The bill did not, however, come up before the Union Parliament in 1931, as the Union Government agreed to postpone it further until after the conference between their representatives and the representatives of the Government of India in connection with the revision of the Cape Town Agreement of 1927. This Conference was held at Cape Town in January-February 1932. The Government of India delegation was led by the Honourable Sir Fazl-i-Husain, the other members being the Rt. Honourable V. S. Srinivasa Sastri, Sir Geoffrey Corbett, Sir Darcy Lindsay, Mrs. Sarojini Naidu, Mr. G. S. Bajpai, and Sir K. V. Reddi.

The results of the Conference were announced simultaneously in India and South Africa on the 5th April, 1932. As regards the Cape Town Agreement of 1927, the following statement was made :—

1. "In accordance with paragraph 7 of the Cape Town Agreement of 1927 delegates of the Government of the Union of South Africa and of the Government of India met at Cape Town from January 12th to February 4th, 1932, to consider the working of the Agreement and to exchange views as to any modifications that experience might suggest. The delegates had a full and frank discussion in the Conference which was throughout marked by a spirit of cordiality and mutual good-will.

2. Both Governments consider that the Cape Town Agreement has been a powerful influence in fostering friendly relations between them and that they should continue to co-operate in the common object of harmonising their respective interests in regard to Indians resident in the Union.

3. It was recognised that the possibilities of the Union's scheme of assisted emigration to India are now practically exhausted owing to the economic and climatic conditions of India as well as to the fact that 80 per cent. of the Indian population of the Union are now South African-born. As a consequence the possibilities of land-settlement outside India, as already contemplated in paragraph 3 of the Agreement, have been further considered. The Government of India will co-operate with the Government of the Union in exploring the possibilities of a colonisation scheme for settling Indians, both from India and from South Africa, in other countries. In this investigation, which should take place during the course of the present year a representative of the Indian community in South Africa will, if they so desire, be associated. As soon as the investigation has been completed the two Governments will consider the results of the enquiry.

4. No other modification of the Agreement is for the present considered necessary."

The Union Government, as already mentioned in an earlier paragraph, took action to implement the first part of paragraph 3 of the statement. No suggestions in regard to the exploration of the possibilities of a colonisation scheme for settling Indians both from India and South Africa, in other countries have so far been reported. The South African Indian Congress decided to appoint a delegate to the committee of investigation on certain conditions. The Committee's report is awaited.

As regards the Transvaal Asiatic Land Tenure Act, certain changes were made which, broadly speaking, had the effect of further safeguarding Indian rights than was expected at the time when the results of the Conference were announced in India. These modifications were explained to the Members of the Indian Legislative Assembly in the following statement which was made on the 12th September, 1932 :—

Clause 5 of the original Bill, which sought to segregate Asiatics by provision for the year marking of areas for the occupation or ownership of land exclusively by Asiatics, has been deleted. Instead, the Gold Law has been amended to empower the Minister of the Interior, after consultation with the Minister of Mines, to withdraw any land from the operation of sections 130 and 131 of the Gold Law in so far as they prohibit residence upon or occupation of any land by coloured persons. This power will be exercised, after inquiry into individual cases by an impartial commission, presided over, by a judge, to validate present illegal occupations and to permit exceptions to be made in future from occupational restrictions of the Gold Law.

Fixed property acquired by Asiatic companies up to 1st May 1930, in which the controlling interest was nominally in the hands of Europeans but *de facto* in the hands of Asiatics of which stood lawfully registered in favour of an individual Asiatic on the same date and fixed property held through European trustees immediately prior to the 15th May 1930 will all be protected. Shares held by an Asiatic or Asiatic Company in a private company which in the terms of the original Bill, would have been forfeited to the State if the company acquired any fixed property after the 1st May 1930, are protected, provided that they were held by an Asiatic on the 1st May 1932 and have not been transferred by him since that date and they will be heritable by one Asiatic from another who lawfully holds them.

The provision in the original Bill, which declared illegal the occupation of any fresh 'land' after 1st May 1919 in the same township by an Asiatic, has been made applicable from the 1st May 1930. Extensions made between the 1st May 1919 and 1st May 1930 are protected.

In areas, like Springs, which, according to a judicial pronouncement, were not formerly subject to the restrictive provisions of the Gold Law, but which have now been brought under those restrictions, Indians who were lawfully residing on or occupying land on the 1st May 1930, will have their right of residence or occupation protected and will also be able to transfer the right to their lawful successors in title.

Local bodies, whom the original bill required to refuse certificates of fitness to an Asiatic to trade on the ground that the applicant may not lawfully carry on business on the premises for which the licence is sought, shall have to treat a certificate issued by a competent Government officer to the effect that any land has been withdrawn from the restrictive provisions of sections 130 and 131 of the Gold Law as sufficient proof that a coloured person may lawfully trade on such land. If an application for a certificate, which is necessary for the grant of a licence, is refused on the ground of insufficiency of title to occupy the land on which the business is to be carried on, an appeal may be preferred to the Magistrate of the district. The decision of the Magistrate on any such appeal is further subject to an appeal to the Transvaal Provincial Division of the Supreme Court.

The South African Indian Congress condemned the Act and a Committee to organise Passive Resistance was appointed. But no action has been taken by this Committee pending the report of the Commission, which has been appointed by the Union Government under the chairmanship of the Honourable Mr. Justice Feetham, to enquire into the occupation by coloured persons of proclaimed land in the Transvaal.

Kunwar Sir Maharaj Singh, Kt., C.I.E., M.A., Bar-at-Law, who has succeeded Sir K. V. Reddi, Kt., as Agent of the Government of India in South Africa, closely watched the proceedings of the Commission and assisted the Indian community in the Transvaal to place their case before it.

(2) **Kenya Colony.**—The grievances of Indians domiciled in this Colony are fully set forth in the published despatch of the Government of India, dated October 21st, 1920. The controversy centred round the following points:—

(*a*) FRANCHISE.—Indians have not the elective franchise. The Government of India proposed that there should be a common electoral roll and a common franchise on a reasonable property basis *plus* an educational test, without racial discrimination for all British subjects.

(*b*) SEGREGATION.—Professor Simpson who was sent to East Africa to report on Sanitary matters, recommended segregation on sanitary grounds. The Government of India objected, firstly, that it was impracticable; secondly, that it was commercially inconvenient; and thirdly, that Indians are in practice unfairly treated in the allocation of sites.

(*c*) THE HIGHLANDS.—Lord Elgin decided in 1908 that as a matter of administrative convenience grants of land in the upland area should not be made to Indians. The whole area has now been given out, and the Government of India claim that there is no land left to which Lord Elgin's decision applies. This decision has now, however, been extended so as to prohibit the transfer of land in the uplands to non-Europeans.

(*d*) IMMIGRATION.—Suggestions have been put forward for restricting Asiatic immigration into Kenya. The Government of India claim that there is no case for restricting Indian immigration and that such restrictions would be in principle indefensible.

The Settlement.—The decisions of the British Government were contained in a White Paper presented to Parliament in July 1923. It was held that the guiding principle should be that "the interests of the African native must be paramount," and in light of this it was decided:—

(*a*) FRANCHISE.—A communal franchise was adopted with 11 seats for elected Europeans, 5 elected Indians, one nominated Arab, one missionary representing the Africans, and a nominated official majority. One Indian is also appointed on the Governor's Executive Council.

(*b*) SEGREGATION.—The policy of segregation as between Europeans and Asiatics is abandoned.

(*c*) THE HIGHLANDS.—The existing practice is maintained both as regards initial grants and transfers. A similar reservation in the lowlands is offered to Indians.

(*d*) IMMIGRATION.—Racial discrimination in immigration regulations is rejected. But in the economic interests of the Africans, further control over immigration is necessary. Some arrangement is required for securing a strictly impartial examination of applications for entry into Kenya. The Governors of Kenya and Uganda have been instructed to submit joint proposals for legislation.

The Government of India reviewed their decisions in a resolution published on August 18th, 1923, and recorded "their deep regret that His Majesty's Government did not feel justified in giving greater effect to the recommendations made by them" and reserved liberty to reopen the case on a suitable opportunity. They stated their intention of making representations regarding the action to be taken to implement these decisions, particularly in the matter of the Immigration regulations.

Following upon the Kenya award statutory action was taken by the local administration on the franchise question. Adult suffrage on communal lines was conferred upon Indians. As regards immigration, the Government of India took the opportunity to urge the postponement of the bill giving effect to the decision of His Majesty's Government until such time as the Committee proposed by their representatives at the Imperial conference in 1923 had an opportunity of examining the question of the restrictions therein embodied. Accordingly the introduction of the bill was postponed at the instance of the Colonial Secretary. The Government of Kenya was also asked by His Majesty's Government for an explanatory statement regarding the method proposed for the administration of immigration measures. The Government of India received an assurance from the Colonial Secretary that ample opportunities would be afforded for the expression of their views; and that earnest attention would be given to any representation which their Committee desired to make. As has already been stated such a Committee was appointed in March 1924. The following statement made by the Secretary of State for the Colonies in the House of Commons on 7th August 1924 shows the result of the representation made by the Colonies Committee:—

"(1) IMMIGRATION.—My position is that if danger ever arises of such an influx of immigrants, of whatever class, race, nationality or character, as may likely be prejudicial to the economic interest of the natives, I hold myself entirely free to take any action which may be necessary. Conflicting statistics which have been laid before me have not enabled me to reach a definite conclusion as regards the extent of net Indian immigration. Accordingly steps will be taken to create a statistical department to obtain accurate information with regard to persons of all races arriving in or departing from Kenya. Meanwhile the Kenya Immigration Ordinance will not be enacted.

(2) FRANCHISE.—I have given careful consideration to representations in favour of a common poll, but I am not prepared to resist the conclusion already arrived at that in the special circumstances of Kenya, with four diverse communities, each of which will ultimately require electoral representation, the communal system is the best way to secure the fair representation of each and all of these communities.

(3) HIGHLANDS.—I consider that the Secretary of State for the Colonies has no alternative but to continue pledges, expressed or implied, which had been given in the past, and I can hold out no hope of the policy in regard to agricultural land in the Highlands being reconsidered.

(4) LOWLANDS.—It was proposed to reserve an area in the lowlands for agricultural immigrants from India. The Committee made it plain that it is averse from any reservation of land for any immigrant race, subject to the suggestion that before applications for land in lowland areas are invited an opportunity should be taken of sending an officer experienced in Indian settlement and agricultural methods to report on the areas. At present any consideration of the matter is in suspense pending receipt from the colony of reports from the native and agricultural points of view on the areas in question."

With regard to the announcement in connection with "Lowlands" the question of deputing an officer to examine these areas was considered by the Government of India who thought it inadvisable to proceed any further with the idea.

The work of the Colonies Committee did much to abate the bitterness which existed in the relations between the different classes of settlers in Kenya, and the situation was further improved by the decision of the Indian community to relinquish their attitude of non-co-operation and to select five members for nomination by the Governor to the Legislative Council.

In June 1924, His Majesty's Government announced the appointment of an East African Committee, under the Chairmanship of Lord Southborough, to consider and report on certain questions regarding the administration and economic development of British East African dependencies. Since this enquiry was likely to affect Indian interests, the Government of India urged that the Indian point of view should be heard before the Committee came to any conclusions. This request was granted, but further action in the matter was suspended, pending the publication of the report of the Commission presided over by Major Ormsby Gore, which visited East Africa to enquire into certain aspects of the questions referred to the Southborough Committee. The report of the Ormsby Gore Commission was published in the United Kingdom on May 7th, 1925. On June 9th, Major Ormsby Gore announced in the House of Commons that, in view of the completeness of the report presented by the Commission which, under his chairmanship, had visited East Africa, His Majesty's Government had decided that the Southborough Committee should not resume its sittings.

In November 1926, information reached the Government of India, that the Government of Kenya contemplated undertaking legislation at an early date in order to make the European and Indian communities responsible for the net cost of their education. It was originally intended to give effect to this decision by levying from Europeans a tax on domestic servants in their employ and from Indians a poll-tax. The Indian community resented this differentiation and, ultimately, the Colonial Government decided that both communities should pay the same form of tax, *viz.*, an adult poll tax. For Europeans this has been fixed at 30 shillings and for Indians at 20 shillings. An Ordinance giving effect to this decision was passed by the Kenya Legislative Council and came into force from 1st January, 1927.

In view of the issue of another White Paper in July 1927, in which it was announced that His Majesty's Government had authorised the Secretary of State for the Colonies to send to Africa a special Commission to investigate the possibility of securing more effective co-operation between the Governments of Eastern and Central African Dependencies and make recommendations on this and cognate matters, the question regarding the position of Indians in Kenya again came to the forefront.

The announcement excited serious apprehensions in India with regard to the future position of Indians in those Colonies. A deputation drawn mainly from both houses of the Indian Legislature also waited on His Excellency the Viceroy on the 17th September, 1927, and represented the position of Indians in East Africa. One of the suggestions made by the deputation was that permission may be given for a small deputation appointed by the Government of India to go over to East Africa in order—

(*a*) to make a general survey of these territories in relation to Indian interests therein, and

(*b*) to help the resident Indian community in preparing their evidence for the Commission.

The Government of India readily accepted this suggestion and, with the approval of His Majesty's Government, sent Kunwar Maharaj Singh, C.I.E. and Mr. R. B. Ewbank, C.I.E., I.C.S., to East Africa. These officers visited Kenya, Uganda, Zanzibar and Tanganyika and

their services are understood to have been greatly appreciated by the resident Indian communities. The personnel of the Commission was announced by the Secretary of State for the Colonies on November 14th, 1927, and was as follows:—The Right Hon'ble Sir Edward Hilton-Young, P.C., G.B.E., D.S.O., D.S.C., M.P. (*Chairman*), Sir Reginald Mant, K.C.I.E., C.S.I., Sir George Schuster, K.C.M.G., C.B.E., M.C., and Mr. G. H. Oldham, *Members*, with Mr. H. F. Downie (*Secretary*). The Commission left England on December 22nd, 1927, and travelled *via* the Nile to Uganda, and thence to Kenya, Tanganyika, Zanzibar, Nyasaland, and Northern Rhodesia, visiting the chief centres and hearing the views of representatives of different sections of the community. The Commission also visited Salisbury for the purpose of conferring with the Government of Southern Rhodesia. The report of the Commission was published on the 18th January 1929.

It was examined by the Government of India in consultation with the Standing Emigration Committee of the Indian Legislature and with prominent representatives of all parties in the Legislative Assembly, who were not members of the Committee. The tentative conclusions reached by Government on the main recommendations in the Report were set out in a telegram to the Secretary of State for India of the 19th March 1929, which was published in India in September 1929.

In March 1929, the Secretary of State for the Colonies sent out Sir Samuel Wilson, Under Secretary of State for the Colonies, to East Africa to discuss the recommendations of the Hilton Young Commission for the closer union of Kenya, Tanganyika and Uganda (and such possible modification of these proposals for effecting the object in view as may appear desirable) with the Governments concerned and also with any bodies or individuals representing the various interests and communities affected, with a view to seeing how far it may be possible to find a basis of general agreement. Sir Samuel was also directed to ascertain on what lines a scheme for closer union would be administratively workable and otherwise acceptable and to report the outcome of his consultations. At the invitation of the Secretary of State for the Colonies, the Government of India deputed the Rt. Hon. V. S. Srinivasa Sastri, P.C., to East Africa to help the local Indian communities to state their views to Sir Samuel Wilson on matters arising out of the Hilton Young Commission's Report and to be at Sir Samuel Wilson's disposal, if he wished to make use of him in dealing with the Indian deputations.

Mr. Sastri left India in April and returned in June 1929. In the Report presented by him on his return he recommended that the Government of India should—

(*a*) press for inquiries as to the basis of a civilisation franchise which shall be common to all races alike;

(*b*) invoke the good offices of the Colonial Office and of the Government of Kenya in securing the consent of the European Community to the establishment of a common roll;

(*c*) oppose the grant of responsible government to Kenya or of any institution leading up to it;

(*d*) oppose the establishment of a Central Council on the lines proposed by Sir Samuel Wilson;

(*e*) demand, in case of the establishment of some such body that the unofficial representatives from each province should include an adequate number of Indians;

(*f*) advocate the continuance of the official majority in the Legislative Council of Kenya;

(*g*) demand that the representation of natives in the Kenya Legislative Council should be by natives or by Europeans and Indians in equal proportions.

In September 1929, the Indian Delegation from E. Africa was received by Sir Fazl-i-Husain, Member in charge of the Education, Health and Land Department of the Government of India at Simla. The delegation was represented by Mr. J. B. Pandya, Mr. C. P. Dala and Mr. Iswardas from E. Africa and Pt. H. N. Kunzru and Sir Purshotamdas Thakurdas, M.L.A.s, Sir Frank Noyce, Secretary, and Mr. A. B. Reid, Joint Secretary in the E. H. L. Department, were also present.

Sir Fazl-i-Husain welcomed the delegation and requested them to tell him in what matter they wished the Government of India to help them. The delegation stated the views of the Indian Communities in E. Africa on the matters arising out of the Hilton Young Commission's Report which in their judgment most vitally affected Indian interests. The statement made by the delegation related principally to the question of common franchise in Kenya, the representation of the natives of the country on the Council, the Federation of the several territories in E. Africa along the lines suggested in the report, the reservation of land in Kenya for the settlement of Indians, the residential segregation of Indians in Kenya, the appointment of an Indian Trade Commissioner in East Africa, the improvement of educational facilities for Indians in East Africa, the appointment of Indians in the higher public services there and the better political representation of Indian interests in Uganda and Tanganyika. The delegation also requested the Government of India to nominate a representative to accompany the Deputation which they propose to send to London shortly to put the Indian case before His Majesty's Government before they pass any orders on the Hilton Young Commission's Report.

Sir Fazl-i-Husain thanked the delegation for their interesting statement, but said that, before he could make any statement on the attitude of the Government of India in regard to the points advanced by the delegation or reply to their request for the nomination by the Government of India, of a representative to accompany the proposed deputation to London, he would like the members of the delegation to attend the meeting which the Government of India had arranged to hold up on the 14th September, with leading members of the Legislature and the

Standing Emigration Committee, so that the latter might have the advantage of hearing the delegation themselves before they advised the Government of India upon the situation. The delegation expressed their readiness to attend the meeting and then withdrew.

Thereafter meetings of the Standing Emigration Committee were held and the decision arrived at by the Government of India was communicated to His Majesty's Government.

The report of Sir Samuel Wilson was published on the 5th October 1929. Another meeting of the Standing Emigration Committee was held soon thereafter to consider the report and a further communication was addressed to His Majesty's Government on the subject.

The conclusions of His Majesty's Government as regards closer union in East Africa were published in June, 1930, in the form of a White Paper and it was announced that they would be submitted to a Joint Committee of the two Houses of Parliament. In accordance with this decision a Select Committee was set up in November, 1930. The Government of India communicated their views in a despatch to the Secretary of State for India on the scheme set out in the White Paper in so far as it affected the Indian population in East Africa. With the permission of the Joint Select Committee of Parliament they also deputed the Right Honourable V. S. Srinivasa Sastri, P.C., C.H., as their representative to present their case and elucidate in the course of oral examination such questions as the Committee might consider necessary to refer to him. The Select Committee examined Mr. Sastri in July, 1931.

The report of the Committee was published simultaneously in England, East Africa and India on the 2nd November, 1931, and the decisions of His Majesty's Government on the recommendations of the Committee together with certain correspondence arising from the report of the Committee were also similarly published on the 24th August, 1932.

As regards the question of *Closer Union*, His Majesty's Government have accepted the view of the Joint Committee that apart from considerations arising out of the Mandatory position of the Tanganyika Territory, the time has not arrived for taking any far-reaching step in the direction of the formal Union of the several East African Dependencies.

As regards the Common Electoral roll, the Committee have stated "that it would be impracticable under present conditions to advocate the adoption of the system in preference to the existing system of election." This recommendation has also been accepted by His Majesty's Government. It has also been decided that no change should be made in the present arrangement which secures an official majority in the Kenya Legislative Council.

During the year 1927, another matter which engaged Government and the public in India was the report of the local Government Commission which was appointed by the Governor of Kenya in July 1926, to make recommendations as to the establishment or extension of local Government for certain areas in the Colony:—The report of the Commission was submitted to the Governor of Kenya in February 1927. The recommendations made were numerous and so far as Indians were concerned they involved a decrease in the proportion of Indian representation on the local bodies at Nairobi and Mombasa and the creation of an European elected majority in both places. This caused resentment among Indians in the Colony and resulted in the abstention from the Legislative Council of four out of five Indian representatives. The Government of India submitted representations to His Majesty's Secretary of State for India on the subject.

In 1928 the Local Government (Municipalities) Ordinance was passed. This amended the law relating to Municipal Govt. in Kenya to provide for the nomination of 7 unofficial Indian Members as against 9 European Members to be elected in Nairobi and for the nomination to the Municipal Board of Mombasa of an equal number of European and Indian Members, *viz.*, 7.

(3) **Fiji and British Guiana.**—Emigration to Fiji was stopped in 1917, under Rule 16 (B) of the Defence of India (Consolidated) Rules in pursuance of the general policy of stopping recruitment under the indentured system of emigration. With a view to secure, if possible, a renewal of emigration to the Colony, an unofficial mission composed of the Bishop of Polynesia and Mr. Rankine, Receiver-General to the Fiji Government, arrived in India in December 1919, and submitted a scheme of colonisation, which was referred to a committee of the Imperial Legislative Council on 4th February, 1920. To secure a favourable reception for the mission the Fiji Government cancelled all outstanding indentures of East Indian labourers from 2nd January, 1920, and also announced their intention to take early measures to provide for the representation of the Indian community on the Legislative Council on an elective basis by two members. In accordance with the recommendations made by the Committee the Government of India informed the mission in March, 1920, that they would be willing to send a Committee to Fiji provided that the Government of Fiji and the Secretary of State for the Colonies would guarantee that "the position of the emigrants in their new home will in all respects be equal to that of any other class of His Majesty's subjects resident in Fiji." In July, 1920, the Government of Fiji informed the Secretary of State for the Colonies of their willingness to give the pledge, subject to his approval. Arrangements with regard to the contemplated deputation, however, were postponed until January 1921, owing to the announcement of Lord Milner's policy in regard to Indians in Kenya, and the desirability of consulting the new Legislature in India. After consultation with the Fiji Government as to the terms of reference and personnel of the deputation, an announcement was made on the 27th June, 1921. But owing to the inability of the two Indian members Messrs. Srinivasa Sastri and Hirdaynath Kunzru, who had been nominated to join the Committee which as finally constituted consisted of Messrs. Venkatapati Raju, G. L. Corbett, Govind Sahai Sharma, and Lieutenant S. Hissam-ud-din Khan, did not reach Fiji until the end of January 1922.

The labour troubles in Fiji in the years 1920-21 had produced an unexpected result in India. The Government of Fiji cancelled the indentures of Indian labourers, as from January 1920, while arrangements were made for the early repatriation of such of them as desired to return to their own country. In consequence, large numbers left Fiji. Many arrived in India comparatively destitute; while others, who were colonial born or whose long residence in the colonies had rendered them unfit for the old social conditions, found themselves utterly out of place—indeed foreigners—in their own country. Returned emigrants from other colonies also, being in difficulties owing to the unfavourable economic situation in India, strongly desired to return to the territories from which they had come. During the early part of 1921, from all parts of India there was a steady drift of destitute and distressed labourers in the direction of Calcutta where they hoped to find ships to take them back to the colonies in which they were certain of work and livelihood. At the earnest representation of the Fiji Government, and after full consultation with representative public men, arrangements were made to relax the emigration restriction in favour of those Indians who were born and had property in any colony, as well as of such near relations as they desired to take with them. Admirable work was done among these distressed persons by the Emigrants Friendly Service Committee which had been formed primarily to deal with the applications of repatriated Indians desirous of returning to Fiji. The Government of India gave discretion to this Committee to permit persons who could prove that they had been in Fiji to return there if they so desired. The local labour conditions stimulated the return of these unfortunate people by giving them assisted passages. The Legislative Assembly had made a grant of £1,000 for the maintenance of these labourers, unt.] such time as they were able to find work and settle down in India. The deputation from India left Fiji on the 3rd April, 1922, and submitted its report to the Government of India. It has not been published.

In February, 1929, Letters Patent under which the constitution of the Fiji Legislative Council was revised were issued. Provision was made, *inter alia*, for the election of three Indian members on a communal basis. On the 4th November, 1929, one of the Indian members moved a resolution recommending the adoption of a common electoral roll in place of the existing communal one. The resolution was supported by the three Indian members and opposed by the rest of the Council including the elected European and nominated Fijian members. As a protest against this vote, all three Indian members resigned their seats and, no Indian having subsequently offered himself for election, the seats remained unfilled throughout the life of the Council. A fresh election was held during 1932 and as a result two Indian constituencies have returned their representatives to the Council, but no candidate offered himself for election from the third constituency. It is understood that two subsequently elected members also withdrew from the Council owing to the decision of the Secretary of State for the Colonies that the introduction of a common electoral roll in Fiji is impracticable at present.

British Guiana.—The Indian population in this colony belong almost entirely to the labouring classes and their grievances are mainly economic. Towards the end of 1919, a deputation consisting of the Hon'ble Dr. J. J. Nunan, Attorney-General, and Mr. J. A. Luckhoo, a prominent Indian who was a member of the combined court, visited India to put forward a scheme for the colonisation of British Guiana by means of emigration from India. This was examined by a Committee of the Indian Legislature, which advised that a deputation be sent from India to investigate conditions on the spot. Owing to certain unforeseen circumstances it was not found possible to proceed with the proposal until 1922, when a deputation consisting of Messrs. Pillai, Keatinge and Tivary visited British Guiana. Mr. Keatinge was a former member of the Indian Civil Service who had retired from the post of Director of Agriculture, Bombay; Diwan Bahadur P. Kesava Pillai was an elected member of the Madras Legislative Council of which he was also Vice-President; and Mr. Tivary was a member of the Servants of India Society who had done considerable amount of Social Welfare Work among the Depressed Classes in the United Provinces. The two reports of the deputation were published on the 21st of January, 1924. Towards the end of the month a deputation from the Colony of British Guiana, consisting of Sir Joseph Nunan, Kt., and the Hon. Mr. J. C. Luckhoo, K.C., arrived in India for further discussions. The Standing Emigration Committee of the Indian Legislature eventually reported that while they would be inclined to view with favour the colonization scheme put forward by the deputation, they would, before making any definite recommendation, like the Government of India to depute an officer to British Guiana to report on certain matter. Kunwar Maharaj Singh, M.A., C.I.E., Bar-at-Law, was deputed for this purpose. He proceeded to that Colony in September 1925. His report was received on February 1st, 1926, and published. He made certain criticisms and suggestions and the whole matter was thus satisfactorily settled. The colonisation scheme has not yet come into operation as the Colonial Government are not in a position at present to afford the cost which it involves.

In March, 1928, following special inquiries by the Colonial Office, reports appeared in the press that a bill had been introduced in the House of Commons empowering His Majesty's Government to alter the constitution of British Guiana by Order in Council. The changes eventually introduced by the British Guiana (Constitution), Order in Council 1928, did not involve any differentiation against Indians and did not in any way infringe the provisions of the special declaratory Ordinance which was passed by the Colonial Government in 1923 and which confers equality of status on all persons of East Indian race resident in the Colony.

(4) **Other Parts of the Empire.**—In Ceylon, Mauritius, and Malaya, the position of Indians has on the whole been satisfactory, and the matters have gone smoothly. The Government of India maintain their own Agents in Ceylon and Malaya. The

question of the fixation of a standard minimum wage for Indian Estate labourers in Ceylon and Malaya has been the subject of negotiations between the Govt. of India and the Colonial Governments ever since the emigration of Indian labour to the Colonies for the purpose of unskilled work was declared lawful in 1923 under the provisions of the Indian Emigration Act, 1922. So far as Ceylon is concerned a settlement satisfactory to the Govt. of India and that of Ceylon has been arrived at, *i.e.*, the standard wage and other outstanding questions affecting the interests of the labourers and the draft legislation to give effect to it was passed by the Ceylon Legislative Council in December 1927 as "Indian Labour Ordinance No. 27 of 1927." The Standard Rates of Wages agreed upon were introduced with effect from the 1st January 1929. In 1931, however, it was decided with the concurrence of the Government of India to reduce these wages by 5 cents for men, 4 cents for women and 3 cents for children by way of readjustment owing to the price of rice issued from estates being fixed at Rs. 4.80 instead of Rs. 6.40 per bushel. In regard to Malaya, Standard Wage Rates which are considered suitable by both the Indian and Malayan Governments have been introduced in certain areas. The rates so fixed were, however, reduced by 20 per cent. with effect from the 5th October 1930 owing to acute depression in the rubber trade. The questions affected by these details have recently received much attention by the Indian and Malay Authorities. The world-wide economic depression has also had repercussions on Indian labourers employed on tea and rubber estates in Ceylon. Wages have had to be reduced, but the Government of India have, with the co-operation of the Colonial Government, successfully prevented such reduction from materially affecting the labourers' standard of living. For those who are unwilling to work on reduced wages facilities for repatriation to their homes in India have been secured. The position in both the countries is being watched by the Government of India, through their Agents.

In April 1924, the Government of Mauritius requested that emigration to the Colony might be continued for a further period of one year, but the Government of India in consultation with the Standing Committee on Emigration decided that consideration of the request should await the results of a local investigation. The Government of Mauritius agreed to receive an Officer for the purpose and to give him all facilities; and in December, 1924, an Indian Officer of Government, Kunwar Maharaj Singh, left India to conduct the necessary inquiry.

Kunwar (now Sir) Maharaj Singh's report was published by the Government of India in August 1925. The various recommendations made in the report were commended to the consideration of the Colonial Government.

In February, 1926, the Government of India received a reply from the Colonial Government stating that they accepted the main conclusion formulated by Kunwar Maharaj Singh in regard to the renewal of emigration to Mauritius, *viz.*, that no more unskilled Indian labour should be sent to Mauritius either in the immediate or near future. With regard to Kunwar Maharaj Singh's suggestions relating to other matters of interest to the Indian population now resident in the Island, the Colonial Government expressed their willingness to give effect to several of them.

The present position of Indians in the Dominions is that under the Canadian Dominion Election Act, Indians domiciled in Canada enjoy the federal franchise in eight out of the nine provinces. In New Zealand, Indians enjoy the franchise on the same footing as all other British subjects. In Australia, sub-section (5) of section 39 of the Commonwealth Electoral Act, 1918-24, was amended in 1925, by adding after the word "Asia" the words, "except British India." This measure gives the Commonwealth franchise to subjects of British India at present domiciled in Australia and is the fruition of the hopes held out by the Commonwealth Government to Mr. Sastri on the occasion of his visit to Australia in 1922. As a result of the representations made in London in 1930 informally by the late Sir Muhammad Shafi at the instance of the Government of India to the Prime Minister of Australia, the electoral law of Queensland has also been revised to enfranchise the British Indians resident in that State. It is, therefore, in Western Australia alone that Indians do not enjoy the suffrage in respect of election for the Lower House. By Acts which have recently been passed by the Commonwealth Parliament, British Indians in Australia have been admitted to the benefits of Invalid and Old Age Pensions and Maternity allowances from which they were hitherto excluded as Asiatics. Old Age Pension is payable to men above 65 years of age, or above 60 years, provided such persons are of good character and have resided continuously for at least 20 years. An Invalid Pension is obtainable by persons, who, being above 16 years of age and not in receipt of an Old Age Pension, have whilst in Australia, become permanently incapacitated for work by reason of an accident or by reason of being an invalid or blind, provided they have resided continuously in Australia for at least five years.

Maternity allowance to the amount of £5 is given to a woman of every child to which she gives birth in Australia, provided the child is born alive and the woman is an inhabitant on the Commonwealth or intends to settle there. This Legislation removes the last grievance of the Indian community in Australia which was remediable by the Federal Government.

Indians in Great Britain.

Some seventy years have gone by since the Parsee community, in the persons of the late Dadabhai Naoroji and other members of the firm of Cama & Co., led the way in the sojourn of Indians in England for business purposes. This lead it has since maintained, though there are both Hindu and Mahommedan business men firmly established there. Nor are the professions unrepresented, for there are in London and elsewhere practising barristers, solicitors and medical men of Indian birth. The number of the latter, especially Parsees, is considerable. Three Indians (all belonging to the Parsee community) have sat in the House of Commons. Since 1910 four Indians—the late Mr. Ameer Ali, the first Lord Sinha, the late Sir Binode Mitter and Sir Dinsha Mulla—have served on the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council. Three Indians are on the Secretary of State's Council. In 1919, the late Lord Sinha was the first Indian to be raised to the peerage and to be appointed a member of the Home Government. In the spring of 1923 Mr. (now Sir) Dadiba Dalal was appointed High Commissioner for India being the first Indian to hold the office. He resigned towards the end of 1924 to be succeeded by Sir Atul Chatterjee, who in 1931 was followed by Sir B. N. Mitra. The early years of the present century saw the gathering of a new Indian element in permanent residence—that of retired officials and business men, or people of independent means who from preference or in order to have their children educated in England, leave the land of their birth and seldom if ever visit it again. Further the stream of Indian summer visitors includes wealthy people who come regularly.

Sectionally, the only Indian community to be fully organised is that of the Parsis. They have an incorporated and well-endowed Parsi Association of Europe. Its central Zoroastrian House, 11, Russell Road, West Kensington, opened in 1929, includes a room devoted to ritual and ceremonial purposes, a reading room and library, and rooms for social intercourse. The Arya Bhavan, a home for orthodox Hindus visiting London, was opened at 30, Belsize Park, Hampstead, in the summer of 1928. Indian business interests have been organised by the formation of the Indian Chamber of Commerce in Great Britain, with offices at 85, Gracechurch Street, E. C. 3. The East India Association (3 Victoria Street S. W. 1.) established in 1867, provides a non-partisan platform for the discussion of Indian problems, and exists "to promote the welfare of the inhabitants of India." The India League (146, Strand, W. C.) under the chairmanship of Mr. Bertrand Russell exists "to support the claim of India for Swaraj (Self-Rule)". At the other end of the scale in Indian political controversy is the Indian Empire Society 128, Alfred Place, South Kensington S. W. 7, with Lord Sumner as President and Field-Marshal Sir Claud Jacob as Chairman of the Executive Committee.

India House.

In March, 1930, the office of the High Commissioner for India was transferred from the inadequate premises in Grosvenor Gardens to the new India House in Aldwych, erected and furnished at a cost of £324,000. The design of this noble building, which has a frontage of about 130 ft. opposite the Waldorf Hotel, was the work of Sir Herbert Baker, A.R.A., with Dr. Oscar Faber as consulting engineer. Although expression of the Indian character of the building is mainly found in the interior, the architect has given to the details of the external elevation, by means of carving, heraldry and symbolism an individuality that proclaims it the London house of India. Including basement and mezzanine floors, there are twelve floors in all, the available space for clerical work alone being between 50,000 and 60,000 ft. The total height from the lower level in the courtyard on the Strand side to the roof is about 100 ft.

On the ground floor there is a great hall for exhibits of the products and art wares of India. This hall is carried up two floors, the upper floor being represented by a wide gallery, and on either side of the exhibition hall there are recesses after the style of an Indian bazaar for special exhibits. From the octagonal entrance hall a great public staircase leads to a gallery round the octagonal hall on the first floor. This gallery in its turn leads to a high vaulted library and reception rooms, and the central portion of the library provides accommodation for large receptions on special occasions.

The staircase, exhibition hall, octagonal hall and library markedly express the Indian character of the building. The walls of the staircase and the halls are of red stone similar in appearance to the Agra and Delhi sandstone, carved and pierced in the geometrical patterns of the *jali* in Indian architecture. Such of the carving as could be completely separated from the structure was actually worked at New Delhi by Indian workmen from Makara marble. The use throughout of Indian hardwoods, chiefly gurgan, for flooring obviates the need for any floor covering. From basement to roof scarcely any wood of non-Indian origin was employed. For panelling and decorative purposes in all parts of the great building silver gray, koko, laurel and the beautiful dark red padouk have been used. The domes and vaults of the building have been embellished by mural

paintings, the work of specially selected Indian artists. The water supply is entirely independent of municipal service, being obtained from two artesian wells sunk some 460 ft. below the basement, where the central heating apparatus is installed.

The Indian Trade Commissioner and his staff are at India House, with all other departments of the Office of the High Commissioner excepting the Stores Department which is at the depot off the Thames at Belvedere Road, Lambeth.

The Students.

Under normal conditions it is the student community which constitutes the greatly preponderating Indian element and creates a constant problem. Its numbers multiplied ten or twelve fold in the quarter of a century before the war. After a very considerable temporary check caused by the Great War the number rapidly expanded from 1919 in spite of pressure on college accommodation. In addition to the ordinary graduate or under-graduate student, there are some youths of good family, including heirs of Indian States, admitted into our public schools, such as Eton and Harrow. There are some 500 Indians at the Inns of Court. Since the war there has been a welcome increase in the number of technical and industrial students. Altogether including technical and medical students, there are fully 2,000 young Indians (some five per cent. of them women) in London, Edinburgh, Cambridge, Oxford, Glasgow, Manchester, Birmingham, Leeds, Sheffield, Liverpool and a few other centres. London absorbs about half the total.

The Advisers.

It is well known that for many years ago Indian students were left to their own devices apart from inadequately supported unofficial effort and the chance of coming under the influence of English friends of their families. But in April 1909 Lord Morley, created for their benefit a Bureau of Information and appointed the late Sir Thomas Arnold to the charge of it under the title of Educational Adviser. The Bureau was located at 21, Cromwell Road, together with the National Indian Association and the Northbrook Society, which were thus given spacious quarter for their social work among the young men. In India the provincial advisory committees to help and advise intending students have been replaced in some instances by University Committees. The work of the Bureau rapidly expanded, and in consequence Lord Crew in 1912 re-organised the arrangement under the general charge of a Secretary for Indian students, Mr. (now Sir) C. E. Mallet who resigned at the close of 1916. He was succeeded by Dr. Arnold under the designation of Educational Adviser for Indian Students to the Secretary of State. Mr. N. C. Sen followed Sir T. Arnold as Local Adviser in London. At Oxford the Oriental Delegacy, and at Cambridge the Inter-Collegiate Committee have been instituted to deal with Oriental students generally; whilst Local Advisers for Indian students have been appointed at Manchester, Edinburgh and Glasgow.

These arrangements underwent far-reaching revision in the autumn of 1920 in connection with the setting up, under the Act of the previous year of a High Commissionership for India in the United Kingdom. The "agency work" Sir William Meyer took over from the Secretary of State included that connected with Indian students. Sir Thomas Arnold accepted an appointment long pressed upon him as Professor of Arabic at the School of Oriental Studies, and the High Commissioner appointed Mr. N. C. Sen and Dr. Thomas Quayle as Joint Secretaries for the Education Department. The administrative work hitherto divided between the India Office and 21, Cromwell Road, was consolidated at the offices of the High Commissioner, thereby obviating a good deal of duplication of files and papers. Dr. Quayle is now Secretary in the Education Department of the Office of the High Commissioner and is assisted by Messrs. P. K. Dutt, R. M. J. Knaster and V. I. Gaster with Miss C. H. Bose to look after women students.

The whole situation was investigated by a committee of inquiry which sat in 1921 under the chairmanship of Lord Lytton. Arrangements had been made for the Committee to continue their investigations in India in the cold weather of 1921-22, but were abandoned in consequence of the refusal of the Legislative Assembly to vote the necessary grant. This largely accounts for the somewhat tentative form of the recommendations of the unanimous report published in October 1922. The opinion was expressed that the only permanent solution of the problem is to be found in the development of education in India. Attention was invited to the diminution of the number of Indian students proceeding abroad that would result from giving effect to recommendations made for such development by previous commissions, and by the establishment of an Indian Bar. The Committee held that it should be possible to secure admission both to British universities and, subject to certain reservations, to the works of manufacturing firms in Great Britain for all Indian students competent to profit by the facilities afforded, provided that some machinery existed to ensure their distribution to the places best suited to their requirements. Subsequently a committee presided over by Sir Edward Chamier recommended the creation of Indian Bars, which should have the effect of much reducing the number of Indians going to the Inns of Court. An Act for the purpose was passed by the Indian Legislature in 1926, but has not narrowed the stream of students at the Inns-of-Court.

The students have hosts of non-official friends and helpers and the report suggested that there should be a conference of representatives of all organisations interested in the social and intellectual welfare of young Indians in Great Britain to discuss the best means for co-ordinating their efforts. Accordingly Sir Atul Chatterjee held a conference in July 1925, when plans were formulated to help to meet the needs of students more particularly in respect to suitable boarding accommodation in London: The subject had been previously discussed at a meeting of the East India Association (April 27,

1925) when a paper was read by Mr. F. H. Brown. The conference came to the conclusion that, since non-official effort admittedly does not meet the need fully the hostel and club at 21, Cromwell-Road, should be maintained, more particularly to provide accommodation for new comers. A small committee with Mr. A. D. Bonarjee (Warden of 21, Cromwell-Road) as Secretary was established to assist students in obtaining suitable accommodation. The increasing number of students coming from Indian States raises the question whether the time has not come for provision to be made for them on lines similar to those adopted by the Education Department of the Office of the High Commissioner. The Mysore State opened in 1929 an agency office at Grand Buildings, Trafalgar Square, and appointed a permanent Trade Commissioner.

Under the presidency of Lord Hawke an Indian Gymkhana Club in 1921 acquired its own sports ground at Osterley, the total cost of purchase and equipment being estimated at £15,000. Generous gifts were made by some Ruling Princes and others, particularly the Maharaja of Patiala, but further help is required. The cricket eleven of the Club has an excellent record in matches at Lords and the Oval and with suburban clubs.

A notable development of 1920 was the opening of the "Red Triangle" Shakespeare Hut in Bloomsbury, off Gower Street, as a union and hostel for Indian and Ceylonese students up to the number of 500. The hostel was removed to permanent premises 106–112, Gower-Street, close to University College in the autumn of 1923. It is Indian both in conception and control, the warden and committee being responsible not to the National Council of Y. M. C. A. in London but to the Indian National Council in Calcutta. While the organization has a definitely moral and spiritual, as well as a social purpose, it is not a proselytising agency. There is a steady average of some 550 members, and the hostel is exceptionally fortunate in securing the voluntary services of men and women of great distinction in many fields for the regular Sunday afternoon and other lectures. The Indian Students Central Association had a Club house and restraurant at 2 Beauford-Gardens, S.W.3, but has ceased to exist: a fate which overtakes many short-lived organisation in relation to India.

There has been some recent development in the matter of periodical literature devoted to India. The weekly *Near East and India* is well known; the fortnightly *Indian Review* is the organ of the India League and the monthly *Indian Empire Review* that of the Indian Empire Society.

SOCIETIES AND INSTITUTIONS IN LONDON CONNECTED WITH INDIA

BRITISH INDIAN UNION.—Promotes friendship and understanding between the two races. 52, High Holborn, W. C. I. *Hon. Secretary:* R. S. Nehra.

CENTRAL HINDU SOCIETY OF GREAT BRITAIN.—Founded to give exposition to Hindu philosophy and culture, to provide for better mutual understanding between Hindus and the British public, and to further the social, economic and political interests of the Hindus in general. *President:* R. S. Nehra. *Sec:* Dr. M. L. Kalra, 188, Lambeth Walk, S. E. 11.

CHIEF PUNJAB ASSOCIATION.—Founded 1925 to achieve for India a position of honour in the British Commonwealth of Nations; to promote better understanding between India and Great Britain; to bring about unity between the sister Communities of India; and to raise the standard of living of the people of India. *President:* Sirdar Hardit Singh. *Secretary:* M. H. Rashid, 445, Strand, W. C. 2.

EAST INDIA ASSOCIATION.—Its object is to promote, by all legitimate means, the welfare of the inhabitants of India generally. The objects and policy of the Association are promoted—(1) by providing opportunities for the free public discussion, in a loyal and temperate spirit, of important questions affecting India; (2) by promoting friendly social contact between Indians and English men interested in India; (3) by lectures and the publication of papers or leaflets correcting erroneous or misleading statements about India and its administration; and (4) generally by the promulgation of sound and trustworthy information regarding the many weighty problems which confront the Administrations in India, so that the public may be able to obtain in a cheap and popular form a correct knowledge of Indian affairs. *President:* Lord Lamington. *Hon. Secretary:* F. H. Brown, C.I.E., 3, Victoria Street, S.W. 1.

INDIA DEFENCE LEAGUE.—Formed to oppose the proposals of H. M. Government for Indian Constitutional Reform in King's Court, 48, Broadway, S. W. 1. The White Paper issued in March, 1933. *President:* Viscount Summer. *Secretary:* Mt. P. W. Donner, M.P.

INDIA SOCIETY.—The study of the arts and letters of India, 3, Victoria Street, S.W. 1. *President:* the Marquis of Zetland. *Hon. Secretary:* F. J. P. Richter, M.A.

INDIAN STUDENTS UNION AND HOSTEL.—112, Gower Street, W. C. 1. *Chairman:* Sir Ewart Greaves. *Warden:* A. S. Iman.

INDIA LEAGUE.—(Formerly Commonwealth of India League) to support the claim of India for Swaraj (Self-Rule). 146, Strand, W. C. 2. *Chairman:* Bertrand Russell.

INDIAN EMPIRE SOCIETY.—(Opposed to the Government scheme of All-India Federation but would favour proposals of the Simon Commission, other than the transfer of Law and Order in the provinces). 48, Broadway, S. W. 1. *Secretary:* Sir Louis Stuart, C.I.E.

INDIAN CONCILIATION GROUP.—(Meeting at Friends House, Euston Road, N. W. 1). *Chairman:* Carl Heath.

INDIAN VILLAGE WELFARE ASSOCIATION.—4, Great Smith Street, S.W. 1. (To collect information on and obtain financial support for rural reconstruction) *Hon. Secretary:* Miss A. R. Caton.

INDO-BRITISH MUTUAL WELFARE LEAGUE.—*Joint Hon. Secretaries:* Mrs. Hannah Sen and Mrs. C. Hegler (53, Elsworthy Road, N.W. 3.)

INDIAN GYMKHANA CLUB.—Thornbury Avenue, Osterley. To promote the physical well-being of Indian students. *Secretary:* Captain W. R. B. Berry, 10, King's Bench Wall Temple, E.C. 4.

NATIONAL INDIAN ASSOCIATION.—Chief aims to promote the welfare of students. 21, Cromwell Road, S.W. 7. *Secretary:* Miss Dove.

NORTHBROOK SOCIETY.—Makes grants to deserving Indian students. 21, Cromwell Road, S.W. 7. *Hon. Secretary:* E. Oliver.

ROYAL ASIATIC SOCIETY.—Research in the history and antiquities of Asia. 74, Grosvenor Street, W. 1. *Secretary:* Col. D. M. F. Hoysted, C.B.E., D.S.O.

ROYAL CENTRAL ASIAN SOCIETY.—*President:* Lord Allenby. *Chairman of Council:* Lord Loyd. *Secretary:* Miss M. N. Kennedy, 77, Grosvenor Street, London, W.I.

ROYAL EMPIRE SOCIETY.—Formerly Royal Colonial Institute. Northumberland Avenue, W.C. 2. *Secretary:* George Pilcher.

ROYAL SOCIETY OF ARTS has an Indian section before which lectures are delivered on industrial, historical and commercial questions. 18, John Street, Adelphi, W.C. 2. *Secretary:* G. K. Menzies, C.M.G., M.A. *Secretary, Indian Section:* W. Perry.

ROYAL INSTITUTE OF INTERNATIONAL AFFAIRS, Chatham House, 10, St. James' Square, S.W. 1. *Secretary:* Ivison S. Macadam, O.B.E.

PARSEE ASSOCIATION OF EUROPE.—Zoroastrian House, 11, Russell Road, Olympia, W. 14.

SOCIETY FOR PROMOTING THE STUDY OF RELIGIONS.—*President:* The Marquis of Zetland. *Chairman of Council:* Sir Denison Ross. *Hon. Secretary:* Miss M. M. Sharples (17, Bedford Square, W. C. 1.)

STUDENT CHRISTIAN MOVEMENT OF GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND.—*Secretary:* R. C. Mackie, Annandale, North End Road, Golders Green, N. W. 11.

UNION OF BRITAIN AND INDIA.—Formed to support the proposals of H. M. Government for Indian Constitutional Reform. 15, Caxton House (East), Tothill Street, S.W. 1. *Chairman of Council:* Sir John Thompson, *President:* Viscount Goschen. *Secretary:* Owne Tweedy.

VICTORIA LEAGUE.—81, Cromwell Road, S.W. 7. *Secretary:* Miss Gertrude Drayton, C.B.E.

WOMEN'S INDIAN ASSOCIATION London Committee. 53, Elsworthy Road, N.W. 3. *Joint Hon. Secretaries:* Miss Avabai Mehta and Mrs. C. Haegler.

Sport.

The year under review marked a big advance by India in the field of sport. No less than five international teams were entertained by India and cricket history was made by the visit of the first official M. C. C. team of cricketers and the playing of the first Test match on Indian soil. Indian cricket was paid a big tribute by the M. C. C., in that they sent out, as captain of their side, Mr. D. R. Jardine, one of the greatest skippers who ever led an England eleven, and a man who was born in India. The men Mr. Jardine led were thoroughly representative of English cricket, even if some of the big names were absent, and it was not surprising that India failed to win a Test. She did manage to share the honours in the second game at Calcutta but was fairly and squarely beaten in the other two. To Amarnath, a young all-rounder from the Punjab, fell the honour of making the first century for India in Test cricket and there were scenes of great enthusiasm on the Bombay ground when he reached three figures. India showed that she has cricketers well up to Test match standard.

The year also saw the birth of the Cricket Club of India, from which great hopes are entertained for the future, and the bringing forward of a scheme for a cricket championship of India. The visit of the M. C. C. overshadowed all other cricket and once again the Bombay Quadrangular tournament was held in abeyance.

The inauguration of the Western Asiatic Games, which were held at Delhi and Patiala, is another achievement which goes to the credit of India. Four countries, Afghanistan, Palestine, Ceylon and India participated and some new records were set up during the games, which were organised on Olympic lines and which were attended by H. E. The Viceroy. Some excellent sport was witnessed at these games, which served to emphasise the urgent need of a properly equipped Stadium for the country, especially a good cinder track.

For the first time in the history of hockey India entertained a foreign hockey team, Afghanistan sending a side which played in several centres, but which was beaten by India in the Western Asiatic Games. This was also the first time Afghanistan had entered the field of international sport.

A foreign tennis team also visited India, a team from West Australia, which India proved good enough to beat. Their visit, however, stimulated interest in tennis which is rapidly making progress. Bombay was also fortunate in being able to see F. J. Perry, the famous English player, for a few hours and E. V. Bobb, the Indian champion, took a set off him.

India is rapidly becoming more sport minded and sport in all its branches is becoming a part of the life of the people. Hockey, perhaps, claims the most players, then comes cricket and tennis and more and more are becoming enthusiasts of one or the other, sometimes all three, of these games. Football is played during the Monsoon and this game is growing, the Indian, in Bengal especially, being a very keen soccer enthusiast, while in Bombay, Madras and the Punjab the game is flourishing. It is governed in Bengal by the Indian Football Association in Western India by the Western India Football Association and in the Punjab by the Northern India Football Association. The chief tournaments are the Indian Football Association Shield played in Calcutta, the Rovers Cup played in Bombay and the Durand Cup played in Simla.

Boxing is another sport which has made progress, though the professional side of the sport appears to have practically died out. There are strong amateur boxing associations in Bombay and Calcutta and the Army organise tournaments frequently all over the country.

Athletics suffer because of the entire absence of tracks in any part of the country. There is a dearth of coaches and very little encouragement for the athlete to keep in training as athletic meetings are comparatively few.

The Turf is the one section which has little to worry about. India possesses some of the finest race courses in the world and at Bombay, Calcutta and Madras, which are the three chief centres enormous crowds attend every meeting. Increased encouragement is being given to Indian bred horses, the best stallions and brood mares are imported, and the sport occupies a high place in the recreations of the people. His Excellency The Viceroy has patronised the turf by entering horses at various meetings and some good races have fallen to him. The Indian Princes support to the turf is well known and the Turf Clubs are flourishing.

Polo has been a favourite game in India for centuries and the Jaipur team earned high praise in Europe. The sport, which had been languishing in Western India, received a big filip by the decision of the Western India Turf Club to organise tournaments.

Golf, Rugby Football, and Yachting are the games of the few, though practically every station has its golf course.

A summary of the chief sporting events of the year appears in the following pages.

Racing.

Bangalore.

Madras Cup. Distance 6 furlongs.—
Mr. Annamalai Chettiar's Good Biz (9st. 6lbs.), Dillon 1
Mr. Md. Oomer's Golden Yew (9st. 4lbs.), O'Neale 2
Haji Sir Ismail Sait's Old Buckenham (8st. 11lbs.), Forsyth 3
Mr. Annamalai Chettiar's Hill Flower (9st.), Evans 4
Won by ½ length, 1½ lengths, ¾ length.
Time.—1 min. 16 1-5 secs.

Bobbili Cup (Div. II). Distance 1 mile.—
Mr. S. Hussain's Polish Pride (8st. 7lbs.), Flynn 1
Mr. J. C. Galstaun's Harmonique (7st. 8lbs.), Mendoza 2
Mr. K. Temmolji's Sky Hawk (7st. 7lbs.), McCarthy 3
Mr. K. Viswanath's Abelard (7st. 6lbs.), Alford 4
Won by 2 lengths, ½ length, short head.
Time.—1 min. 42 1-5 secs.

Bobbili Cup (Div. I). Distance 1 mile.—
Mrs. Apcar and Mr. Esson's Snoops (7st. 13lbs.), Bond 1
Mrs. Watchorn and Mr. Murphy's Bonne Tete (9st. 11b.), Dillon 2
Mr. Gem's Essexbrook (8st. 10lbs.), Obaid. 3
H. H. the Maharaja of Mysore's Alcor (8st. 4lbs.), Hoyt 4
Won by 3 lengths, neck, 1¼ lengths.
Time.—1 min. 41 1-5 secs.

The R. C. T. Cup. C. Distance 1 mile, 3 furlongs.—
Mrs. Goldsmith's Jorrocks (7st. 12lbs.), Dillon 1
Mr. M. R. Patel's Frost (8st. 12lbs.), Hoyt. 2
The Countess of Shannon's Corn Flake (8st 8lbs.), Forsyth 3
Mr. T. A. Williamson's Naypan (7st. 12lbs.), Mendonza 4
Won by 4 lengths, neck, 1½ lengths.
Time.—2 mins. 24 1-5 secs.

The Maharaja of Mysore Gold Cup. Distance 1 mile, 3 furlongs.—
Mrs. John Yorke's Trelawne (8st. 13lbs.), Cooper 1
Mrs. Clarke's Ramah (8st. 10lbs.), Southey. 2
Mr. Gem's Essesbrook (8st. 11lbs.), Obaid. 3
Mr. V. L. Govindraj's Helen's Glory (7st. 3lbs.), Black 4
Won by a short head, 1½ lengths, 2 lengths.
Time.—2 mins. 22 1-5 secs.

Stewards Cup. Distance 1 mile, 3 furlongs.—
Mr. H. Kadum's Waivera (8st. 11b.), Obaid. 1
Mr. S. A. Annamalai Chettiar's Brutus (9st. 13lbs.), Forsyth 2
Mrs. Lalitamba's Chanticleer (10st. 7lbs.), Hoyt 3
Lt.-Col. Murray's Telephone (7st.), McCarthy 4
Won by 1½ lengths, a neck, 2½ lengths.
Time.—2 mins. 7 2-5 secs.

Apollo Cup. Distance 1 mile, 3 furlongs.—
Haji Raj Mahomed's Tara (7st. 6lbs.), H. McQuade 1
The Chief of Miraj's Jalal (7st. 13lbs.), Cooper 2
Messrs. H. Jamoor and Diamond's Broker (7st. 8lbs.), Alford 3
Mr. A. M. Khairaz's Fiery Face (8st. 4lbs.), Selby 4
Won by 1 length, ½ length, 1½ lengths.
Time.—2 mins. 38 secs.

Bangalore Cup (Div. II). Distance 6 furlongs.—
Capt. Goldsmith's Indiscreet (7st. 13lbs.), O'Neale 1
H. H. the Maharajah of Mysore's Lignan (9st.), Burgess 2
Mr. Ali Askar's Pamela Mary (8st. 4lbs.), Meekings 3
Mr. P. C. Barna's Tom Fair (9st. 8lbs.), Bond 4
Won by 1 length, 1¼ lengths, 1½ lengths.
Time.—1 min. 14 3-5 secs.

Bangalore Cup (Div. I). Distance 6 furlongs.—
Mrs. Goldsmith's Insult (8st. 12lbs.), Hill 1
Mr. A. Rozario's Camille (8st. 12lbs.) Clarke. 2
Mrs. Apcar's Snoops (9st.), Bond 3
H. H. the Maharaja of Venkatgiri's Queen of Mars (7st. 10lbs.), Setty 4
Won by 1¼ lengths, a neck, a head.
Time.—1 min. 15 secs.

The Yuvaraja of Mysore's Cup. Distance 1 mile, 3 furlongs.—
Mr. Mahmood's Burzan (7st. 10lbs.), McCarthy 1
Mr. Wadia's Kashaf (7st. 12lbs.), B. MacQuade 2
Mr. Taha's Bushboos (9st. 4lbs.), Obaid .. 3
Mr. Khairaz's The Viceroy (9st. 7lbs.), Selby 4
Won by ¾ length, 2 lengths, 3½ lengths.
Time.—2 mins. 40 2-5 secs.

Stayer's Cup. Distance 1½ miles.—
Mr. Hill's Seraphenalia (8st. 7lbs.), Owner. 1
Major C. A. Murray's Jovial William (11st. 7lbs.), Owner 2
Mr. R. B. Macqueen's Jaco (11st. 6lbs.), Owner .. ..
Won by 8 lengths, and head.
Time.—2 mins. 42 4-5 secs.

Haji Sir Ismail Said Cup (Div. I). Distance 1 mile. A handicap for horses in Class IV.—
Mr. T. Williamson' Naypan (7st. 13lbs.), McCarthy 1
Mr. G. L. Lyons' Galactic (9st. 4lbs.), Evans 2
Nawab Banganapalle's Grangewood (8st. 4lbs.), Meekings 3
Mr. Nugent Grant's Raft Duck (8st. 7lbs.), Black 4
Won by 1 length, ½ length and head.
Time.—1 min' 55 secs.

Haji Sir Ismail Sait Cup (Div. II). Distance 1 mile—
Mrs. Nugent Grant's Time Limit (8st. 2lbs.), Black 1
Messrs. Gubbhy and Bagree's Stage Struck (8st. 9lbs.), Selby 2
Mr. A. Paul's Rosenante II (9st.), Evans... 3
Mr. Annamalai Chettiar's Brutus (8st. 7lbs.), Meeking 4
Won by 1½ lengths, short head, 2½ lengths.
Time.—1 mini 44 3-4 secs.

Bangalore Cup (Div. I). Distance 6 furlongs—
Mrs. Goldsmith's Insult (8st. 12lbs.), Hill.. 1
Mr. A. Rozario's Camille (8st. 12lbs.), Clarke 2
Mrs. Apcar's Snoops (9st.), Bond 3
H. H. the Maharaja of Venkatgiri's Queen of Mars (7st. 10lbs.), Setty 4
Won by 1¼ lengths, a neck, a head.
Time.—1 min. 15 secs.

The Yuvaraja of Mysore's Cup. Distance 1 mile, 3 furlongs.—
Mr. Mahmood's Burzan (7st. 10lbs.), McCarthy 1
Mr. Wadia's Kashaf (7st. 12lbs.), B. McQuade 2
Mr. Taha's Bushboos (9st. 4lbs.), Obaid .. 3
Mr. Khairaz's The Viceroy (9st. 7lbs.), Selby 4
Won by ¾ length, 2 lengths, 3½ lengths.
Time.—2 mins. 40 2-5 secs.

Stewards Cup. Distance 1 mile, 3 furlongs.—
Mr. H. Kadum's Waivera (8st. 1lb.), Obaid. 1
Mr. S. A. Annamalai Chettiar's Brutus (9st. 13lbs.), Forsyth 2
Mrs. Lalitamba's Chanticleer (10st. 7lbs.), Hoyt 3
Lt.-Col. Murray's Telephone (7st.), McCarthy 4
Won by 1½ lengths, a neck, 2½ lenghts.
Time.—2 mins. 7 2-5 secs.

Apollo Cup. Distance 1 mile, 3 furlongs.—
Haji Raj Mahomed's Tara (7st. 6lbs.), H. McQuade 1
The Chief of Miraj's Jalal (7st. 13lbs.), Cooper 2
Messrs. H. Jamoor and Diamond's Broker (7st. 8lbs.), Alford 3
Mr. A. M. Khairaz's Fiery Face (8st. 4lbs.), Selby 4
Won by 1 length, ½ length, 1½ lengths.
Time.—2 mins. 38 secs.

Bangalore Cup (Div. II). Distance 6 furlongs.—
Capt. Goldsmith's Indiscreet (7st. 13lbs.), O'Neale 1
H. H. the Maharajah of Mysore's Lignan (9st.), Burgess 2
Mr. Ali Askar's Pamela Mary (8st. 4lbs.), Meekings 3
Mr. P. C. Barna's Tom Fair (9st. 8lbs.), Bond.. 4
Won by 1 length, 1¼ lengths, 1½ lengths.
Time.—1 min. 14 3-5 secs.

Bombay.

The Newbury Plate. Distance 1¼ miles—
Mr. Diamond Lochmore (8st.), Northmore.. 1
Messrs. L. S. Lalvani and K. S. Malkani's Galumph (7st. 7lbs., cd. 8st. 8lbs.), Dillon 2
Mrs. M. Clarke's Dalymount Park (7st. 2lbs., cd. 7st. 5lbs.), Meekings 3
H. H. the Maharaja of Idar Corcy (7st. 8lbs.), Stokes 4
Won by 1½ lengths, 3 lengths, 2 lengths.
Time—2 mins. 8 2-5 secs.

The Cheveley Handicap. Distance 1¼ miles—
H. H. the Maharaja of Rajpipla's Masked Jester (9st.), Bowley 1
Mr. Eve's Risque (8st. 3lbs.), Brace .. 2
Mr. P. B. Avasia's Garcon (7st. 10lbs.), Stokes 3
Mrs. John Yorke's Trelawne (7st. 7lbs.), Doyle 4
Won by 1½ lengths, ¾ length, 2½ lengths.
Time—2 mins. 8 1-5 secs.

The Leopardstown Plate. Distance 1¼ miles—
Messrs. L. S. Lalvani and K. S. Malkani's Galumph (8st. 2lbs.), Dillon 1
Messrs. A. C. Ardeshir and P. D. Bolton's Castleton (9st. 2lbs.), Munroe 2
Mrs. M. Clarke's Dalymount Park (7st. 12lbs.), Meekings 3
Messrs. S. C. Ghosh and Darbari Lal's Tohunga (8st.), Doyle 4
Won by short head, ½ length, 2 lengths.
Time—2 mins. 7 3-5 secs.

The Chief of Kagal Memorial Plate. Distance 7 furlongs—
Sir David Ezra's Fascicle (7st. 7lbs.), Meekings 1
Mr. Diamond's Kum Bak (9st. 7lbs.), Northmore 2
Mr. P. B. Avasia's Garcon (7st. 5lbs.), Raffaele 3
Mr. P. B. Avasia's La Fontaine (9st. 2lbs.), Munroe 4
Won by ½ length, 2 lengths, 2 lengths.
Time—1 min. 25 secs.

The Importers' Plate. Distance 1¼ miles—
H. H. Maharaja of Idar's Corcy (8st. 8lbs.), Obaid 1
Mrs. John York's Trelawne (9st.), Dillon.. 2

H. H. Maharaja of Rajpipla's Shipshape (9st. 4lbs.), Bowley 3
Mr. Eve's Carnelian (8st. 9lbs.), Brace .. 4
Won by head, neck, 3 lengths. Time—2 mins. 41 4-5 secs.

The Eclipse Stakes of India. Distance 1¼ miles—
H. H. Maharaja of Kashmir's Pougatchev (9st. 7lbs.), Carslake 1
Mr. A. C. Ardeshir's Ethics (9st. 7lbs.), Jones 2
Mr. Kelso's Centoi (8st. 10 lbs.), Harding .. 3
Messrs. A. C. Ardeshir and P. D. Bolton's Castleton (8st. 7lbs.), Munro 4
Won by short head, 1½ lengths, 2½ lengths. Time—2 mins. 6 1-5 secs.

The General Obaidullah Khan Memorial Gold Cup. Distance 1¼ miles—
Mr. A. C. Ardeshir's Hamiyah (8st. 12lbs.), Dillon 1
Mr. Sultan M. Chinoy's Al Hamil (9st.), Obaid 2
Mr. Sion F. Nessim's Arab Queen (9st.), Selby 3
Mr. A. Lookmanji's Darianoor (9st.), Burn .. 4
Won by 3 lengths, 2 lengths, 1 length. Time—2 mins. 19 4-5 secs.

The Durdans Plate. Distance 1 mile—
H. H. the Maharaja of Rajpipla's Wall Street (7st. 10lbs.), Selby 1
Mr. Byramjee Rustomjee Jnr.'s Ootman (8st. 11lbs.), Dillon 2
Mr. P. B. Avasia's Garcon (7st. 10lbs.), Burn 3
Mr. Sultan M. Chinoy's Celebrator (8st., cd. 8st. 2lbs.), Obaid 4
Won by 5 lengths, neck, 2 lengths. Time—1 min. 38 3-5 secs.

The York Plate. Distance about 1½ miles—
H. H. the Maharaja of Rajpipla's Melesigenes (7st. 13lbs.), Selby 1
A. H. Johnstone's St. Koscie (9st. 2lbs.), Lawrey 2
Mr. Diamond's Galloping Major (8st. 7lbs.), Northmore 3
H. H. Maharaja of Idar's Corcy (8st. 12lbs.), Obaid 4
Won by head, 3 lengths, ¾ length. Time—2 mins. 41 1-5 secs.

The Ayrshire Plate. Distance 1 mile, 1 furlong—
Mr. Eve's Carnelian (7st. 5lbs.), Meekings .. 1
H. H. the Maharaja of Kolhapur's Myron (7st. 8lbs.), Stokes 2
H. H. the Maharaja of Rajpipla's Masked Jester (9st. 4lbs.), Bowley 3
Mr. V. Rosenthal's Manipulator (7st. 7lbs., cd. 7st. 9lbs.) Lowrey 4
Won by 2½ lengths, short head, 3 lengths. Time—1 min. 54 ⅘ secs.

The Perth Plate. Distance 1½ miles—
H. H. the Maharaja of Rajpipla's Melesigenes (8st. 9lbs.), Selby 1
H. H. the Maharaja of Rajpipla's Shipshape (9st. 7lbs.), Bowley 2
Mr. Gem's Chabootra (7st. 4lbs. cd. 7st. 7lbs.), Evans 3
Mr. Diamond's Galloping Major (8st. 10lbs.), Northmore 4
Won by 1½ lengths, neck, 1½ lengths. Time—2 mins. 40 2/5 secs.

The Hughes Memorial Plate. Distance 1¼ miles—
Mr. A. C. Ardeshir's Ethics (9st.), Jones .. .. } Dead
H. H. the Maharaja of Rajpipla's Masked Jester (8st. 7lbs.), Bowley. } Heat 1
H. H. the Maharaja of Rajpipla's Highness (8st.), Selby 3
Nawabzada Fakr-ul-mulk's Glenalmond (8st. 7lbs.), Northmore 4
Dead-heat, neck, 3 lengths. Time—2 mins. 6 1-5 secs.

The Bombay Arab Derby. Distance about 1½ miles—
Mr. A. C. Ardeshir's Hamiyah (9st. 8lbs.), Dillon 1
Mr. Sultan Chinoy's Al Hamil (9st. 7lbs.), Obaid 2
Mr. A. A. Ali bin Talib's Saifuldowla (8st. 12lbs.), Bowley 3
Mr. A. M. Khairaz's Fiery Face (7st. 8lbs.), McCarthy 4
Won by 2 lengths, 2 lengths, 2 lengths. Time—2 mins. 59 3-5 secs.

The Jammu Cup. Distance 6 furlongs—
Mr. A. M. Khairaz's Redress (9st.), Selby .. 1
Mr. Eve's Knight at Arms (8st. 3lbs.), Brace. 2
Maharaj Mansingh of Jaswantgarh's Cartoon (9st. 5lbs.), Northmore 3
Mr. P. B. Avasia's Belle of York (7st. 13lbs.), Evans 4
Won by ½ length, ½ length, 2½ lengths. Time—1 min. 15 1-5 secs.

The Rajpipla Gold Cup. Distance 1 mile—
Messrs. J. Reynolds and J. T. Rogers' Goolash (7st. 8lbs.), Meekings 1
Mr. Byramjee Rustomjee, Junior's Costaki Pasha (8st. 3lbs.), Dillon 2
Major-General Nawab Khusru Jung's El Draque (7st. 10lbs.), A. C. Walker .. 3
Mr. Eve's Star of Italy (9st. 7lbs.), C. Hoyt. 4
Won by ½ length, ½ length, neck. Time—1 min. 38 3-5 secs.

The Malabar Hill Plate. Distance 6 furlongs—
Captain E. A. Elgee and Mr. G. V. Williamson's Tel Asur (9st.), Munroe 1
H. H. the Maharaja of Kashmir's Cospatrick (7st. 4lbs.), McCarthy 2
Mr. Shantidas Askuran's Einga (7st. 13lbs.), Raffaele 3
Mr. Diamond's Kum Bak (9st. 7lbs.), Northmore 4
Won by 3¼ lengths, ½ length, 1½ lengths. Time—1 min. 13 1-5 secs.

The Grand Western Handicap. Distance 1¼ miles—
Mrs. John York's Trelawne (7st. 6lbs., cd. 7st. 8lbs.), Dillon 1
H. H. the Viceroy's Complet (8st. 3lbs.), A. C. Walker 2
Mr. J. J. Murphy's Bray Beau (8st. 4lbs.), Burn 3
H. H. Maharaja of Kolhapur's Argus (7st.), Stokes 4
Won by 1 length, short head, neck. Time—2 mins. 7 3-5 secs.

The Druids Lodge Handicap. Distance 7 furlongs—
Mr. Byramjee Rustomjee, Junior's Costaki Pasha (8st. 4lbs.), Dillon 1
Hon'ble Sir H. M. Mehta's The Dawn Patrol (6st. 10lbs.), McCarthy 2
Mr. P. B. Avasia's La Fontaine (8st. 6lbs.), Obaid 3
Mr. J. Crawford's Vamos (8st.), M. Hoyt .. 4
Won by ½ length, 4 lengths, 1½ lengths. Time—1 min. 25 3-5 secs.

The Idar Cup. Distance 1 mile—
Maharaj Mansingh of Jaswantgarh's Cartoon (8st. 5lbs.), Northmore 1
Mr. N. E. Raymond's Pomagne (8st. 11lbs.), Jones 2
Mr. A. M. Khairaz's Redress (8st. 11lbs.), Selby 3
H. H. Maharaja of Kashmir's Truro (9st. 4lbs.), M. Hoyt 4
Won by 4 lengths, ½ length, 3½ lengths. Time—1 min. 43 1-5 secs.

The Colaba Cup (Div. 11.) Distance 1 mile—
H. H. the Maharaja of Kolhapur's Four Kings (7st. 6lbs.), Stokes 1
Capt. J. A. C. O'Hara and Major C. M. Foster's Golden Cross (8st. 2lbs.), Lowrey. 2
Mr. P. B. Avasia's Glen Gowan (7st. 8lbs.), Evans 3
Hon'ble Sir H. M. Mehta's Ternlet (8st. 6lbs.), Blyth 4
Won by short head, short head, 1½ lengths. Time—1 min. 40 2-5 secs.

The Willingdon Plate. Distance 1 mile—
H. H. the Maharaja of Kolhapur's Grand Wazir (7st. 12lbs., cd. 7st. 13lbs.), Dobie. 1
Mr. P. B. Avasia's Garcon (7st. 5lbs., cd. 7st. 10lbs.), Burn 2
H. H. the Maharaja of Rajpipla's Spinners Cottage (8st. 2lbs.), Selby 3
Major-General Nawab Khusru Jung's El Draque (7st. 12lbs.), Walker 4
Won by head, ¾ length, 2 lengths. Time—1 min. 41 2-5 secs.

The Colaba Cup. (Div. I). Distance 1 mile—
H. H. the Maharaja of Rajpipla's Invercannie (8st. 3lbs.), Selby 1
H. E. the Viceroy's Cardsharper (8st. 7lbs.), A. C. Walker 2
The Thakore Saheb of Wadhwan and Lt.-Col. Zorawar Singh's Iran (7st. 7lbs.), Stokes 3
Messrs. S. C. Ghosh and Darbari Lal's Tohunga (8st.), Burn 4
Won by 1½ lengths, 1 length, neck. Time—1 min. 40 secs.

The C. N. Wadia Gold Cup. Distance about 1½ miles—
Mr. Eve's Star of Italy (9st. 8lbs.), C. Hoyt. 1
Mr. A. C. Ardeshir's Ethics (9st.), Jones .. 2
H. H. the Maharaja of Rajpipla's Highness (8st. 11lb.), Selby 3
Mr. J. J. Murphy's Bray Beau (9st. 11lb.), Burn 4
Won by 1 length, ½ length, 2½ lengths. Time—2 mins. 42 3-5 secs.

The Mansfield Plate. Distance 6 furlongs—
Mr. Byramjee Rustomjee's Costaki Pasha (8st. 9lbs.), Dillon 1
H. H. the Maharaja of Kolhapur's Whoopee (7st.), Stokes 2
Sir David Ezra's Fascicle (7st. 9lbs.), Meekings 3
Mr. A. Hoyt's Gay Day (6st. 12lbs.), McCarthy 4
Won by 2½ lengths, 1½ lengths, short head. Time—1 min. 13 1-5 secs.

The Byculla Club Cup. Distance 1¾ miles—
H. H. the Maharaja of Rajpipla's Highness (7st. 9lbs.), Selby 1
Mr. A. C. Ardeshir's Ethics (8st. 11lbs.), Munroe 2
Messrs. L. S. Lalvani and K. S. Malkani's Galumph (7st. 3lbs., cd. 7st. 5lbs.), Meekings 3
Mr. Eve's Star of Italy (9st. 7lbs.), C. Hoyt. 4
Won by 4 lengths, ½ length, ¾ length. Time—3 mins. 3 1-5 secs.

The Lloyd Handicap (Div. II.) Distance 1 mile—
Hon'ble Sir H. M. Mehta's Ternlet (8st. 10lbs.), Blyth 1
Mr. N. Begmahomed's Follow Me (7st 13lbs.), Marrable 2
H. H. Maharaja of Kolhapur's Four Kings (8st. 3lbs.), Stokes 3
Mr. P. B. Avasia's Glen Gowan (8st. 3lbs.), Evans 4
Won by neck, 2 lengths, ½ length. Time—1 min. 40 1-5 secs.

The Lloyd Handicap (Div. I.) Distance 1 mile—
H. H. Maharaja of Kolhapur's Berrydale (7st. 7lbs., cd. 7st. 8lbs.), Dillon 1
Mr. Eve's Risque (8st. 7lbs.), Brace .. 2
H. H. Maharaja of Kolhapur's Grand Wazir (8st. 12lbs.), Dobie 3
Major General Nawab Khusru Jung's El Draque (8st. 3lbs.), Walker 4
Won by 1½ lengths, neck, head. Time—1 min. 40 secs.

The Turf Club Cup. Distance 1¾ miles—
Mr. A. Hoyt's Orient (7st. 5lbs.), Graham .. 1
Mr. H. M. Mahomed's Collector (6st. 12lbs., cd. 7st. 4lbs.), Meekings 2
Mr. A. Lookmanji's Darianoor (9st. 2lbs.), Evans 3
Mr. Sion F. Nessim's Thair al Iraq (9st.), Selby 4
Won by ¾ length, 4 lengths, 1 length. Time—3 mins. 22 3-5 secs.

The Good-bye Plate. Distance 1 mile.—
H. H. the Maharaja of Kolhapur's Jaya-Kumar II (7 st. 13lbs.), Stokes 1
Mr. Kelso's Moti Koh (7st. 13lbs.), Harding 2
Mr. Eve's Insomnia (7st. 3lbs.), Graham .. 3
Mr. A. C. Ardeshir's Zarane (8st. 4lbs.), Munro 4
Won by 1½ lengths, 2 lengths, 1½ lengths. Time—1 min. 40 secs.

The Final Plate. Distance about 1½ miles.—
Mr. Sayid Mahomed's Vita (7st. 11lbs.), Samdan 1
S. S. Akkasaheb Maharaj's Tamin 7st. 11lbs.), Whiteside 2
Nawabzada Yemin-ul-Mulk's Victor (9st.) Northmore 3
Mr. N. Rupchand's Mu'ayad (7st. 4 lbs.), Graham 4
Won by 3 lengths, 1 length, 8 lengths. Time—2 min. 56 1-5 secs.

The Second Dealer's Plate. Distance 1 mile—
Mr. Fahad Rummah's Rajput (8st. 4 lbs.), Whiteside 1
Mr. K. Ardeshir's Abdul Malik (9st. 4lbs.), Blyth 2
Mr. Hoosein Alwan's Karam Allah (9st. 3lbs.), Selby 3
Mr. Ayub Asad's Legion of Honour (7st. 11lbs.), Simmons 4
Won by ¾ length, 1 length, short head. Time—1 min. 51 1-5 secs.

The Northumberland Plate. Distance 2 miles—
Mr. L. Musry's Bucentaur (8st. 4lbs.), Munro 1
Mr. E. S. Godfrey's Monreale (7st. 7lbs. cl. 7st. 9lbs.), Selby 2
Mrs. John York's Trelawne (9st. 3lbs.) Bowley 3
SS. Akkasaheb Maharaj's Rhonius (7st. 4lbs.), Whiteside 4
Won by 1 length, 3 lengths, 1 length. Time—mins. 34 1-5 secs.

The Aga Khan's Cup Distance 1¼ miles—
H.H. the Maharaja of Rajpipla's Invergnie (8st. 6lbs.), Selby 1
Mess. S. C. Ghosh and Darbari Lal's Tunga (7st. 5lbs.), Whitside 2
Mr Eve's Pharaoh III (9st. 4lbs.), Brace .. 3
Mr. J. Crawford's Vamos (9st. 4lbs.), M. Hoyt 4
Won by head, 1 length, 1 length. Time—2 mins. 5 2-5 secs.

The Mentmore Handicap. Distance 1 mile—
Mr. Eve's Pharaoh *III* (8st.), Brace .. 1
Mr. P. B. Avasia's La Fontaine (8st. 9lbs.), Burn 2
Mr. Byramjee Rustomjee (Jnr.)'s Ootman (8st.), Dillon 3
H. H. the Maharaja of Rajpipla's Spinner's Cottage (8st. 7lbs.), Selby 4
Won by head, 2½ lengths, head. Time—1 min. 38 4-5 secs.

Calcutta.

Wellesley Plate. Distance about 1¼ miles—
Mr. A. C. Ardesher's Ethics (9st.), Jones 1
H. H. the Maharaja of Kashmir's Pougatchev (9st. 6lbs.), Carslake .. 2
Mr. J. J. Murphy's Bray Beau (9st. 7lbs.), M. O'Neale 3
Mr. G. L. Lyon's Compris (9st.), Warren .. 4
Won by 1½ lengths, 2 lengths. Time—2 mins. 8 4-5 secs.

Sivaganga Cup. Distance 6 furlongs—
Mrs. Lalithamba's Chanson (9st.), Hill .. 1
Mr. S. A. S. Annamalai Chetiar's Brutus (9st. 2lbs.), Burgess 2
Mr. Dara Cowasjee's Old Star (9st. 4lbs.), Martin 3
Mr. Lalvani's Orphan (9st. 9lbs.), Behsman 4
Won by a shot head, ½ length, 1 length. Time—1 min. 17 secs.

The Viceroy's Cup. Distance (about) 1¾ miles—
Mr. Eve's Star of Italy (9st. 3lbs.), C. Hoyt 1
Mr. Ardeshir's Ethics (9st. 2 lbs.), Jones 2
Mr. Edward Esmond's Sans Ame (9st. 3lbs.), Marland 3
Sir David Ezra's Spenser (9st.), B. Rosen .. 4
Won by half length, 3 lengths, 2 lengths. Time—3 mins. 1-2/5 secs.

Grand Annual. Distance (about) 2 miles—
Mr. C. D. Booth's French Phil (9st. 13lbs.), Hardcastle 1
Major-General H. K. Bethell's 2 Jujube, Baker 2
Mr. Mascott's Last Look (9-0 cd. 9st. 4lbs.) Regan 3
Mr. Sedaqut Hussain's Dawn of Hope (9st. 3lbs.), Ermer 4
Won by 3½ engths, 4 length, 1½ length. Time—3 mins. 3-4 1/5 secs.

Merchants' Cup. Distance (about) 1¼ miles—
Mrs. C. M. Stewart's Golden Carp (9st. 4lbs.), Bartlam 1
Mrs. A. H. C. Rostron's Kama (7st. 7lbs.), Flzan 2
H. H. the Maharajah of Kolhapur's Golden Grace (8st. 11lbs.), Jones 3
Mrs. H. Musry's Bucentaur (8st. 8lbs.), Evans 4
Won by 1 length, 1½ lengths, 1½ lengths. Time—2mins. 35 2-5secs.

Burdwan Cup. Distance (about) 1¾ miles—
Maj.-Genl. H. K. Bethell's Jujube (11st. 3lbs.), Baker 1
Prince Aly Khan's Nijinski (10st. 3lbs.), Regons 2
Mr. R. K. Bowie's Rascal Monk (10st. 7lbs.), Field 3
H. H. the Maharajah of Kolhapur's Mahasagar (10st. 7lbs.), Ermer 4
Won by 3 lengths, 3 lengths, 4 lengths. Time—3mins. 22secs.

King Emperor's Cup. Distance (about) 1 mile—
Mr. Edward Esmond's Sans Ame (9st. 3lbs.), Marland 1
Mr. A. C. Ardeshir's Ethics (9st. 3 lbs.), Munro 2
Capt. Elge and Mr. Williamson's Tel Asur (9st. 3lbs.), Jones 3
H. H. the Maharajah of Kashmir's Pougatchei (9st. 3lbs.), Carslake 4
Won by short head, head, 1½ lengths. Time—1min. 39 3-5secs.

MacPherson Cup. Distance about 1½ miles—
Mr. MacScott, Irish Times (7st. 13lbs.), Christie 1
Mrs. A. H. C. Rostron's Kama (7st. 4lbs.), Flynn 2
Mrs. G. Anthony's Fanande (8st.), Walsh .. 3
Mrs. C. M. Stewart's Golden Carp (8st. 9lbs.), Bartlam 4
Won by a head, a neck, 1½ lengths. Time—2 mins. 36 4-5 secs.

Amateur Hurdle Race. Distance about 1¾ miles.—
Maj. A. Hodgin's Argenson (11st. 10lbs.), Mr. Edwards 1
Mr. W. T. Vizer-Harmer's Pabulator (10st. 5lbs.), Mr. Jeffrey 2
Mr. C. S. Steele-Perkins' Yorke Town (11st. 12lbs.), Mr. Booth 3
Mr. R. L. C. Foohit's Determined Ken (10st. 8lb., cd. 10st. 9lbs.), Capt. Tophan .. 4
Won by 10 lengths, 3 lengths, 6 lengths. Time.—3 mins. 22 2-5 secs.

August Cup (Div. II.). Distance 1 mile and 3 furlongs.—
Mr. L. W. Joseph's Trapoi (8st. 4lbs.), Holland 1
Maj. F. M. Kirwan's Flop (8st. 4lbs.), Rylands 2
Mr. C. R. Blake's Air Pet (8st. 3lbs.), Cullen 3
Maj.-Gen. H. K. Nethell's Clara Putten (9st. 2lbs.), Baker 4
Won by ¾ length, 1½ lengths, ½ length. Time.—2 mins. 34 2-5 secs.

August Cup Div. I. Distance 1 mile and 3 furlongs.—
Messrs. Gubbay and Bagru's Stage Struck (9st. 7lbs.), Riby 1
Mrs. A. M. Nasseh's Little Mary (7st. 7lbs.), Holland 2
Mrs. B. Louer's Jack's Wink (8st. 12lbs.), Flynn 3
Mr. C. F. Bloss's Maid of Honour (8st. 13lb.) Glennons 4
Won by 1½ length, 1 length, ½ length Time.—2 mins. 32 secs.

Monsoon Cup. Distance about 1 mile 3 furlongs.—
Maj.-Gen. H. K. Bethell's Jujube (8st. 11lbs.), Baker 1
Mr. Sedaqut Hussain's Polish Pride (10st. 3lbs.), Jocky 2
Mr. Pannick's Silvadare (7st. 10lbs.), Holland 3
Lt.-Col. W. R. Elliot's Warrego (9st. 2lbs.) Marland 4
Won by 2 lengths, 1½ lengths, ½ length. Time.—2 mins. 24 4-5 secs.

Thaddeus Cup. Distance about 7 furlongs.—
Capt. Elgee and Mr. Williamson's Tel Asur (9st. 8lbs.), Jones 1
Mr. A. Hoyt's Private Seal (9st. 2 lbs.), C. Hoyt 2
Sir Osborne Smith's Hel of a Lot (7st. 12 lbs.), D. Rosen 3
H. H. the Maharaja of Kolhapur's Grand Wazir (8st. 11lbs.), Raffaele 4
Won by short head, 1½ lengths. Time—1 min. 26 2/5 secs.

The New Year Plate. Distance 1 mile 1 furlong.—
Mr. Visvanadh's Abelard (7st. 11lbs. S. Black 1
H. E. Sir George Stanley's Corviglia (7st. 3lbs.), H. Black 2
Rajah of Parlakimedi's Triple Crown (8st. 9lbs.), Davidson 3
Mr. Rozario's Avalon (8st. 3lbs.), Cooper .. 4
Won by length, ¾ length, 1½ length. Time—1min. 56 4/5secs.

The Deomar Cup. Distance 1 mile.—
Mr. Thammiah's Yanoos (7st. 12lbs. Cooper 1
Mr. Yaha's Chabookchi (8st. 7lbs.), Forsyt 2
The Dowagar Maharani of Kolhapur Virkumar (7st. 9lbs.), Whiteside .. 3
Mr. Shamian's Sabhanoor (8st.), Jabb Najin 4
Won by ¾ length, 1½ lengths, ne Time.—1min. 54 3/5secs

Carmichael Cup. Distance about 1¼ miles.—
H. H. the Maharaja of Kashmir's Pougatchev (9st. 11lb.), Carslake .. 1
Mr. Eve's Star of Italy (9st. 6lbs.), C. Hoyt. 2
H. H. the Maharaja of Kolhapur's Grand Wazir (9st. 11lb.), Jones 3
Mr. J. J. Murphy's Bray Beau (9st. 11lb.), Raffaele 4
Won by a short head, 3 lengths, 2½ lengths. Time.—2mins. 7secs.

Beresford Cup. Distance about 1¾ miles.—
Messrs. Gubbay and Bagree's Stage Struck (8st. 4lbs.), Field 1
Mr. A. H. C. Rostron's Balmy Prince (8st. 3lbs.), Ermer 2
Mr. K. Basu's King Finch (7st. 6lbs.), Flynn. 3
Sir D. Ezra and Mr. Ailkamn's Steer Clear (7st. 4lbs.), Christie 4
Won by ¾ length, ¾ length, 1¼ lengths. Time.—3mins. 3 1/5 secs.

Governor's Cup. Distance about 1⅞ miles.—
H. E. the Viceroy's Complet (8st. 3lbs.), Walker 1
Mr. M. A. C. Scott's Irish Times (7st. 6lbs.), Christie 2
Mr. A. Hoyt's Blackette (7st. 10lbs.), C. Hoyt 3
Mrs. C. M. Stewart's Golden Carp (8st. 9lbs.), Bartlam 4
Won by a short head, 3 lengths, 1½ lengths. Time.—3mins. 4secs.

Ronaldshay Cup. Distance about 6 furlongs.
H. H. the Maharaja of Kashmir's Pougatchev (9st. 7lbs.), Carslake .. 1
Sir David Ezra's Fascicle (8st. 7lbs.), Bartlam 2
Capt. J. Crawford's Yanos (8st. 7lbs.), M. Hoyt 3
Mr. G. E. Nahapiet's Ramilies (8st.), Bezant. 4
Won by a head, a short head, a short head. Time.—1min. 14 3/5secs.

February Hurdle Plate. Distance about 1½ miles—
Mr. P. Pogose's Belle Legend (9st. 2lbs.), Ermer 1
Major General H. K. Bethell's Don Patrick (10st. 4lbs.), Baker 2
Mr. H. M. Thaddeus's Southerner (10st. 1lb.), Riley 3
Messrs. Bhatter and Poddar's Alfa Romeo (9st. 4lbs., cd. 9st. 6lbs.), Regan 4
Won by a neck, ¾ length, ½ length. Time—2 mins. 45 4-5 secs.

Final Plate. Distance (about 7 furlongs.—
Mr. R. F. Alexander's Silter (8st. 7lbs.)., Ermer 1
Mr. V. J. Monsour's Norroy (8st. 10lbs.), Edwards 2
Mr. H. M. Thaddeus's Belterzo (9sts.), Brond 3
Messrs. Varma and Capt. Goldsmith's Greek Margaret (8st. 6lbs.), Flynn 4
Won by a head, 1¼ lengths, short head. Time—1min. 28 4-5secs.

Colombo.

Governor's Cup Distance 1 mile. 3 furlongs—
Mr. G. L. Lyon's Compris (9st. 3lbs.), Warren 1
Mrs. G. N. G. Walles's Yuwill (9st. 3lbs.), Williams 3
Mr. G. L. Lyon's Chatternach (9st. 3lbs.), Williams 3
Mr. G. Fellows' and Major A. J. S. Fetherston Haugh's Bissful (9st. 3lbs .), Burgess 4
Won by 3 length, 2½ lengths. Time.—2 min. 32 4-5 secs.

Robert's Cup. Distance 1 mile.—
Mr. Douglas's Manik (9st. 1lbs.), Marrs .. 1
Mr. S. Muthukumaraswami's Balloon (8st.), H. Black 2
Mr. Chandra's Raham (7st. 4lbs.), Bell .. 3
Mr. R. K. Menon's Statesman (8st. 1lbs.) B. Rosen 4
Won by 1½ lengths. 1 length. Time.—1 min. 53 2-5 secs.

Bandaranaike Cup. Distance 5 furlongs 23 yards.—
Mr. A. C. Abdeen's Swindler (7st.), B. Rosen 1
Mr. G. L. Lyon's Fairdoss (7st. 6lbs.), Warren 2
Mr. Douglas's Alder II (7st. 8lbs.), Williams. 3
Mr. Dhanoon bin Yusuff's Bahiz Pasha (9st. 6bs.), Burgess 4
Won by a head, 1 length. Time.—1 min. 11 4-5 secs.

Colombo Cup. Distance 1 mile. 3 Furlongs.—
Mr. P. J. Stanley's Trickster (7st. 12lbs.), Warren 1
Capt. Fenwick's Star of India (7st. 6lbs.), B. Rosen 2
Mr. G. R. Krishna's Star of Ceylon (9st.), Baker 3
Mr. Douglas's Wise Morn (7st. 8lbs.), Ward. 4
Won by 2 lengths, a neck. Time.—2 mins. 31 secs.

Galle Cup. Distance 1½ miles—
Capt. Fenwick's Forfeit (7st.), B. Rosen.. 1
Miss Brenda Samarasinghe's Gabelone (7st. 4lbs.), Bell 2
Mr. C. A. Laing's White Cross (8st. 6lbs.), Townsend 3
Mrs. A. Sellamuttu's Bristol Fleet (7st.), Black 4
Won by 1½ lengths, 1 length. Time.—2 mins. 38 secs.

Madras Cup. Distance 1¼ miles—
Mr. P. J. Stanley's Sunaidan (9st. 4lbs.), Warren 1
Mr. Douglas' Manik (9st. 8lbs.), Marrs .. 2
Mr. E. Hazamy's Shahzaman (7st. 4lbs.), Baker 3
Mr. Chandra's Raham (7st. 2lbs.), B. Rosen. 4
Won by ½ length and neck. Time.—2 mins. 56 4-5 secs.

De Soysa Cup. Distance 1¼ miles.—
Mr. C. A. Laing's Tawfig (7st. 7lbs.), Townsend 1
Mr. Rigel's Waheed (8st. 9lbs.), Baker .. 2
Mr. H. Robert's Hercules (7st. 13lbs.), Wreghit 3
Mr. F. Fenwick's Certain (7st.), Japheth .. 4
Won by 4 lengths, 1½ lengths. Time—2mins. 22 3/5secs.

Governor's Bowl. Distance 1¼ miles.—
Mrs. W. B. Bartlet's Cairngorm (8st. 1lb.), Hutchins 1
Mr. C. A. Laing's White Cross (7st.), Townsend 2
Mrs. F. Fenwick's Sorriso (7st.), Baker .. 3
Capt. F. Fenwick's Forfeit (7st.), W. Silva .. 4
Won by 1¼ lengths, 1 length. Time—2mins. 6 3/5 secs.

Manning Cup. Distance 1 mile—
Mr. A. C. Abdeen's May Queen (7st. 1 lb.), Black 1
Mrs. G. N. G. Walle's Yuwill (9st. 3 lbs.), Southey 2
Mr. G. L. Lyon's Chatternach (7st. 4lbs.), J. Rosen 3
Mr. G. Pereira's The Sultan (7st. 13lbs.), Black 4
Won by 1¼ lengths, 1½ lengths. Time—1min. 43 2-5secs.

Ceylon Turf Club Cup. Distance 1 mile—
Mr. W. B. Bartlet's Oniseed (9st. 3 lbs.), Marrs 1
Mr. C. A. Laing's Whitecross (8st. 12lbs.), Townsend 2
Messrs. R. C. Boustead and C. R. Collisson's Mount Alice (8st. 5lbs.), J. Rosen .. 3
Mr. Douglas' Deestreet (8st. 4lbs.), Hutchins 4
Won by a neck, ½ length. Time—1min. 41 4/5 secs.

Challenge Cup—
Colombo beat Madras by 1 length.

Karachi.

Rattanchand Fattechand Cup. Distance 1¼ miles—
Mr. G. Alibhoy's Fakrulzaman (9st.), Obaid 1
Seth Goosainbhoy's Hawi (7st. 13lbs.), Subeya 2
Seth Moosa's Atlantic (8st. 5lbs.), S. Black . 3
Mr. M. Contractor's Jinnet (8st. 4lbs.), Akbar Ali 4
Won by 1¼ lengths. 1 length. 2 lengths. Time.—2 mins. 59 1-5 secs.

Kolhapur.

R. R. S. Cup. Distance 6 furlongs—
Mrs. A. Higgins' Fight Fair (7st. 13lbs.), H. McQuade 1
H. H. the Maharaja of Kolhapur's Avalon (7st. 7lbs.), Bhima Rao 2
Mr. V. Rosentha's Grey Cloud (9st.), Dall Acqua 3
Mr. R. Higgins Phaltaneran (8st. 5lbs.), Alford 4
Won by 1 length, a neck a neck.—Time 1 min. 15 1-5 secs.

Shri Shahu Maharaja Memorial Cup. Distance 1 mile—
Mr. G. McElligot's Roi De Montagne (8st. 5lbs.), Behsman 1
Messrs. R. Higgins and G. McElligott's Long Reign (9st. 3lbs.), H. McQuade .. 2
Dowager Maharani of Kolhapur's Eliza's Star (7st. 10lbs.), Harding 3
H. H. the Maharaja of Kolhapur's Bridgethorn (7st. 10lbs.), Stokes .. 4
Won by ½ length, a short head. ½ length. Time.—1 min. 41 2-5 secs.

Sir Leslie Wilson Cup. Distance 1¼ miles—
H. H. the Maharaja of Kolhapur's Narayen (8st. 2lbs.), Forsyth 1
Messrs. Hamid Jamoor and Diamond's Broker (9st. 9lbs.), Dall Acqua 2
Dowager Maharani of Kolhapur's Adhba II (9st. 3lbs.), Harding 3
Mr. R. Kashibhoy's Karim Beg (8st. 3lbs.), Bhimrao 4
Won by short head short head. ½ length. Time.—2 mins. 24 1-5 secs.

Maharaja Cup. Distance 1¼ miles—
Meherban Rao Bahadur D. A. Surve's Bridgethorn (7st. 8lbs.), Stokes 1
Messrs. R. Higgin's and G. McElligott's Long Reign (9st. 7lbs.), H. McQuade .. 2
Dowager Maharani of Kolhapur's Eliza's Star (7st. 10lbs.), Harding 3
Mr. C. Temoolji's Sky Hawk (7st. 9lbs.), Behsman 4
Won by ¾ length. ¾ length. 1 length. Time.—2 mins. 13 1-5 secs.

Shri Shivaji Maharaja Commemoration Cup. Distance 1 mile.—
The Maharaja of Kolhpaur's Hosewater (10st. 12lbs.), Forysth 1
The Dowager Maharani of Kolhapur's Shiva Prasad 2
The Akkasaheb Maharaja's Saloon (10st.) 3
Won by ½ length and ¾ length. Time.—1 min. 49 secs.

S. S. Akkasaheb Maharaj Cup. Distance 1¼ miles—
Dowager Maharani of Kolhapur's Shiva-Prasad (7st. 3lbs.), Alford 1
H. H. the Maharaja of Kolhapur's Rose-water (10st. 12lbs.), Frosyth 2
Dowager Maharani of Kolhapur's Saloon (9st. 7lbs.), Harding 3
Won by neck. ¾ length. Time.—2 mins. 14 1-5 secs.

Aaisaheb Maharaj Cup. Distance 1¼ miles —
Chief of Miraj's (Jr.) Jalal (8st.), Harding. Dead heat
Mr. H. C. H. Jusab's Faraj Pasha (7st. 10lbs.) Fletcher .. .. heat 1
Mr. L. S. Laivani's Regard (9st.), Forsyth .. 3
Mr. F. H. Claridge's Kurdi (7st. 13lbs.), Stokes 4
Won by dead heat. 2 lengths and neck.
Time.—2 mins. 23 1-5 secs.

Lahore.

Jammu Cup. Distance (about) 5 furlongs—
Mr. S. Bhagatsingh and Mr. S. Kehar Singh's Spartan Queen (8st. 7lbs.), Purtoosingh .. 1
Capt. R. K. Garrow's Hush-a-Bye (9st. 9lbs.), J. M. Bernard 2
Messrs. H. O. Hay and R. N. Shah's Little Welsh (8st. 11lbs.), Tymon 3
Mr. S. Bhagatsingh's Pawan (7st.), Ghasita. 4
Won by half a length, neck and half a length.
Time—1min. 3 4-5secs.

roduce Cup. Distance (about) 6 furlongs—
Mrs. K. R. Mehra's Cheil (8st. 3lbs.), J. J. Wallace 1
Capt. J. M. Bernard's Sugar Daddy (9st. 11b.), Owner 2
Mr. J. M. MacGregor's Barbarian (8st. 3lbs.), E. Roxburgh 3
Sir Henry Craik and Mr. R. G. Saule's Young Minx (8st.), Leeson 4
Won by a neck, neck and 1½ lengths.
Time—1min. 16 4-5secs.

Indian Grand National. Distance (about 3 miles—
Mr. P. M. H. Edward's Donore (11st. 4lbs.), Owner 1
Mr. R. K. Bowie's Night Jar (12 st. 7lbs.), Capt. G. H. B. Wood 2
Mr. C. P. Sherston's Varplum (9st. 9lbs.), Major Davy 3
Capt. Wheeler's Rejection (10st. 9lbs.), carried 10st. 10lbs. Owner 4
Won by a distance, 6 lengths, and 1 length.
Time—6mins. 15 2-5secs.

Stewards' Cup. Distance (about) 1 mile—
Mr. Kashi Charan's Lisallen (9st. 11lbs.), J. J. Wallace 1
Major A. Hodgin's Trapoi (8st.), Holland .. 2
Capt. J. M. Bernard's Popcorn (8st. 11lbs.), Balfour 3
Kumar Udai Partapsingh's Cranston (9st. 13lbs.), Tymon 4
Won by a neck, 1 length and neck. Time—1min. 42secs.

Pubjab Hurdles. Distance (about) 2 miles—
Capt. P. J. Hilliard's Dulcine (9st. 7lbs.), J. Donnolly 1
Mr. A. Abel Smith's Absorbent (9st.), P. M. H. Edwards 2
Major A. Hodgin's Antaeus (11st. 7lbs.), Dalziel 3
Mrs. G. Dudley Matthews and Mrs. H. Boga's (12st.), Mr. W. F. Lamb 4
Won by a neck, neck and three lengths.
Time—3mins. 44 1/5secs.

Merchants' Cup. Distance about 7 furlongs—
Messrs. S. Bhagatsingh and S. Kher Singh's Spartan Queen (8st. 12lbs.), Leeson .. 1
Mr. Suktos Mall's Authority (9st. 11lbs.), Purtoosingh 2
Sir Henry Craik and Capt. Sanlez's Four at a Glance (9st. 9lbs.), J. Donnolly 3
Capt. R. K. Galrow's Hush-a-Bye (9st. 12lbs.), Capt. J. M. Bernard 4
Won by half a length, 3 lengths, a neck.
Time—1min. 32 1/5secs.

Governor's Cup. Distance (about) 1½ miles—
Mr. Abdul Hamid's Balkan Baron (8st. 8lbs.), Leeson 1
Messrs. Kashi Charan and Raja Mohan's Philroc (8st. 5lbs.), J. J. Wallace .. 2
Mr. H. O. Hay's Fancy Free (7st. 12lbs.), Balfour 3
Mrs. K. R. Mehra's Chiel (7st. 11lbs.), Holland 4
Won by a neck, 2 lengths, half length.
Time—2mins. 9 3/5 secs.

Indian Griffin Plate. Distance (about) 6 furlongs—
Mr. Mohd. Zaman's Forlorn Hope (9st. 12lbs.), E. Roxburgh 1
Mr. Abdul Majid's Night Club (8st. 11 lbs.), Purtoosingh 2
Mr. Itbarkhan's Mansion Polish (9st. 10lbs.), Balfour 3
Mr. Sherjang's Be Prepared (8st. 10lbs.), J. J. Wallace 4
Won by ½ length, 3 lengths, and 1 length.
Time—1min. 19 4/5secs.

Lucknow.

Governor's Cup. Distance 5 furlongs. Cup course—
Mr. Kashicharan's Bardley (7st. 12lbs.), Wallace 1
Mr. Radha Mohan and Capt. M. Cox Dame Herodene (8st. 12lbs.), J. O'Neale .. 2
Mr. S. C. Woodward's Arch Lady (7st. 9lbs.), Balfour 3
Raja of Nazarganj and Mr. C. B. Farrar's Lovely One (9st. 4lbs.), Lowrey 4
Won by 5 lengths, 1½ lengths, 1½ lengths.
Time—1 min. 3 secs.

Civil Service Cup. Distance 7 furlongs—
Raja Jagat Kumar and Mr. J. Thompson's A La Violette (7st. 10lbs.), Christie .. 1
Mr. Kashicharan's Lisallen (8st.), Wallace .. 2
Lt.-Col. A. de C. Rennick's Telamark (9st. 4lbs.), O'Neale 3
Rani of Nazarganj's Elegant (8st. 3lbs.), Bartlam 4
Won by a head, 3 lengths and 2 lengths.
Time—1 min. 28 2-5 secs.

Harcourt Butler Cup. Distance 5 furlongs—
Mrs. G. Dudley Mathew's Little White Lies (8st. 9lbs.), Balfour 1
Mr. Kashicharan and Raja Mohan Marucha's Philroe (7st. 6lbs.), Wallace .. 2
Mr. F. Russell Stewart's Rathowen (8st. 2lbs.), Bunnetta 3
Lt.-Col. T. Burridge's Kenya (9st. 5lbs.), Bartlam 4
Won by ¾ length, ½ length and 1½ length. Time—1 min. 3 1-5 secs.

Nanpura Cup. Distance 1 mile—
Dr. Behraj Sharma's Sunbow (8st. 13lbs.), Purtoosingh 1
Mr. F. Russell Stewart's Rathowen (8st. 4lbs.), Bunnetta 2
Sir Henry Craik Johnny's Walker (8st. 2lbs.), Leeson 3
Mr. Kashi Charan and Raja Bahadur Marucha's Troubadour (9st. 12lbs.), Wallace 4
Won by 2½ lengths, a short head, lengths. Time—1 min. 44 2-5 secs.

Louis Stuart Cup. Distance 1½ miles—
Lt.-Col. Ade C. Rennick Telemark (9st. 4lbs.), J. O'Neale 1
Mr. J. Lorang's Flying Friar (8st. 13lbs.), Capt. Bernard 2
Raja Jagat Kumar and Mr. J. Thompson's A La Violette (8st. 4lbs.), Bunnetta .. 3
Mr. S. Khanna's Knight's Service (7st. 10lbs.), Leeson 4
Won by 2½ lengths, ½ length, 3 lengths. Time—2 mins. 43 1-5 secs.

Oudh Arab Cup. Distance 7 furlongs. Cup Course—
Mr. G. Dudley Mathew's Ruffle (8st. 9lbs.), Balfour 1
Lt.-Col. A. S. Kirkwood Florio (7st. 3lbs., carr. 7st. 6lbs.), Jones and Arjun Singh Sicab (8st. 4lbs.), Tymon .. .. } Dead heat 2
Lt.-Col. Burridge's Knight Bachelor (9st. 15lbs.), Roxburgh 4
Won by 3 lengths. Time—1 min. 42 secs.

Lucknow Grand National. Distance about 2 miles 5 furlongs. Steeplechase Course—
Capt. G. T. Wheeler's Rejection (10st. 6lbs.), Capt. Wansbrough Jones 1
Mr. P. M. H. Edward's Donore (13st.), Owner 2
Mr. C. P. Sherston Var Olum (9st. 6lbs.), Lachman Singh 3
Lt.-Col. T. Burridge and H. M. MacLaurin's Half Note (10st. 12lbs.), Delisi 4
Won by 2 lengths. Time—5 mins. 35 secs.

Army Cup. Distance 7 furlongs—
Major Fulton's Curragh Rose 1
Lt.-Col. Burridge's Kenya 2
Major Hodgin's Trapoi 3
C. E. D. Cooper's Bloomsbuty Square .. 4
Won by 1¼ lengths.

Stewards Cup. Distance 7 furlongs (Cup Course)—
Kunwar Udai Pratapsingh's Cranston (7st 12 lbs.), Wallace 1
Malik Mohd. Khan Tiwana's Corbyn (9st. 7lbs.), Purtoosingh 2
Major A. Hodgin's Antaeus (8st. 7lb.), Siely 3
Rang Bahadur's Sweet Fragment (8st.), Leeson 4
Won by 1¾ lengths, short head, 1½ lengths. Time—1min. 28 3-5 secs.

Madras.

Mysore Cup. Distance 1 mile—
H. H. the Maharajah of Kolhapur's Rosewater (8st.), Forsyth 1
Mr. Swamy's Tout De Suite (9st. 12lbs.), Rook 2
H. H. the Dowager Maharani of Kolhapur's Saloon (7st. 6lbs.), Whiteside .. 3
Mr. S. A. A. Annamalai Chettiar's Brutus (8st. 10lbs.), Davison 4
Won by 5 lengths, 2 lengths, 1½ lengths. Time—1 min. 43 3-5 secs.

The Nizam's Cup. Distance 1 mile—
Mr. S. A. A. Annamalai Chettiar's Broadway Joe (7st. 11lbs.), Davison 1
Mr. S. A. A. Annamalai Chettiar's Sauer Kraut (9st. 4 lbs.), Burgess 2
H. H. the Maharajah of Venkatagiri's Queen of Mars (8st. 5lbs.), Rook 3
Mr. Rozario's Oratorio (7st. 9lbs., car. 7st. 9lbs.), Fletcher .. ..
Won by ¾ length, 1½ lengths, ½ length. Time—1 min. 45 secs.

The Governor's Cup. R.C. and Distance.—
Mr. Govindaraj and Capt. Darcy's Helen's Glory (7st. 6lbs.), H. Black 1
The Akkasaheb Maharaj's Rhonius (8st.), Whiteside 2
Mr. Nugent Grant's Dahra (7st. 6lbs.), Rook. 3
The Maharajah of Venkatagiri's Igname (8st. 6lbs.), S. Black 4
Won by 2½ lengths, 1½ lengths, short head. Time—2mins. 51 1/5secs.

The Kirlampudi Cup. Distance 6 furlongs.—
Mr. S. A. A. Annamalai's Good Biz (7st. 10lbs.), Davison 1
Mr. Somasundaram's Eothen (7st. 6lbs.), H. Black 2
H. H. the Maharaja of Mysore's Lignan (9st. 4lbs.), Hill 3
H. H. the Maharaja if Mysore's Hillcot (9st. 4lbs.), H. McQuade 4
Won by short head, 1½ lengths, 1½ lengths. Time.—1min. 15 2-5secs.

The Metropolitan. Distance about 6 furlongs.—
Major A. W. Molony's Argosheir (8st. 5lbs.), Jones 1
Messrs. Clarke and Poddar's Filter (8st. 8lbs.), Walsh 2
Mr. Curlender's Dodger (8st. 5 lbs.), Rosen. 3
Mr. G. E. Nahaplet's Ramillies, Burtlam .. 4
Won by 1 length, 1 length, 3 lengths.
Time.—1min. 12 4/5secs.

The Cooch Behar Cup. Distance about 1 mile and 3 furlongs.—
H. H. the Maharaja of Kashmir's Le Commissaire (8st. 13lbs.), Carslake .. 1
Sir David Ezra's Spenser (9st.), Merland .. 2
Mrs. G. Anthony's Fanande (7st. 7lbs.), Rosen 3
H. H. the Maharajah of Kolhapur's Grand Wazir (9st. 4lbs.), Jones 4
Won by a head, neck and 1½ lengths.
Time.—2mins. 21 4/5secs.

The New Year Plate. Distance about 1 mile.—
Messrs. Clarke and Poddar's Saskatoon, Raffaele 1
Mr. C. A. Laing's Silverton (7st. 9lbs.), Raffaele 2
H. H. the Maharaja of Kashmir's Cospatrick (9st. 4lbs.), Carslake 3
Mr. A. H. C. Rostron's Glissade (8st. 9lbs.) Ermer 4
Won by a head, ¾ length, short head.
Time.—1min. 39 4/5secs.

Venkatagiri Cup. Distance 6 furlongs.—
The Dowager Maharani of Kolhapur's Hattamtai (7st. 7lbs.), Whiteside .. 1
H. H. The Maharaja of Kolhapur's Mutascar (8st. 11b.), Forsyth 2
Mr. Wahab's Grey King (9st.), Spackman. . 3
Messrs. Chetty, Noronha and Appa's Star King (7st. 10lbs.), Beherman 4
Won by a head, ¼ length, a neck.
Time.—1min. 23 1/5secs.

The R. C. T. C. Cup. Distance 1¼ miles.—
Mr. Mohamed Oomer's Golden Yew (8st. 4lbs.), Thompson 1
Mr. Rosenthal and Capt. Crawford's May Bride (8st. 7lbs.), H. Black 2
Mrs. Nugent Grant's Time Limit (8st. 1 lb.), Rook 3
Rajah Dhanrajgir's Rime (9st.), Forsyth .. 4
Won by ½ length, a short head, ¾ length.
Time.—2min. ¼sec.

The Knowsley Cup. Distance 1¼ miles.—
H. H. the Maharaja of Kolhapur's Bridge Thorn (9st. 4lbs.), Forsyth 1
Rajah of Bobbili's Rex (8st. 6lbs.), Davison. 2
Mr. Patel's Frost (8st. 4 lbs.), Hill 3
Mr. Govindaraj and Capt. D'Arcy's Irish Love (7st. 8lbs.), Hine 4
Won by ¾ length, a short head, a neck.
Time.—2mins. 40secs.

The Merchants Cup. Distance 1 mile, 1 furlong—
Mr. Somasundaram's Fors Abbey (7st. 4lbs., cd. 7st. 7lbs.), Behsman 1
Mr. S. A. A. Annamalai Chettiar's Broadway Joe (8st. 3lbs.), Davison 2
Mr. Raidoon's Broken Link (7st. 10lbs.), B. McQuade 3
Rajah Dhanrajgir's Rime (8st. 10lbs.), Forsyth 4
Won by short head, 1½ lengths, ½ length.
Time—1 min. 54 1-5 secs.

The Bobbili Cup. Distance 1 mile—
Rajah Dhanrajgir's Prince Ghazi (9st. 4lbs.), Rosen 1
Mr. Thammiah's Yanoos (8st. 13lbs.), Burgess 2
Mr. Oosman Chotani's Sattam (9st. 4lbs.), Forsyth 3
Dowager Maharani of Kolhapur's Hattamtai (8st. 11lbs.), Whiteside 4
Won by head, ¾ length, ½ length. Time—1 min. 52 4-5 secs.

The Maharani of Venkatagiri Cup. Distance 7 furlongs—
Mr. S. A. A. Annamalai Chettiar's Brutus (8st. 8lbs.), Davison 1
Dewan Bahadur Murugappa Chettiar's Chorus Girl (7st. 5lbs., cd. 7st. 8lbs.), Roberts 2
Mr. Dara Cowasjee's Old Scar (8st. 7lbs.), Rosen 3
Mr. Swamy's Tout de Suite (10st. 7lbs.), Hill 4
Won by a short head, 2¾ lengths, 1½ lengths.
Time—1 min. 29 secs.

The Ramnad Cup. Distance 1 mile, 1 furlong—
H. E. Sir George Stanley's Corviglia (7st. 12lbs.), H. Black 1
Mr. Ahmed's Wet Summer (7st. 13lbs.), Rook 2
The Hon. the Rajah of Bobbili's Rex (8st. 9lbs.), Davison 3
Mr. Patel's Frost (8st. 6lbs.), Aldridge .. 4
Won by a head, ¾ length, 1½ lengths.
Time not taken.

The Ceylon Cup. (Div. I.) Distance 1 mile—
Mr. S.A.A. Annamalai Chettiar's Hill Flower (8st. 4lbs.), S. Black 1
Mrs. Fenwick's Sorriso (9st. 4lbs.), Baker .. 2
Mr. Rozario's Madge Mee (8st. 11lbs.), Forsyth 3
H. E. Sir George Stanley's Corviglia (7st. 12lbs), H. Black 4
Won by ½ length, ½ length, length. Time—1 min. 41 4-5 secs.

The Ceylon Cup (Div. II.) Distance 1 mile—
Rajah of Parlakimedi's Triple Crown (9st. 4lbs.), Davison 1
Mr. Ahmed's Wet Summer (8st. 13lbs.), Rook 2
Messrs. Govindaraj and Capt. D'Arcy's Mallick (8st. 7lbs.), Southey 3
Mr. Walles' Korniloff (7st. 7lbs.), H. Black. 4
Won by ½ length, 2¼ lengths, 1¼ lengths. Time—1 min. 42 2-5 secs.

The Farewell Plate. Distance 1 mile—
H. H. the Maharaja of Venkatagiri's Queen of Mars (8st. 12lbs.) Rook.. 1
Mr. Fraidoon's Broken Link (8st. 7lbs), Davison 2
H. H. the Maharaja of Mysore's Rosnaree (9st. 2lbs.), Hill 3
Mrs. Fenwick's Sorriso (8st. 11lbs.), Southey 4
Won by a head, head, 1½ lengths. Time—1min. 41 3-5 secs.

The Good-Bye Plate. Distance 1 mile, 1 furlong.—
H. H. the Maharaja of Kolhapur's Winnock Bunker (9st. 11lb.), Forsyth 1
Mr. Fraidoon's Harvard (7st. 8lbs.), Rosen 2
Mr. Murugappa Chettiar's Irish Star (8st. 12lbs.), Roberts 3
Mr. Hayhoe's Fair Belle (8st.), Southey .. 4
Won by 1¾ length, ¾ length, ½ length. Time—1min. 15 3/5 secs.

Cochin Cup. Distance 1½ miles.—
Mr. Imamdin's Abrash (8st. 5lbs.) Thompson 1
Mr. Mohamed's Fury (7st. 8lbs.), Black .. 2
Mr. Ladhabhoy's Saada II (9st. 4lbs.),Rook 3
Messrs. Gramany and Shanmugam's Gagi (8st 4lbs., ed. 8st. 5lbs.) Spackman .. 4
Won by a head, 2 lengths, 1½ lengths. Time—2 mins. 54 4-5 secs.

Hajee Sir Ismail Sait Cup. Distance 1 mile—
H. H. the Maharajah of Kolhapur's Young Chayna (8st. 6lbs.), Forsyth 1
Mr. Syed Mohomed Bir's Permacil (7st. 6lbs.), H. McQuade 2
Mr. Fraidoon's Takreet (8st. 13lbs.), Southey 3
Mr. Ebrahim's Match Box (8st. 8lbs.), Aldridge 4
Won by 1¾ lengths, ½ length, length. Time—1min. 54 3-5secs.

The Trades Cup. Distance 1¼ miles—
Mr. Nugent Grant's Bathurst (7st. 13lbs.), Rook 1
Nawab Mahdijung Bahadur's Magic Runner (7st. 13lbs.), H. McQuade 2
Mr. Patel's Frost (8st. 5lbs.), Cooper .. 3
H.H. the Maharajah of Kolhapur's Bridgethorn (9st. 6lbs.) 4
Won by 3 lengths, 2 lengths, ½ length. Time—1min. 16secs.

Mysore.

Haji Sir Ismail Sait Cup. Distance 1 mile.—
Messrs. Gramany and Shanmugam's Jinny (7st. 12lbs.), Dillon.. 1
Mr. Temoolji's Hazima (8st. 8lbs.), Forsyth. 2
Mr. H. Ahmed's Fakri Pasha (8st. 13lbs.), Southey 3
Chief of Miraj's Khumayassa (9st. 6lbs.), Clarke 4
Won by 1 length, 3 lengths, 1 length. Time.—1min. 53 1-5 secs.

Ootacamund.

The Hajee Sir Ismail Sait Cup. Distance 7 furlongs.—
Dowager Maharani of Kolhapur's Hishan (8st. 6lbs.), Forsyth 1
Mr. A. G. Rangilla's Yeman (7st. 11lbs.), H. McQuade 2
Khan Bahadur Razack's Malster (8st. 5lbs.), Cooper 3
Capt. Lane's Naranji (7st. 10lbs.), Aldridge . 4
Won by head, ¾ length, length. Time.—1min. 45 4-5 secs.

The Sivaganga Cup. Distance 1¼ miles.—
Capt. Elgee and Mr. Williamson's Orlebar (7st. 10lbs.), Flynn 1
Mrs. Rozario's Sans Avis (9sts. 4lb.), Southey 2
Mrs. Louer's Jack's Wink (8st. 13lbs.), Glennon 3
Raja of Sivaganga's Sagunthala (8st. 8lbs.), Rylands 4
Won by ¾ length, length, ½ length. Time.—2mins. 18 4-5 secs.

Guindy Cup. Distance 7½ furlongs.—
Mr. Govindaraj and Capt. D'Arcy's Jamil (7st. 2lbs.), H. Black 1
Mrs. Marshal's Bakhtiar (9st. 6lbs.), Forsyth 2
Messrs. Surana and Kering's Fayik (8st. 5lbs.), Cooper 3
Mr. Dawood Shah's Mansur Pasha (8st. 4lbs.), Hill 4
Won by 1½ lengths, short head, 2½ lengths. Time.—1min. 50 1-5secs.

Governor's Cup. Distance 1 mile, 3 furlongs.—
Mrs. Rozario's Sans Avis (7st.), Flynn .. 1
Mr. Pogose's Belle Legend (9st. 12lbs.), Glennon 2
Mrs. Louer's Jack's Wink (7st. 8lbs.), Mendoza 3
Mr. Govindaraj's Val Haki (7st. 5lbs.), H. Black 4
Won by 1¾ lengths, a head engtth. Time.—2mins. 24 4-5secs.

The Madras Cup (Div. I). Distance 7½ furlongs.—

Mr. K. Basu's Torford (8st. 6lbs.), Rylands. 1
Mr. Wishart's Koinur II (7st. 5lbs.), H. Black 2
Mr. Varma's Princess Maeve (9st. 2lbs.), Forsyth 3
Akkasaheb Maharaj of Kolhapur's Daryasagar (7st. 11 lbs.), Alford .. 4

Won by 4 lengths, short head, ½ length. Time.—1min. 35 1-5secs.

The Madras Cup (Div. II). Distance 7½ furlongs.

H. E. Sir George Stanley's Roundelay (7st. 4lbs.), H. Black 1
Miss Lilavanti Bhosle's Gadyach (7st. 11lb.), Alford 2
Nawab of Banganapalle's Joli Blond (7st. 1 lb.), Mendoza 3
Mr. Vishvanade's Herring (8st. 6lbs.), O'Neale 4

Won by 2 lengths, 1 length, 1 length. Time.—1 min. 35 2-5secs.

Poona.

The Aga Khan's Cup. Distance 1¼ miles—

H. H. the Maharaja of Rajpipla's Shipshape (8st. 7lbs.), Bowley 1
Mr. A. C. Ardeshir's Ethics (9st.), Munroe .. 2
H. H. the Maharaja of Rajpipla's Highness (8st. 7lbs.), Dall Acqua 3
Mr. J. J. Murphy's Bray Beau (9st. 2lbs.), Howell 4

Won by neck. 1 length. head. Time.—2 mins. 44 2-5 secs.

The Trial Plate. Distance 1 mile.—

Mr. A. C. Ardeshir's Ethics (9st. 2lbs.), Walker 1
Mr. Oscott's Private Seal (9st. 2lbs.), Peck.. 2
Hon'ble Sir H. M. Mehta's Spanish Wish (9st.), Burn 3
Mr. Diamond's Kum Bak (9st. 2lbs.), Howell 4

Won by 4 lengths, short head, neck. Time.—1 min. 48 2-5 secs.

The Paddock Plate. Distance 6 furlongs—

Mr. S. E. Pishori's Hero Worship (6st. 12lbs., cd. 7st. 2lbs.), B. McQuade .. 1
Mr. A. M. Khairaz's Francolin (6st. 10lbs., cd. 6st. 11lbs.), Graham 2
Mr. K. Muncherji's Custodian (7st. 13lbs.), A. Clarke 3
H. H. the Maharaja of Kolhapur's Radhapyari II (7st. 7lbs.), Bhimrao 4

Won by 3¼ lengths, 2 lengths, 2 lengths. Time.—1 min. 17 4-5 secs.

The Autumn Plate. Distance 1½ miles—

Mrs. John Yorke's Trelawne (7st. 9lbs.), Cooper 1
H. H. the Maharaja of Kolhapur's Mahasagar (7st. 13lbs.), Dillon 2
Mr. J. J. Murphy's The Stiff (8st. 12lbs.), Howell 3
The Chief of Bajana's Greek Burn (8st. 5lbs.), Obaid 4

Won by 1 length, 5 lengths, 3 lengths. Time.—1 mins. 43 3-5 secs.

The Criterion. Distance 7 furlongs—

Mr. Eve's Heritage (8st. 3lbs.), Brace .. 1
Mr. P. B. Avasia's La Fontaine (8st. 11lbs.), Dillon 2
Mr. Kelso's Phare (8st. 3lbs.), Harding .. 3
H. H. the Maharaja of Rajpipla's Varsity Express (7st. 10lbs.), Selby 4

Won by 2 lengths, 3 lengths, neck. Time.—1 min. 31 4-5 secs.

The September Plate. Distance 1¼ miles.—

Mr. Oscott and Mrs. M. Tyrrell's Blackette (8st. 3lbs.), Peck 1
Mr. N. Beg Mahomed's Chivalresque .. 2
Mr. S. E. Pishori's Hero Worship (7st. 11lbs.), B. McQuade 3
Mr. Diamond's Galloping Major (7st. 12lbs.), Whiteside 4

Won by 3 lengths, neck, ½ lengths. Time.—2 mins. 15 3-5 secs.

The Governor's Cup. Distance R. C. and Distance—

Mr. Byramjee Rustomjee's Jnr. Gunboat Jack (7st. 12lbs.), Whiteside 1
Mr. A. A. Ali bin Talib's Saifuldowla (8st. 10lbs.), Thompson 2
H. H. the Dowager Maharani of Kolhapur's Ghaflah (7st. 11lbs.), Harding 3
Mr. A. R. Taha's Bushboos (8st. 5lbs.), Selby 4

Won by short head, 1 length, ½ length. Time.—3 mins. 14 2-5 secs.

The St. Leger Plate. Distance R. C. and Distance—

Mrs. John Yorke's Trelawne (7st. 3lbs., cd. 7st. 6lbs.), Dillon 1
Mrs. L. Musry's Bucentaur (6st. 10lbs., cd. 6st. 12lbs.), J. O'Neale 2
Mr. J. J. Murphy's The Stiff (7st. 10lbs.), Whiteside 3
Mr. Eve's Carnelian (7st. 12 lbs.), Brace .. 4

Won by 1 length, head 5 lengths, Time.—2 mins. 56 secs.

The Poona Plate. Distance 6 furlongs—

H. H. the Maharaja of Mysore's Lignan (6st. 13lbs.), J. O'Neil 1
Mr. C. A. Murad's Neddins (7st. 10lbs.), Evans 2
Hon'ble Mr. H. M. Mehta's Ternlet (8st. 9lbs.), Blythe 3
Mr. Roman's Turlogh (7st. 11lbs.), Northmore 4

Won by ¾ length, ½ length, 1½ engths. Time.—1 min. 14 secs.

The Ganeshkhind Plate. Distance 6 furlongs—
Mr. Diamond's Kum Bak (9st. 5lbs.), Munroe 1
Mr. P. B. Avasia's La Fortaine (8st. 6 lbs.), Harding 2
Hon'ble Sir H. M. Mehta's Spanish Wish (8st. 2lbs.), Blythe 3
Mr. Eve's Gay Day (7st. 7lbs., ed. 7st. 8lbs.), M. Hoyt 4
Won by neck, 1 length, short head. Time.—1 min. 16 secs.

The Western India Stakes. Distance 1¼ miles—
H. H. the Maharaja of Rajpipla's Spinner's Cottage (7st. 13lbs.), Selby 1
Mr. J. J. Murphy's Bray Beau (8st. 10lbs.), Howell 2
Mr. Oscott's Private Seal (8st. 6lbs.), Alford 3
Mr. Oscott and Mrs. C. Malone's Glenalmond (8st. 10lbs.), Peck 4
Won by ¾ length, short head, neck. Time.—2 mins. 8 secs.

The Sandhurst Plate. Distance 6 furlongs.—
Mr. A. Higgins's Ethics (8st. 4lbs.), Brace .. 1
H. H. the Maharaja of Rajpipla's Westerner (7st. 4lbs., ed. 7st. 5lbs.), Dillon 2
Mr. Diamond's Kum Bak (9st. 7lbs.), Howell 3
Mr. Eve's Star of Italy (9st. 7lbs.), C. Hoyt. 4
Won by 1 length, 2½ lengths, neck. Time.—1 min. 13 3-5 secs.

The Ascot Plate. Distance 1 mile—
Messrs. A. C. Ardeshir and P. D. Bolton's Heremia (8st. 4lbs.), Munroe 1
Mr. S. A. A. Annamalai Chettiar's Sauer Kraut (7st. 11lbs.), Dillon 2
Mr. Diamond's Galloping Major (7st. 10lbs.), Evans 3
Mr. E. S. Godfrey's Charmaine (8st.), Dall Acqua 4
Won by ¾ length, 1 lenth, short head. Time—1 min. 42 3-5 secs.

The Willingdon Cup. Distance 1½ miles—
H. E. The Viceroy's Honeydew (9st 2lbs.), Walker 1
Mr. Eve's Rosette (8st. 12lbs.), Brace .. 2
Mr. Eve's Johnnie Walker (8st.), S. Black. 3
H.H. the Dowager Maharani of Kolhapur's Saloon (7st. 8lbs.), Whiteside 4
Won by 2 lengths, 2 lengths, ½ length. Time—2mins. 43 2-5 secs.

The Ebor Handicap. Distance 1¼ miles—
Mr. M. C. Watchorn and Mr. J. J. Murphy's Bonne Tete (7st. 10lbs.), White 1
Mr. Eve's Superlative (6st. 12lbs.), McCarthy 2
Mr. K. Muncherji's Custodian (8st. 3lbs.), Burn 3
Mr. Kelso's Phare (8st. 2lbs.), Harding .. 4
Won by 1 length, short head, neck. Time—2mins. 13 4-5 secs.

Secunderabad.

Khaja Pershad Cup. Distance 7 furlongs—
Mr. S. Alibir's Taj Asad (7st. 11lbs.), B. McQuade 1
Mr. N. Rupchand's Taj Kasma (7st. 3lbs.), Samdan 2
Mr. Mujeed Jurgees's Shahar (9st. 8lbs.), Marrable 3
Mr. R. N. Brana's Mahboob Tawfiq (7st.), Leeson 4
Won by neck, length, short head. Time.—1 min. 35 4-5 secs.

Fakhrul Mulk Cup (Div. I). Distance 5 furlongs—
Mr. S. Mohamed Bir's Nassaf (7st. 5lbs.), Samdan 1
Messrs. Surana and Kering's Mattar (8st. 12lbs.), Howell 2
Mr. E. Sulleman's Ismail Pasha (9st. 1lbs.), Leeson 3
Mr. Rashood Bin Mohamed's Bahiryah (9st. 2lbs.), Obaid 4
Won by short head, short head, neck. Time.—1 min. 9 4-5 secs.

Shah Yar Jung Memorial Cup. Distance 6 furlongs—
Mr. Sultan Chinoy's Qui Vive (9st. 4lbs.), Obaid 1
Nawab Mir Mehdi Ali Khan's Vivimeter (7st. 7lbs.), Aldridge 2
The Rajah of Sivaganga's Sky Commander (8st. 9lbs.), McCarthy. } Dead
Nawab Mir Medhi Ali Khan's Magic Runner (7st. 3lbs.), Leeson .. } Heat 3
Won by neck, half length, dead heat. Time.—1 min. 15 1-5 secs.

Fakhrul Mulk Cup (Div. II). Distance 5 furlongs—
Mrs. Lane's Aboujenah (7st. 9lbs.), H. Black 1
Mr. E. Sulleman's Rajub Pasha (8st. 9lbs.), Obaid 2
Mr. S. M. Bir's Permacil (7st. 12lbs.), Samdan 3
Mr. Shamlan's Kurtuba (8st. 9lbs.), Howell. 4
Won by length, short head, neck. Time.—1 min. 9 secs.

Moinud Dowla Cup. Distance 5 furlongs—
Mr. Abdul Razack's Magnetic (9st. 4lbs.), Obaid 1
Mr. Lalvani's Orphan (9st. 3lbs.), Marrable. 2
Nawab Mir Medhi Ali Khan's Wholea (8st. 5lbs.), Aldridge 3
Major Forster's Manor (8st. 2lbs.), Black .. 4
Won by length, length and half length. Time—1 min. 4 4-5 secs.

Sahebzada's Cup. Distance 1¼ miles—
Mr. H. H. Mahmood's Burzan (9st.), Howell 1
Mr. A. R. Obaid's Rolls Royce (9st. 4lbs.), Obaid 2
Mr. H. Kadum's Berlin (8st. 11lbs.), Leeson .. 3
H. H. the Maharaja of Kolhapur's Narayan (8st. 4lbs.). Aldridge 4
Won by half length, neck, 2 lengths. Time—2 mins. 24 2-5 secs.

Nizam's Cup. Distance Race Course and Distance—
Mr. C. Temoolji's Sky Hawk (8st. 12lbs.), Marable 1
H. H. the Maharaja of Kolhapur's Johnny Green (9st. 7lbs.), Bowie } dead
Mr. Essaye's Thyroid (7st. 12lbs.), J. Mc Quade .. .. .. } heat 2
Nawab M. M. Ali Khan's Subtlety (8st. 5 lbs.), Leeson 4
Won by a neck, dead heat 1½ lengths. Time.—2 minutes 12 secs.

Tollygunge.

Governor's Cup (Div. I). Distance (about) 9 furlongs—
Mr. Ebross's Babalot (10st. 6lbs.), Imrie .. 1
Mr. S. K. Bhatter's Couda (10st. 6 lbs.), Pierson 2
Major D. A. Buchan's Nalim (10st.), Jaffrey. 3
Mr. W. T. Vizier Hermer's Pabulator (11st. 2 lbs.), Gourlay 4
Won by 1½ lengths, ½ length, ½ length. Time—2mins. 6 3-5 secs.

Governor's Cup. (Div. II.) Distance (about) 9 furlongs—
Mr. N. W. Kennedy's Sirsa (11st. 7lbs.), H. Johnson 1
Mr. E. J. Pithie's Scobar (10st. 9lbs.), Gourlay 2
Major A. Hodgin's Argenson (11st. 7lbs.), Hardinge 3
Mr. G. I. Tredaway's Bul Barrow (10st. 3lbs.), Owner 4
Won by 1½ lengths, 9 lengths, ¾ length. Time—2mins. 7 4-5secs.

Meerut.

Civil Service Plate. Distance 1 mile.—
Capt. J. M. Bernard's Popcorn (9st. 12lbs.), Owner 1
Messrs R. P. Sukla and J. K. Bose's Lothiar (8st. 5lbs.), Purtoo Singh 2
Mrs. P. L. Orde's Rikki Tikki (9st. 4lbs.), Leeson 3
Won by ½ length, ½ length, 5 lengths. Time—1min. 42 1-5secs.

Indian Cavalry Chase. Distance about 2 miles (Over chase course).—
Mr. C. P. Sherston's Var Plum (10st. 4lbs.), Capt W. Jones 1
Mr. W. F. Lamb's Moon Magic (11st. 10lbs.), Owner 2
Capt. L. M. Benn and Mr. R. O. Critchley's Paris Song (9st. 12lbs.), Capt. Benn .. 3
Won by 5 lengths, 1½ lengths, 2 lengths. Time.—4mins. 2 5-5secs.

Governor General's Cup. Distance 1¼ miles.—
Major D. Vanrenen's Vignette (8st. 9lbs.), Leeson 1
Capt. J. Martin's Snow Boat (8st.), Donnelly 2
Messrs. H. O. Hay and R. N. Shaw's Little Welsh (7st. 4lbs. car. 7st. 5lbs.), R. Bell 3
Won by ¾ length, ½ length, 1½ lengths. Time—2mins. 8 4-5secs.

Quetta.

The Army Cup. Distance about 2½ miles—Over 9 flights—
Capt. Edwards' The Witch (11st. 11lbs.), owe 105 yds. Owner 1
Mr. Mackinlay's Sir Tor (11st. 7lbs.), owe 120 yds. Capt Stroud 2
Capt. Sawyer's Lenlaw (11st.), owe 70 yds. Owner 3
Won by 6 lengths, 8 lengths, 3 lengths. Time.— 3 min. 57 4-5 secs.

CRICKET.

M.C.C. TOUR IN INDIA.

The following is a comprehensive list of relevant figures in connexion with the M.C.C. Team which toured India:

SUMMARY OF RESULTS.

Ajmer:—
Won by against Rajputana by an innings and and 107 runs. M.C.C. 213. Rajputana 32 and 74

Amritsar:—
Drew with Southern Punjab. Southern Punjab 264 and 103 for 1. M.C.C. 450 for 8 (declared).

Bangalore:—
Won against Mysore State. M.C.C. 451 for 7 (declared) and 72 for 0 (declared). Mysore State 107 and 55.

Benares:—
Lost against Vizianagram XI by 14 runs. Vizanagram XI 124 and 140. M.C.C. 111 and 139.

Bombay :—

Third Test Match—

Drew with Bombay Presidency. Bombay Presidency 87 and 191 for 5. M.C.C. 481 for 8 (declared).

Drew with Bombay City. Bombay City 140 and 56 for 2. M.C.C. 319 for 8 (declared).

England beat India in the First Test Match by 9 wickets. India 219 and 258. England 438 and 40 for 1.

Drew with An Indian XI. M.C.C. 224 and 215. An Indian XI 238 and 112 for 4. Charity Match.

Calcutta :—

Drew with the All-India XI. M.C.C. 187 for 5 (declared). British in Bengal 121 for 8.

Won against Indians and Anglo-Indians by 4 wickets. Indians and Anglo-Indians 123. M.C.C. 179 for 6. One-day match.

Drew with the All-India XI. M.C.C. 331 and 279 for 5 (declared). All-India XI 168 and 152 for 1.

England drew with India in the Second Test Match. England 403 and 7 for 2. India 247 and follow on 237.

Colombo:—

Drew with Ceylon. Ceylon 106. M.C.C. 100 for 3.

Won against Ceylon XI by 10 wickets. Ceylon XI 106 and 189. M.C.C. 272 and 25 for 0.

Won against Indo-Ceylon XI by 8 runs. M.C.C. 155 and 78. Indo-Ceylon XI 104 and 121.

Delhi:—

Won against Delhi and District by an inning and 133 runs. Delhi and District 98 and 102. M.C.C. 333.

Won against the Viceroy's XI by an innings and 208 runs. Viceroy's XI 160 and 63. M.C.C. 431 for 8 (declared).

Indore:—

Drew with the Galle XI. Galle XI 79 for 7 (declared) M.C.C. 59 for 2.

Drew with Central India. M.C.C. 157 and 52 for 0. Central India 157.

Jamnagar :—

Drew with Jamnagar XI. Jamnagar XI 90 and 45 for 6. M.C.C. 151 for 8 (declared).

Karachi :—

Drew with C. B. Rubie's XI. M.C.C. 292 and 70 for 4 (declared). C. B. Rubie's XI 99 and 103 for 6.

Drew with Karachi XI. M.C.C. 362 for 7 (declared). Karachi XI 89 and 112 for 4.

Won against Sind by 91 runs. M.C.C. 307 for 5 (declared) and 140 for 8 (declared). Sind 189 and 167.

Lahore :—

Drew with Governor's XI. M.C.C. 402 for 7 (declared) Governor's XI 253 for 8.

Won by against Northern India by an inning and 135 runs. Northern India 53 and 58 M.C.C. 246 for 7 (declared).

Madras—

Beat Madras Presidency by an innings and 352 runs.

M. C. C.: 603, Madras Presidency 106 and 145.

Won against Madras Federation by 187 runs. M.C.C. 268 for 6 (declared). Madras Federation 81. One-day match.

England beat India in the third Test Match by 202 runs. England 335 and 261 for 7 (declared). India 145 and 249.

Nagpur :—

Won against Central Provinces by 6 wickets. Central Provinces 195 and 188. M.C.C. 261 and 129 for 4.

Patiala :—

Drew with Rajinder Gymkhana. M.C.C. 330. Rajinder Gymkhana 335 for 6.

Peshawar :—

Won against North-West Frontier Province by an innings and 135 runs. N.W.F. Province 94 and 121. M.C.C. 350 for 7 (declared).

Poona :—

Drew with Poona. M.C.C. 161 for 5 (declared). Poona 83 and 39 for 2.

Rajkot :—

Won against Western India States by 4 wickets. Western India States 94 and 249. M.C.C. 254 for 6 declared and 60 for 6.

Secunderabad :—

Drew with Moin-ud-Dowlah's XI. M.C.C. 112 and 303. Moin-ud-Dowlah's XI 194 and 188 for 9.

Bombay.

Times of India Shield—

St. Xavier's College 446 and 128.
B. B. & C. I. Railway, 721.

Karachi.

Sind Pentangular—

Hindus beat Parsis by 6 wickets.
Parsis 129 and 129.
Hindus 196 and 64 for 4.

TENNIS.

Allahabad.

All-India Championships—

Men's Singles :—Sohanlal beat E. V. Bobb, 6-2, 3-6, 6-1, 6-8, 6-2.

Women's Doubles :—Miss Sandison and Miss Harvey Johnstone beat Miss Parrot and Miss Stebbing, 6-2, 6-3.

Mixed Doubles :—Brooke Edwards and Miss Jenny Sandison beat E. V. Bobb and Miss Parrot, 3-6, 6-1, 6-2.

Marker's Event :—Mahomed Ayas beat Ramsewak, 1-6, 6-3, 7-5.

Women's Singles :—Miss Sandison beat Miss Johnston, 6-2, 6-2, 6-3.

Men's Doubles :—Sawhney and Bhandari beat Brooke Edwards and Shamsher Singh, 6-2, 5-7, 6-2.

Bandra.

Women's Doubles (final) :—Miss Bonjour and Miss Talyarkhan beat Mrs. Shortland and Miss Snow, 6-1, 6-2.

Men's Singles.—E. V. Bobb beat Charanjiva, 6-0, 6-3.

Women's Singles :—Miss Leela Row beat Miss Bonjour, 6-3, 6-0.

Men's Doubles.—Charanjiva and Ranbirsingh beat Bobb and A. C. Pereira, 0-6, 6-3, 6-3.

Mixed Doubles—Winners :—J. Charanjiva and Miss Leela Row. Runners-up. Suvarna and Miss Talyarkhan.

Bombay.

Bombay Presidency Hard Court Tournament—

Men's Singles :—Final :—E. V. Bobb beat J. Charanjiva, 5-7, 7-5, 6-0.

Men's Doubles :—Final :—J. Charanjiva and Ranbir Singh beat J. E. Tew and A. M. D. Pitt, 6-2, 6-1.

Mixed Doubles :—Final :—Miss O. Stebbing and A. G. Gupte beat Mrs. Bell and J. E. Tew, 6-4, 0-6, 6-4.

Women's Singles :—Final :—Miss Leela Row beat Miss M. P. Dubash, 6-1, 6-1.

Women's Doubles :—Final :—Miss O. Stebbing and Mrs. M. E. Stephens beat Mrs. K. Row and Miss Leela Row, 4-6, 8-6, 8-6.

Marker's Final :—Sarjoo Pershad beat Kaltimoni, 6-3, 6-4.

Western India Championship—

Men's Doubles :—Final :—E. V. Bobb and L. Brooke Edwards beat J. Charanjiva and C. Ramaswami, 6-2, 6-0.

Mixed Doubles :—Final :—L. Brooke-Edward and Miss O. Stebbing beat C. Ramaswami and J. Charanjiva, 4-6, 6-3, 6-1.

Women's Doubles :—Final :—Miss L. Row and Miss E. Bonjour beat Mrs. V. J. Gough and Miss O. Stebbing, 7-5, 6-2.

Men's Singles :—Final :—E. V. Bobb beat J. E. Tew, 7-5, 7-5.

Women's Singles :—Final :—Miss Leela Row beat Miss E. Bonjour, 6-2, 6-1.

Calcutta.

Bengal Lawn Tennis Championships—

Men's Doubles :—C. Ramaswamy and C. L. Mehta beat W. H. Michelmore and L. Brooke Edwards, 6-4, 6-4, 6-8, 3-6, 6-3.

Women's Singles :—Mrs. Stork beat Miss Parrott, 6-0, 4-6, 6-2.

Mixed Doubles :—Miss Harvey Johnstone and Sohanlal beat Miss E. Homan and C. G. Pountney, 9-11, 6-3, 6-2.

Men's Singles :—Sohanlal beat W. H. S. Michelmore, 5-7, 6-4, 6-3, 6-2.

Women's Doubles :—Mrs. Stork and Mrs. Duncan Smith beat Mrs. Brown and Miss Parrott, 6-2, 6-1.

Mixed Doubles—Final :—Miss Leila Row and Krishnaswamy beat Mrs. Sastri and Rachappa, 6-3, 6-4.

Calcutta Lawn Tennis Championships—

Men's Singles—Final :—Madan Mohan, (Lahore), beat E. V. Bobb, (Bombay), 10-6, 6-3, 6-3.

Women's Singles—Finals :—Miss Jenny Sandison beat Miss Bonjour, (Ajmer), 6-4, 6-0.

Mixed Doubles—Finals :—W. F. Stephen and Miss Parrott beat B. T. Blake, (Karachi), and Mrs. Brown, 4-6, 7-5, 6-4.

Men's Doubles—Final :—L. Brooke Edwards and W. H. S. Michelmore (holders) (Calcutta) beat Sohan Lal, (Lahore) and N. Krishnaswamy, (Madras), 4-6, 6-4, 3-6, 6-3, 7-5.

Women's Doubles—Finals :—Miss Parrott and Miss Harvey Johnston, (Calcutta), beat Mrs. Stork and Mrs. Duncan Smith, 6-2, 6-4.

International Matches—

Madan Mohan, (India), beat H. Jacoby, (West Australia), 6-0, 6-0.

C. L. Mehta, (India), beat G. B. Davie, (West Australia), 6-2, 6-1.

Ranbir Singh and S. L. R. Sawhney, (India), beat R. D. Ford and H. Jacoby, (West Australia), 8-6, 6-2.

Delhi.

Delhi Lawn Tennis Championships—

Men's Doubles:—Final:—Ramaswami and Shamshersingh beat Brooke Edwards and Bobb, 8-6, 2-6, 6-3, 6-2.

Women's Doubles:—Final:—Miss Sandison and Mrs. Jordan beat Miss Parott and Miss Harvey Johnstone, 6-3, 6-1.

Mixed Doubles:—Final:—Miss Sandison and Bobb beat Miss Parrott and Ramaswami, 6-4, 6-2.

Men's Singles:—Y. Sing beat L. Brooke-Edwards.

Women's Singles:—Miss Sandison beat Mrs. Stock, 6-2, 6-1.

Karachi.

North Western India Championships—

Men's Singles.—E. V. Bobb beat Danjanan, 6-4, 6-1.

Women's Singles:—Miss Dubash beat Mrs. Helps, 6-2, 6-3.

Mixed Doubles—Miss P. G. Dinshaw and Bobb beat Miss M. J. Dinshaw and J. R. Kawasji, 6-2, 6-4.

North-Western Indian Championships—

Men's Singles:—Blake beat Daryanane 6-2, 6-4.

Women's Singles:—Miss Dubash beat Miss Kavasji, 6-0, 6-2.

Men's Doubles:—Jagat Mohanlal and Shivdasani beat Suntook and Petit 6-2, 6-1.

Mixed Doubles:—Mrs. Pollard and Blake beat Mrs. Helps and Daryanana, 6-4, 6-4.

Lahore.

Army and R. A. F. Championships—

Men's Singles:—Lieut T. B. Henderson Brooks (5-5th, Mahratta Light Infantry) beat 2nd Lt. R. N. Mulla (U. L. I. A.), 6-4, 4-6, 6-2, 3-6, 6-4.

Men's Doubles:—Sub.-Cond. P. H. Wells and Sub.-Condr. A. G. Walk (I. A. O. C., Ferozepur Arsenal) beat Henderson Brooke and Lt. U. K. Bonsle (5-5th Mahratta L. I.) 6-2, 6-4, 4-6, 7-5.

Madras.

M. U. C. Championships—

Men's Singles—Islam Ahmed beat C. J. Mullen, 6-2, 6-1, 3-6, 6-2.

Men's Doubles—Final:—Brooke Edward and Krishnaswamy beat Sohanlal and Rachappa, 3-6, 6-2, 6-3, 6-3.

Women's Singles—Final:—Miss Leila Row beat Miss Bonjour, 6-0, 6-1.

Women's Doubles—Final:—Miss Bonjour and Miss Thoraisingham beat Miss Leila Row and Mrs. Sastri, 6-3, 6-2.

Mussoorie.

Hard Court Championships—

Men's Singles:—Islam Ahmad beat Ahad Hussain, 7-5, 3-6, 2-6, 6-4, 6-2.

Women's Singles:—Miss Acton beat Mrs. Wigley 6-2, 6-2.

Women's Doubles:—Mrs. Densham-Smith and Miss Acton beat Mrs. Wigley and Mrs. Cairus, 6-1, 6-2.

Mixed Doubles:—Mrs. Densham-Smith and Ahad Hussain beat Miss Acton and Price, 6-1, 2-6, 6-1.

Men's Doubles:—Ahad Hussain and Islam Ahmad beat Price and Rudra, 7-5, 6-4, 6-2.

HOCKEY.

Bombay.

Lewis Cup—

Lusitanians	1 goal.
G. I. P. Railway	*Nil.*

Aga Khan Cup—

Manavadar State	1 goal.
St. Patrick's, Karachi	*Nil.*

Cummins Cup.—

A Coy. 3-8th Punjab Regiment ..	3 goals.
H. M. I. S. Dalhousie	2 goals.

Shaiba Shield—

Hq. Wing Sherwood Foresters ..	1 goal.
C. Coy. Sherwood Foresters ..	*Nil.*

Afghan Team's Fixtures—

Lusitanians	*Nil.*
Afghan Team	*Nil.*
Bombay Customs	7 goals.
Afghan Team	*Nil.*
Bombay Combined	3 goals.
Afghan Team	1 goal.

Buchanan Cup—

Bombay Customs	2 goals.
Lusitanians	*Nil.*

Bhopal.

All India Abaidullah Khan Gold Cup Tournaments—

Alexandra School	1 goal.
Shimla Club	*Nil.*

Calcutta.

Lakshmibilas Cup—
Jhansi Heroes .. .. .. 6 goals.
Kharagpur Indians .. .. 1 goal.

Beighton Cup—
Jhansi Heroes .. .. .. 1 goal.
Calcutta Customs .. .. .. *Nil.*

Exhibition Match
Indians .. .. 2 goals.
The Rest .. .. 2 goals.

Calcutta League—
Calcutta Customs.

Madras.

Willingdon Cup—
Anglo-Indians 'A' .. .. .. 2 goals.
M.S.M. Railway .. .. .. 1 goa

Murree.

Murree Brewery Tournament—
Punjab Rifles 'A' .. .. 3 goals.
Shropshires .. .. 1 goal.

Poona.

Poona Aga Khan Cup—
A. F. I. (Poona) .. .. .. goa
Green Howards .. .. .. *Nil.*

FOOTBALL.

Bombay.

Nadkarni Cup—
Colaba United 'A' team .. 1 goal.
Bengal Club .. .. *Nil.*

Rover's Cup—
King's Regiment .. .. .. 1 goal.
South Staffords .. .. .. *Nil.*
After two drawn games, 1-1, 2-2.

Leslie Running Cup.—
Royal Fusiliers beat Eagle's United by 1(points to 5.

Sergt.—Ellis won the gold medal for the second year in succession. Time.—13 secs.

Exhibition Match—
Harwood League (1st Division) team *Nil.*
Harwood League (2nd Division) team .. .. *Nil.*

Harwood League—
Royal Irish Fusiliers, Royal Artillery (runners up.)

Meakin Cup—
Essex Regiment .. .. .. 5 goals.
Royal Irish Fusiliers .. .. 3 goals.

Calcutta.

Dharbhanga Shield—
Mohan Bagan .. .. .. 1 goal.
Dalhousie .. .. *Nil.*

Calcutta League (First Division.)—
Durham Light Infantry.
East Bengal (Runners-up.)

International Match—
Indians .. .. goals.
Europeans .. .. 1 goal.

Charity Match—
D. C. L. I. .. .. .. 3 goals.
Mohan Bagan .. .. .. *Nil.*

I. F. A. Shield—
Duke of Cornwall's Light Infantry 2 goals.
King's Royal Rifles .. .. 1 goal.

Lahore.

North-West Football Association Championships—
'A' Coy. (East Surreys) .. .. 2 goals.
Headquarters Wing, (East Surreys) 1 goal.

Lucknow.

I. F. C. Shield—
Kalighat .. .. 2 goals.
Cameronions .. .. .. 1 goal.

Murray Cup—
Cameronians .. .. .. 3 goals.
Black Watch .. .. .. *Nil.*

Quetta.

Western Command British Inter-Unit Tournament—
1st Battalion Devonshire Regt. .. 2 goals.
Royal Air Force, Karachi .. *Nil.*

RUGBY.

Bombay.

International Match—

Scotland ..	..(1 goal, 1 try)	8 points.
England ..	(1 penalty goal)	3 points.

All India Championship—

The Welsh Regiment (1 goal, 1 dropped goal, 1 penalty goal, 1 try). .. 15 points.

Duke of Wellingtons, (1 goal) .. 5 points.

Calcutta.

Calcutta Challenge Cup—

Calcutta .. .. 9 points.
(2 penalty goals and 1 try).

Duke of Wellington's Regt. .. 3 points.
(1 penalty goal.

International Match—

Scotland	(3 tries)	9 points
England ..	(1 penalty goal)	3 points.

Karachi.

Karachi open Tournament—

Royal Artillery, Quetta	*Nil.*
Lancashire Fusiliers	*Nil.*

(Cup to be held jointly).

GOLF.

Calcutta.

All-India Women's Amateur Championship.—Mrs. Angwin beat Mrs. Scott 4 and 3.

Amateur Championship of India :—

H. Graham Smith beat H. Birkmyre 10 and 9 over 36 holes.

Ootacamund.

Chalmer's Cup—

Major Graham beat Mack, 3 up and 2 to play.

Fourball Foursomes—

Dr. Subbaroyan and Wimbush, (16 *vs.* Bogey), 13 up, beat Sullivan and Majo Keene, 10 up

Mixed Foursomes—

Furness and Mrs. Hurley, (handicap 12) 76

Electric Competition—

Capt. Parsons	62
Kaye	64

Tombstone Competition—

Mrs. Mitchel and Furness 87

Amateur Championship of Southern India—Broughton beat Major Evans-Lombe, 3 and 1.

Calcutta Challenge Cup—Mack beat Kaye, 5 and 3.

Women's Championship of South India—Mrs. Edwards beat Mrs. Latta, 1 up.

Jodhpur Cup (Women)—Miss Kirkwood beat Mrs. Hurley, 3 and 1.

Nasik.

Western India Championship :—

Carroll, (Poona), beat Hickey, (Bombay), at the 32nd hole 5 and 4.

Bombay Bangle :—Mrs. Reid, (Bombay), beat Mrs. Jenkins, (Karachi), 1 up.

Captain's Cup :—David beat Pitt 2 and 1.

Foursomes :—Lumley and Haydon beat Sanderson and Lowndes 1 up.

Pachmari.

Lansdowne Gold Medal (Match Play)—

Capt. T. E. W. Winterton beat G. W. Warmington, 5 and 4; Capt. A. George beat Capt. T. E. Chad, 2 and 1; Lieut. J. H. Cunning beat the Hon'ble E. Gordon, 1 up; Colonel M. N. Cox beat Lieut. S. D., G. Robertson, 1 up.

Long Driving Competition—

Winner—C. F. Bell 245 yards, 8 inches. Runner-up Captain T. E. Chad 243 yards, 2 feet, 2 inches. Longest drive recorded. Lieut. Marks 268 yards, 1 inch.

Ladies Lansdowne—Winner-Mrs. Newton. Runner-up Mrs. Bell.

POLO.

Bombay.

Western India Championship—

Baria	
Golconda	10 goals.
	2 goals.

Bombay Junior Tournament Rajpipla Cup—

Jaipur Lancers	
Deccan Horse	5½ goals.
	5 goals.

Subsidiary Final—

Golconda	
Indore	7 goals.
	5½ goals.

Calcutta.

Championship of India—

Jaipur	
Gladiators	6 goals.
	5 goals.

Indian Polo Association Tournament—

Jaipur	
Kashmir	5 goals.
	4 goals.

Ezra Cup—

Royal Dragoons	
17/21st Lancers	5 goals.
	3 goals.

Delhi.

H. R. H. The Prince of Wales' Tournament—

Kashmir	
Gladiators	5 goals.
	3 goals.

Lahore.

Indian Cavalry Tournament—

P. A. V. O. Cavalry	7 goals.
Probyn's Horse	5 goals.

Madras.

Sir George Stanley Challenge Cup

Mysore Cavalry	
Q. V. O. Madras Sappers and Miners	11 goals.
	3½ goals.

Murree.

Muree Brewery Tournament—

P.A.V.O. Cavalry "A"	7 goals.
P.A.V.O. Cavalry "B"	6½ goals.

Subsidiary Tourney—

Royal Artillery "Z"	5 goals.
Gordon Highlanders	2 goals.

Poona.

Junior Handicap Tourney (Richardson Cup)—

The Scores :—

Royal Deccan Horse "B"	10 goals.
Royal Deccan Horse "A"	2 goals.

Subsidiary Final—

Result:—

Baroda Team	
Mixed Grill	goals
	2 goals.

Rawalpindi.

Tradesman's Cup—

P. A. V. O. Cavalry 'Y'	2 goals.
Royal Signals	1 goal.

Simla.

Viceroy's Staff Challenge Cup—

Optimists	4 goals.
Aiguillettes	3 goals.

WATER POLO.

Bombay.

Bombay European League. (First Division).—

C. O. B. "A"	12 pts.
Bombay Gymkhana	8 pts.
Zionists "A"	4 pts.
C. H. S.	*Nil.*

(Second Division)—

C. O. B. "B"	
Royal Artillery	12 pts.
Sherwood For.	6 pts.
Zionists "B"	6 pts.
	Nil.

Vast Shield.—

Cathedral Old Boys	6 goals.
Bombay Gymkhana	2 goals.

BOXING.

Bombay.

The Army and Air Force won the team contest against the Bombay Presidency Amateur Boxing Federation by eight fights, (18 points) to two (12 points).

The following are the details :—

Flyweights :—Pte. Lee, (K.O.S.B.'s., Army) beat E. Joseph, (Bombay) on points.

Bantamweights :—L.-Cpl. Axford (East Surreys, Army) knocked out Fusilier Lemon, (R. I. F., Bombay) in the second round.

Featherweights :—J. C. Pithawalla, (Bombay) beat L.-Sergt. Mathews, (Signals, Army) on points.

Lightweights :—Lieut. H. Hose, (Beds and Herts, Army) beat D. Lomas, (Bombay) on points.

Welterweights :—Corporal Cromey (Beds and Herts, Army) beat L.-Cpl. Presley, (R.I.F. Bombay) on points.

Middleweights :—Drummer Diball, (East Surreys, Army) beat Saul Hayeem, (Bombay) on points.

Lightweights :—Signaller Williams (Signals Army) beat L.-Cpl. McIlree, (R.I.F., (Bombay) on points.

Welterweights :—Pte. Sillis (Somersets, Army) beat G. Greengrass (Bombay) in the third round, the medical officer stopping the fight owing to Greengrass sustaining a bad cut over the eye.

Light Heavyweights :—Fusilier Tate (R.I.F. Bombay) beat Pte. Dohcerty (K.O.S.Bs. Army) on points.

Heavyweights :—Corporal Shotbolt (Bed and Herts, Army) beat Joe Hayeem Bom. bay) on points.

Bombay Presidency Amateur Championships—Special Contest.—

Lightweight :—Cpl. Nottingham, (K.O.S.B.'s), beat L.-Cpl. Mowbray (Green Howards) on points.

Flyweights :—Pte. Lee (K.O.S.B.'s.) holder, knocked out Cadet Clarkson in the third round.

Bantamweights :—M. D. Wadia (B. B. & C. I. Railway) beat M. Dilwash (Nagpada House) on points.

Featherweights :—Signaller Warburton (Signals) knocked out S. Simons (Y.M.C.A.) in the first round.

Lightweights :—J. C. Pithawalla (Zoroastrian League) beat D. C. Lomas (G. I. P. Railway) on points.

Special Welterweight Contest :—Pte. Orridge (K.O.S.B.'s) beat Pte. Ellis (Green Howards) on points.

Welterweights :—Pte. Beattie, (K.O.S.B.'s) beat Fus. Small, (R.I.F.) on points.

Middleweights :—D. Chatterton (G.I.P Railway) beat L.-Cpl. Robertson (K.O. S.B.'s) on points.

Light Heavyweights :—L.-Cpl. Dockherty (K.O.S.B.'s) beat Fus. K. Semple (B, I. F.) in the third round, the referee stopping the fight.

Heavyweights :—L.-Cpl. Tait (R.I.F.) beat Pte. Brazier (K.O.S.B.'s) on points.

Calcutta.

Civilians beat Military—

Catchweight :—D. Hill (Civil) beat Lt. J. A. H. Powell on points.

Middleweight (First string) :—L. Carr (Civil) Beat Pte. Digesso (Military) on points. (Second string):—R. Naug (Civil) beat L.-Cpl. Dalgleish (Military) on points.

Welterweight—(First String) :—V. A. Vardon (Civil), beat Pte. Wales, (Military), on points. (Second string) :—2nd Lt. Bolton, (Military), beat L. Creet, (Civil), on points. (Third string) :—T. Nicholas, (Civil), beat Pte. Soper, (Military), on points.

Lightweight—(First string) :—Pte. Hanley, (Military), beat T. C. Robins, (Civil), on points. (Second string) :—Pte. Impey, (Military), beat R. Nagle, (Civil), on points. (Third string):—L.-Cpl. Jenkinson, (Military) beat R. C. Bowen, (Civil), on points.

Featherweight—(First string) :—R. Harding, (Civil) beat L.-Cpl. Patterson, (Military) on points. (Second string) :—M. V. Gregory, (Civil) beat Rfn. Lawford, (Military) on points.

Bantamweight—(First string) :—A Thaddens (Civil) beat Pte. Curry, (Military) on points (Second string) :—R. D. Banerjee, (Civil), beat Pte. Warner, (Military) on points.

Army and Air Force Championships—Results—

Middleweight :—F./O. T. N. Coslett, (No. 5 A. B. Squadron, R.A.F.), holder, beat Capt. A. O. L. Burke, (Gurkha Rifles. Army School of Physical Training) on points.

Flyweight :—L/Cpl. J. Gray, (1st Bn., Black Watch), beat Pte. Fall, (2nd Bn., K.O.Y. L.I.) on points.

Lightweight :—Sig. J. J. Williams, (2nd Indian Division, Signals), beat Pte. S. Impey, (1st Bn., Norfolk Regt.) on points.

Welterweight :—Cpl. G. Tink, (2nd Bn., Oxfordshire and Buckinghamshire Regt.), beat Pte. W. Sillis, (1st Bn., Somerset L.I.) on points.

Flyweight :—Pte. A. Issacs, (B. N. R. Bn.), beat Pte. B. A. Hutchinson, (Chota Nagpur Regt.) on points.

Featherweight :—Pte. J. C. Rutherford (Calcutta and Presidency Bn.), beat Pte V. G. Freese, (B. N. R. Bn.) on points.

Middleweight :—Cpl. L. T. Carr, (1st B.E.I.R. Regt.), beat Pte. S. E. Marcar, (Calcutta and Presidency Bn.) on points.

Lightweight :—Lt. J. MacDougall, (1st Bn., C. C. L. I.) beat 2nd Lt. R. J. O'Lone (2nd Bn., D.L.I.), the referee stopping the fight in the second round.

Welterweight :—2nd Lt. J. S. Bolton (1/9th Gurkha Rifles) w.o. 2nd Lt. A. L. Gurney-Richmond (1st Bn., K.S.L.I.) who scratched on medical grounds.

Bantamweight :—L/Cpl. R. Lewis, (1st Bn., K.S.L.I.), holder, beat Pte. E. Warner, (1st Bn., Norfolk Regt.) on points.

Featherweight :—Pte. H. Matthews, (1st Bn., Somerset L. I.), beat Pte. J. Skeeham, (2nd Bn., Prince of Wales Volunteers) on points.

Middleweight:—C. S. M. I. Wheeler, (Army School of Physical Training), holder, beat Pte. H. Brookes, (2nd Bn., Prince of Wales' Volunteers) on points.

Light Heavyweight:—Pte. J. Morris, (1st Bn., Somerset L. I.), holder, beat Pte. W. Coleman (1st Bn., K.S.L.I.) on points.

Heavyweight:—Cpl. E. Shotbolt, (1st Bn. Beds and Herts), holder, beat Dmr. A. Parker, (1st Bn., Hampshire Regt.) on points.

Military beat Civilians—

Bantamweight (First String):—L.-Cpl. Krieha (Military) beat P. Stapleton on points. Second String:—Pte. E. Warner (Military) beat R. D. Bannerjee on points. Third String:—H. R. Graham (Civil) beat Pte. J. Curry, who was disqualified in the second round.

Featherweight:—L.-Cpl. E. Shrimpton, (Military) beat A. R. Mackertoon on points. Second String:—Cpl C. Jenkinson (Military) beat W. B. Walker on points.

Lightweight (First String):—A J. Johanne (Civil) beat Rfm. C. Borritt on points. Second String:—Rfm. S. Shaw (Military) knocked out E. C. Reid in the second round.

Welterweight (First String):—Pte. A. Digesso (Military) beat V. A. A. Vardon, the fight being stopped in the third round. Second String:—Cpl. J. Scollick (Military) beat L. Creet on points. Third String:—L.-Col. J. Hunt (Military) beat T. Nicholas on points.

Middleweight (First String):—Pte. T. Ellis (Military) beat S. E. Marcar on points. Second String:—Pte. T. Bloxham (Military) beat M. Stiffle on points.

Heavyweight:—Pte. W. Mudford (Military) beat A. A. Arratoon on points.

Flyweght (Bengal Championship, Final):—F. D'Santos (All Saints' High School, Calcutta) beat A. Issacs (B. N. R. Khargpur) on points.

Madras.

Gunboat Jack beat Guillermo (Manila) on points over (10 rounds).

Rangoon.

Gunboat Jack (10st.) beat Max Brilka (10st. 6lbs.), (German Welterweight) on points over (10 rounds).

Rawalpindi.

Army and Royal Air Force Championship.—1st Shropshire Light Infantry beat 'B' Group, Royal Signals.

Bantamweight:—L-Cpl. Lewis (Shropshires) beat Sigmn. Taylor (Signals), the referee stopping the fight in the second round.

Featherweight:—Sigmn. Warburton (Signals) k. o. L.-Cpl. Murphy (Shropshires) in the first round with a hook to the point.

Lightweight (First String):—Sigmn. Williams (Signals) beat Pte. Thomas (Shropshires) on points.

Lightweight (Second String):—Pte. Dent (Shropshires) beat L.-Sgt. Mathews (Signals) on points.

Lightweight (Third String):—Cpl. Hutcheson (Signals) beat Pte. Buchanan (Shropshires) on points.

Welterweight (Second String):—L.-Cpl. Simmons (Shropshires) beat Sigmn. Withers (Signals) on points.

Middleweight (First String):—Pte. Evans (Shropshires) beat Sigmn. (Robeats) on points.

Middleweight (First String):—Pte. Coleman (Shropshires) beat Sgt. Macfarlane (Signals) on points.

Middleweight (Second String):—Lt. Leeds beat Cpl. Rawson (Signals) on points.

Heavyweight:—Lt. the Hon. Clegg Hill (Shropshires) beat Sigmn. Rymer (Signals) on points.

Welterweight (First String):—Cpl. Lovel (Signalman.) k. o. Pte. Lane (Shropshires) in the second round.

ATHLETICS.

Western Asiatic Games.

Delhi.

The following are the results of the Western Asiatic Games:—

One Mile (Finals):—1 N. Mathews, (Ceylon); 2 Harcharan Singh, (India); 3 Zeev Franki, (Palestine). Time—4 mins. 41¼ secs.

High Jump (Finals):—1 R. Francis, (India); 2 Harcharan Singh, (India); 3 Zeev Franki, (Palestine). Height—5 ft. 10 ins.

Shot Put (Finals):—1 Cyril C. Dissanayake, (Ceylon); 2 Zahur Ahmed, (India); 3 Rabinah, (Palestine). Distance 41 ft. 8⅝ ins.

440 Yards (Finals):—1 G. Y. Bhalla, (India); 2 Chengappa, (India); 3 Sayad Karim (Afghanistan). Time—51 3/10 secs.

220 Yards (Finals):—1 E. S. Whiteside, (India); 2 Matatjahu Levy, (Palestine); 3 Shlemoh Marany, (Palestine). Time—22⅕ secs.

Six Miles (Finals):—1 Gujjar Singh, (India); 2 Baburam, (India); 3 Zeev Franki, (Palestine). Time—32 mins. 33½ secs.

100 Yards:—1 R. A. Vernieux, (India); 2 Whiteside, (India); 3 Khan Mohamhed, (Afghanistan). Time—9 7-10 secs. (British Empire Record.)

Pole Vault :—1 Abdul Shafi, (India) ; 2 Gajinder Singh, (India) ; 3 W. W. Tambimattu, (Ceylon). Height—11 ft. 5½ ins.

880 Yards (Final) :—1 G. P. Bhalla, (India) ; 2 D. E. Colonne, (Ceylon) ; 3 Chengappa, (India). Time—2 mins. 3 5-10 secs.

Three Miles (Final) :—1 Kishan Singh, (India); 2 Zeev Franki, (Palestine) ; 3 Gujjar Singh, (India). Time—15 mins. 22 6-10 secs.

Hop, Step and Jump (Final) :—1 Mehr Chand, (India) ; 2 Mianjan Singh, (India) ; 3 Khan Mahommed, (Afghanistan). Distance 45 feet 5⅝ secs.

440 Yards Hurdles :—1 M. Asghar, (India); 2 Mohamed Latif, (India) ; 3 Khan Mohamed, (Afghanistan). Ghulam Ali, (Afghanistan) and Shlomoh Marany (Palastine) did not run. Time—60 secs.

Discus Throw (Final) :—1 E. Whiter, (India) ; 2 Rabinah, (Palestine) ; 3 Gurdit Singh, (India). Whiter beat the India record by covering 116 ft. ⅜ ins.

Hammer Throw :—1 M. Ishaq, (India) ; 2 Ahmed Khan, (Afghanistan) ; 3 Rabinah (Palestine). Distance 94 ft. 5 ins.

Long Jump Final :—1 Niranjan Singh, (India) ; 2 K. Duraisingam, (Ceylon) ; ; McGowan, (India). Distance 21 ft. 11⅜ ins.

Javelin Throw (Final) :—1 E. Whiter, (India) ; 2 Mehr Chand, (India) ; 3 R. E. Blaze. (Ceylon). Distance 168 ft. 4¾ ins.

Relay Race—Ceylon, 1 ; India, 2 ; Palestine, 3.

Hockey—India .. .. .. 5 goals.
Afghanistan .. .. *Nil.*

Indian Olympic Games.

The following are the results in the Indian Olympic Games :—

High Jump (Finals) :—1 R. Francis, (Bengal) ; 2 Abu Yusuf, (Bengal) ; 3 Munir Ahmed, (Punjab). Height : 5 feet 10½ inches.

Hammer Throw (Finals) :—1 A. Drummond, (U.P.) ; 2 Kenny, (Punjab) ; 3 M. Ishaq, (Punjab). Distance 127 ft. 7 inches.

High Jump (Women's Finals) :—1 B. Edwards, (Bengal) ; 2 M. Taylor, (Punjab) ; 3 N. Irshadullah, (U.P.). Height 4 ft. 5 ins.

Hop Step and Jump (Finals) :—1 Niranjan Singh, (Punjab) ; 2 Mehrchand, (Punjab) ; 3 M Sutton, (Bengal). Distance 46 ft. 4 ins., a new All-India record.

Six Miles (Finals) :—1 Gujjer Singh, (Punjab) ; 2 Baburam, (Punjab) ; 3 Corporal A. A. Willott, (Army Sports). Time—33 mins. 8 1-18 secs.

Hundred Yards (Women's Finals) :—1 Iris Jennings, (Bengal) ; 2 N. Baxter, (Punjab) ; 3 G. Levi, (Bengal). Time—11 mins. 1-19 secs.

Pole Vault (Finals) :—1 Abdul Shafi, (Punjab, 11 ft. 3 ins. 2 Gajinder Singh, (Punjab), 10 ft. 7¾ ins. 3 Lce.-Copl. C. Boyd, (Army Sports).

One Mile (Finals):—1 W. Sheppherd, (Punjab) 2 Petrie, (U.P.) ; 3 Harcharan Singh; (Punjab). Time—4 mins. 32⅖ secs.

100 Yards (Finals) :—1 E. Whiteside ; 2 Vernieux ; 3 M. Sutton. Time—9 1-19 secs., a new India record.

Discus Throw :—1 Gurdit Singh, (Patiala); 2 White ; 3 Priestly. Distance 133 ft. 1½ ins.

440 Yards Hurdles :—1 Asghar, 2 Latif, 3 Ball. Time—58 1-8th secs.

880 Yards :—1 Bhalla ; 2 Chengappa ; 3 Harcharan Singh. Time—1 min. 59 1-5th secs.—A new India record.

120 Yards Hurdles :—1 M. Sutton ; 2 Whiter ; 3 Litif. Time—15 1-5 secs.—A new India record.

Shot Put :—1 Zahur Ahmed ; 2 Abdul Shakoor ; 3 Priestly. Distance 33⅛ ft.

Javelin Throw (Women's) :—1 Tilley ; 2 Penninger ; 3 Pirshadullah. Distance 78 ft. 7 ins.

220 Yards :—1 Vernieux ; 2 Whiteside ; 3 M. Sutton. Time—22 3-10 secs.—A new India record.

Three Miles Race : 1 Kishen Singh ; 2 Gujja Singh ; 3 S. D. Singh. Time—15 mins. 23 1-16 secs.

Records—

100 Yards :—Whiteside's 9 7/10 secs.

Hop Step and Jump :—Niranjan Singh's. 46 ft. 4 ins.

120 Yards Hurdles :—M. Sutton's. 15 2-10 secs.

880 Yards :—G. P. Bhalla's, 59 2-10 secs.

220 Yards :—R. Venieux, 32 3-10 secs.

Long Jump :—Niranjan Singh's, 22 ft. 10¼ in.

Pole Vault :—Abdul Shafi's. 11 ft. 3 in.

Swimming.

The following are the results of the Swimming events held at Patiala : —

110 Yards Free Style—(All-India) :—1 Raja Ram Shawoo, (Bengal) ; 2 Shushil Bose, (Bengal) ; 3 Michael Brogan, (Punjab). Time—1 min. 12 4-5 secs.

(Western Asiatic) :—1 Raja Ram Shawoo, (Bengal) ; 2 Shushil Bose, (Bengal) ; 3 Guth, (Palestine). Time—1 min. 12 4-4 secs.

220 Yards Breast Stroke :—G. F. Trounce (Punjab) ; 2 Darshan Singh, (Punjab) ; 3 P. K. Bannerjee, (Bengal). Time—min. 39 2/5 secs. Palestine did not take part in this event.

One Mile—(All-India) :—1 N. C. Malik, (Bengal) ; 2 Michael Brogan, (Punjab) ; Time—28 mins. 14 4-5 secs.

(Western Asiatic) :—1 Malik ; 2 Guth, (Palestine) ; 3 Brogan. Time—28 mins. 14 4-5 secs.

110 Yards Back Stroke:—1 Bakshi Ranbir, (Punjab); 2 Holman, (Punjab); 3 P. K. Banerjee, (Bengal). Time—1 min. 39 4-5 secs. Palestine did not participate in this event.

Wrestling.

The Bantams:—1 Chamanlal, (Punjab), 118 lbs. 2 S. Bose, (Bengal), 119 lbs.

Feathers:—1 A. C. Ghosh, (Bengal), 126 lbs. 2 Murarilal, (Punjab), 118 lbs.

Lightweight:—1 Ajaibsingh, (Punjab), 139 lbs. 2 D. D. Sharma, (U.P.), 145 lbs.

Welters:—1 Rashid Anwar, (U.P.). 2 Mohamed Ashraf, 152 lbs.

Middles:—1 Durgadas, (Punjab). 2 M. C. Goho, 158 lbs.

Light Heavy:—1 Mohammed Ashraf (Punjab), 152 lbs. 2 J. K. Shee, (Bengal).

Basket Ball—

Punjab	18 points.
United Provinces	17 points.

Indian Railways Athletic Meeting.—

N. W. Railway: Champions.

100 yards:—Whiteside (N. W.) 1; Rodrigues (S. I.) 2. Time 10 secs.

Hop, Step and Jump:—Whitter (N. W.) 1; Davis (E. B.) 2. Distance 40 feet 5⅝ inches.

Mile:—Durgiah (N. S.) 1; Sadhuram (N.W.) 2. Time 4 minutes 44-4-5 seconds.

220 yards:—Whiteside (N. W.) 1; Rodrigues (S. I.) 2. Time 23 1-5 seconds.

Polo Vault:—Hamid 1; Chatterji (E. B.) 2. Height 10 feet 8 inches.

440 yards:—Sebastian (N. S.) 1; Braganza (M. S. M.) 2. Time 54 1-10 seconds.

Throwing the Javelin:— White (N. W.) 1; Pelgar (E. B.) 2. Distance 161 feet 2½ inches.

120 yards hurdles:—Whiter (N. W.) 1; Davis (E. B.) 2. Time 16 2-5 seconds.

Mile Relay:—N. W. R. 1; M. S. M. 2. Time 3. minutes 52 seconds.

High Jump:—Francis (E. B.) 1; Smith (S.I.) 2; Paul (N. S.) 3. Height 5 feet 9⅜ inches.

Throwing the Hammer:—Marshall (N. W.) 1. Distance 94 feet 1½ inches. Vaugham (B.B. and C. I.) 2. Distance 86 feet 9¼ inches.

880 Yards:—Connolly 1; Benham 2. Time 2 minutes 8 seconds.

Long Jump:—Whiter (N.W.) 1; Rozario (E. B.) 2. Distance 20 feet 4½ inches.

Throwing the Discus:—Whiter (N.W.) 1; McDonnel (B. B. and C. I.) 2. Distance 101 feet 4¾ inches.

Shot Put:—Phillips (N. W.) 1; Perret (E. B.) 2. Distance 38 feet.

Mile Relay (Medley):—N. W. R. 1; E. B. R. 2; B. B. and C. I. R. 3.

Bombay.

All-India 15 Miles Cycle Race—B.A.A.C. Challenge Cup—

1. B. Malcolm, (Malcolm Cycling Club), Time—36 mins. 15 secs.; 2. J. K. Irani (Malcolm C.C.); 3. J. B. Guard, (Malcolm C.C.); 4. F. MacLeod, (2nd K.O.S.B., Lucknow.)

Bombay University Meeting—

100 Yards:—J. Castellino (S. X.) 1; C. M. Thimaya (S. X.) 2; H. Ribeiro (S. X.) 3.

120 Yards Hurdles:—C. M. Thimaya (S. X.) 1; J. Castellino (S. X.) 2; H. Ribeiro (S. X.) 3. Time—16 1-5 secs.

75 Yards Ladies:—Miss N. Dias (S. X.) 1; Miss I. D'Avoine (W.) 2; Miss J. D'Silva (S. X.) 3. Time—10 2-5 secs.

220 Yards:—C. M. Thimaya (S. X.) 1; and Castellino (S. X.) dead heat; H. Ribeiro (S. X.) 2. Time—23 3-10 secs.

Long Jump:—J. Castellino (S. X.) 1; H. Ribeiro (S. X.) 2; B. D. Padwal (E) 3. Distance 18 feet 7 ins.

440 Yards:—C. M. Thimaya (S. X.) 1; H. Ribeiro (S. X.) 2; T. D'Costa (S. X.) 3. Time—60 secs.

Ladies' Relay Race:—Wilson College 1; St. Xaviers 2.

One Mile:—V. R. Basrur (G. M.) 1; M. P. Agarkar (S. X.), 2; A. Athaide (S. X.) 3.

Men's Relay:—St. Xavier's, 1; Elphinstone, 2.

Tug-of-War:—Winners—Grant Medical.

Putting the Shot:—J. E. Dodds (S. X.) 1; J. M. Kharbari (S. X.), 2; C. M. Thimaya (S. X.), 3. Distance 31 feet 7 ins.

Pole Vault:—M. D. Kane (G. S. M.), 1. H. Riberio (S. X.), 2; Krishnamurth (G. M.), 3. Height 8 feet 10 ins.

880 Yards Finals:—C. M. Thimaya (S. X.) 1; A. Athaide (S. X.), 2; V. R. Basru (G. M.), 3. Time—2 mins. 12 4-5 secs.

3 Miles Race:—V. R. Basrur (G. M.), 1; M. P. Agarkar (S. X.), 2; B. D. Padwal (E) 3. Time—16 secs.

10 Miles Walking Race:—S. H. Kothar (S. X.), 1; M. P. Agarkar (S. X.), 2; R. Deshpande (W.), 3. Time—1 hour 36 2-3 mins.

30 Miles Cycle Race:—M. P. Choksi (S. X.), 1 S. A. Shellim (S. X.), 2; M. H. Chowna (S. X.), 3. Time—1 hour 22 mins.

Wrestling:—S. V. Joglekar (G. S. M.), 1. H. A. Wadia (W.), 2; D. N. Savant (L.), 3; and S. V. Javeri (L.).

Cross Country (¼ Mile):—M. P. Agarkar (S. X.), 1; V. R. Basrur (G. M.), 2; G. Singh (S. X.), 3. Time—23 mins. 16 4-5 secs.

Half Mile Swimming:—V. R. Basrur (G. M.), 1; P. M. Barucha (S. X.), 2; N. F. Saher (G. M.), 3. Time— 15 mins. 24 1-5 secs.

50 Yards Swim :—P. M. Barucha (S. X.), 1; V. D. Kotnis (S. X.), 2; R. P. Vajifdar (S. X.), 3. Time—36 secs.

(S. X.) St. Xaviers; (W.) Wilson; (E) Elphinstone; (I.) Ismail; (S) Sydenham; (G. M.) Grant Medical; (G. S. M.) Gordhandas S. Medical; (L) Law College; (S. T.) Secondary Training College.

Five-Mile Challenge Cup :—

1. N. G. Nair, 42 mins. 53 4-5 secs. 2. M. R. Iyer, 46 mins. 3 1-5 secs. 3. S. Dawood, 46 mins. 43 2-5 secs. 4. Mendonca. 5. M. N. Bannerjee.

Poona.

Bombay Presidency Police Inter-District Championships—

The following are the results :—

Lord Lloyd's Cup for Athletics. Won by Belgaum.

The Pogson Memorial Cup for Senior Hockey. Won by West Khandesh. Runners-up Belgaum.

The Guider Cup for Junior Hockey. Won by Bijapur. Runners-up G. I. P. Railway.

The Kennedy Cup of Tug-of-War. Won by Dharwar.

Sir Maurice Hayward's Cup for Tug-of-War. Runners-up : Sholapur.

Sir Francis Griffith's Cup for Cross Country Race. Won by Belgaum.

Rao Bahadur Kokje's Cup for Wrestling. Won by Sahadu Dhondi of Ahmednagar. 2nd Babu Govind of G. I. P. Railway.

Lord Sydenham's Cup for Physical Training Won by Satara. Runners-up : Ratnagiri.

Sir Leslie Wilson Cup for the best all round man. Won by Mahomed Hank of Belgaum.

The Down Challenge Shield. Won by Belgaum.

100 Yards.—(Individual Prizes). 1. Mahomed Haniff (Belgaum). 2. Anna Rama (Satara). 3. Mahadoo Bala (Poona).

440 Yards Race.—1. Mahomed Haniff (Belgaum). 2. James John (Dharwar). 3. Masha Dasraya (West Khandesh).

880 Yards Race.—1. Kasha Dasraya (West Khandesh). 2. Sitaram Shinde (Poona)., 3. Dawood Ajam (Belgaum).

Obstacle Race. 1. Tanaya Bhiwa (East Khandesh). 2. Jackson Sakharam (Sholapur). 3. Sitaram Shinde (Poona).

Relay Race. 1 Dharwar ; 2 Poona.

The MacDonald Challenge Cup for Sub-Inspectors Revolver Shooting and the Rao Saheb B. M. Rane's Challenge Cup for 100 Yards Race. Won by K. S. Shaikh Amir Rahim of Ahmedabad.

Beatty Memorial Cup for Revolver Shooting. Won by Mr. P. M. Stewart.

Souter Challenge Cup for revolver snapshooting. Won by Mr. G. Y. S. Farrant.

I. P. Officers Rifles Shooting Cup. Won by Mr. L. A. Paddon-Row.

Mr. E. E. Turner's Cup for Musket Snapshooting. Won by Mr. W. R. G. Smith.

The Kennedy Challenge Cup for best aggregate score in Officers events. Won by Mr. G. Y. S. Farrant.

Officers 100 Yards. Won by Mr. P. M. Stewart. Runner-up Mr. W. L. K. Herapath.

PIGSTICKING.

Bachraons :—

Kadir Cup—

Mr. Grey of Skinners Horse on "Granite".

Runners-up : Mr. Armstrong (Skinners Horse) on Mr. Grey's "Hermoine" and Capt. Harvey on Spider.

Hog Hunters Races.—

Heavy weight :—

Mr. Horman's "Khazipur".

Lightweight :—

Mr. Atherton's "Refugee".

RIFLE SHOOTING.

Meerut.

Army Rifle Championships (India)—

The prize winners were as follows :—

King's Medal and Rs. 100 :—Sgt. W. H. Bayes, (13-18th Hussars.)

Small Bronze Medal and Rs. 60 :—Naik Lal Singh, (Jodhpur Sardar Infantry).

Small Bronze Medal and Rs. 40 :—Sepoy Hari Singh, (1st Rajinder Sikhs.)

Small Bronze Medal :—Naik Walaiyat Khan (1-15 Punjabis); L.-Naik Harkarbir Gurung (1-5 R. Gks.); L.-Cpl. Light, (2nd R. Sussex); Lieut. Mason, (10th Royal Hussars); R. S. M. Parkyn, (1st D. C. L. I.); Sub. Sher Dil Khan, (2-15 Punjabis); C. S. M. Challinor, (1st Cheshires) Pte. Grampion, (1st Norfolks); Capt. Wilkinson, (K.O.Y.L.I.); Hav. Nandbahadur Thapa, (1-5 Gurkha Rifles); Sgt. Brayson, (K O.Y.L.I.); L.-Naik, Bata Singh, (2-15 Punjabis); Sepoy Mangal Singh, (4th Patiala Infantry); L.-Naik Pershad Gurung, (15 R, Gurkha Rifles); Sgt.

Bowles, (D.C.L.I.); R. Q. M. S. Hammond; (K.R.R.C.); Sowar Piare Singh, (Jodhpur Sadar Rissala); Major Turnham, (10th R. Hussars); C. H. M. Barna Singh Thapa; (2-2 Gurkha Rifles); Hav. Ramprasad Thapa, (1-6 Gurkha Rifles); Hav. Harman Ali, (10-15 Punjabis); Sgt. Cole, (Simla Rifles); Sgt. Buttle, (1st Norfolks); Sgt. Bran, (1st East Surreys); D.-Major, Sadul Singh, (Jodhpur Sirdar Rissala); Lieut. Jagdip Singh, (3rd Patiala Infantry); C. S. M. Richards, (1st Cheshires); R. S. M. Burke; (N.-W. Railway Regt.); L.-Daf. Pastabsingh, (1st Rajinder Lancers); Lieut. Baker, (1stCheshires); Pte. Bennett, (2nd R. Sussex); Sgt. Kemp, (1st Norfolks); C. S. M. Farmer (1st K.S. L. I.); Ris. Osman Ghani Khan (1st Hyderabad Lancers); Sgt. Cuthbert, (1st Black Watch); Naik Bajaisingh, (Jodhpur Sirdar Infantry); Lieut. Newall, (K.O.Y.L.I.); Sowar Lal Singh, (Jodhpur Sirdar Rissala); L.-Naik Jital Chali, (1-5 R. Gurkha Rifles); L.-Daf. Saffatulla Khan, (1st Gwalior Lancers); L.-Cpl. Newton, (Cameronians); Hav. Nizam Din, (10-15 Punjab Regt.); Daf. Mohd. Umar Khan (Bhopal Lancers); Capt. Cass, D.S.O.; M.C., (K.O.Y.L.I.); Sgt. Bradford, (10th Royal Hussars); L.-Naik, Piarelal, (Dholpur Narsing Infantry); D.-Major Mohd. Yusuf Khan, (2nd Hyderabad Lancers).

Class Championships—

Class 1.—British Officers. Number of firers 38. 1 Lt. F. O. Mason, (10th Royal Hussars), 380. 2 Capt. B. C. Wilkinson, (K.O.Y.L.I), 375. 3 Major A. S. Turnham, (10th Royal Hussars), 359.

Class 2.—British Army Warrant Officers and Sergeants. Numbers of firers 65. 1 R. S. M. W. Parkyn, (1st D. O. L. I.), 380. 2 C. S. M. H. T. Challinor, (1st Cheshires), 379. 3 Sgt. G. Brayson, (K.O.Y.L.I.), 370.

Class 3.—British Army Corporals and other ranks below the rank of Corporal. Number of fires 30. 1 L.-Cpl. J. Light, (2nd Royal Sussex), 382. 2 Pte. C. Crampion, (1st Norfolk Regt.), 378. 3 Pte. T. Bennett, (2nd R. Sussex Regt.), 345.

Class 4.—Auxiliary Force India. Number of firers 20. 1 Sgt. C. S. Cole, (Simla Rifles), 352. 2 C. Q. M. S. Mahon, (2nd B. B. & C. I.), 385. 3 C.Q.M.S.C.B. Goff, (N.W. Railway), 333.

Class 5.—Indian Army. Number of firers 17. 1 Sub. Sher Dil Khan, (2-15 Punjab Regt.), 380. 2 Hav. Nandbahadur Thapa, (1-5 R. Gurkha Rifles), 375. 3 C. H. M. Barna Singh Thapa, (2-2 Gurkha Rifles), 359.

Class 6.—Indian Army. Number of firers 17. 1 Naik Wallayat Khan, (1-15 Punjabis), 393. 2 L.-Naik Harkarbir Gurung, (1-5 R. Gurkha Rifles), 383. 3 L.-Naik Banta Singh, (2-15 Punjab Rifles), 366.

Class 7.—Indian State Forces. Number of firers 22. 1 Daf. Major Sadul Singh, (Jodhpur Sirdar Rissala), 349. 2 Lieut. Jagdip Singh), (3rd Patiala Infantry), 348, 3 Ris. Osman Ghani Khan, (1st Hyderabad Lancers), 345.

Class 8.—Indian State Forces. Number of firers 28, 1 Sepoy Mangal Singh, (4th Patiala Infantry), 362. 2 Sowar Pane Singh, (Jodhpur Sirdar Rissala), 360. 3 Naik Lal Singh, (Jodhpur Sirdar Infantry), 358.

Class 9.—Indian Territorial Forces. Number of firers. 3. 1 Hav. Nazar Mohd. (11-1 Punjabis), 281. 2 Hav. Azad Khan, (11-1 Punjabis), 274. 3 Lieut. Muzaffar Khan, (11-1 Punjabis), 244.

Luckock Cup.—(1) Challenge Cup Small Silver Medal and Rs. 100.—Naik Walayatkhan, 1/15 Punjabis; (2) Large Bronze Medal and Rs. 50.—L/Cpl. Light 2nd R. Sussex Regt., (3) Small Bronze Medal and Rs. 30.—Naik Bijaisingh, Jodhpur Sardar Infantry; Rs. 30 Sgt. Brayson, 2nd K.O.Y.L.I.; and Rs. 20. Capt. Wilkinson, 2nd K.O.Y.L.I.

The Army Championships, (India), which are decided on the aggregate totals of the three matches, have resulted as follows:—

British Army Championships.—1st A.R.A. Gold Jewel, L/Cpl. J. Light, 2nd R. Sussex Regt. 382; 2nd A.R.A. Silver Jewel, Lieut. F. O. Mason, 10th Royal Hussars, 380; 3rd A.R.A. Bronze Jewel, R.S.M. Parkyn, 1st D.C.L.I. 380.

India Army Championship.—1st Magdala Gold Medal, Naik Walayatkhan, 1/15th Punjab Regt. 393; 2nd Magdala Silver Medal, L/Naik Harkarbir Gurung, 1/5th Royal Gurkha Rifles 383; 3rd Magdala Bronze Medals, Sub. Sherdilkhan, 2/15 Punjab Regt. 380.

A.R.A. (India), Cup, value Rs. 100 and Rs. 50 in cash: L./Naik Harkabir Gurung, 1/5th Gurkha Rifles.

A Large Bronze Medal and Rs. 50.—C. S. M. Challinor, 1st Cheshires.

A Small Bronze Medal and Rs. 40.—Lt. Mason, 10th Royal Hussars.

Rs. 30: Hav. Bhagwan Singh, Jodhpur. Narsingh Infantry.

Rs. 20: C. Q. M. S. Mahon, 2nd B. B. & C. I, Railway Regiment.

SWIMMING.

Bombay.

Palestine beat Bombay.—

100 Yards (Breast stroke):—E. Godardi (Palestine 1 minute, 184-5 seconds) beat M. Robottom (1 minute. 19 4-5 seconds).

400 Yards (Free style):—E. Guth (Palestine—5 minutes, 23 4-5 seconds) beat M. Hillel (6 minutes, 10 seconds).

100 Yards (Back stroke):—E. Godard (Palestine—1 minute, 22 4-5 seconds) beat Roder (1 minute, 29 seconds).

100 Yards (Free style):—E. Guth (Palestine—64 9-10 seconds) beat Macdonald (65 1-5 seconds).

Plunging:—E. Spilling (E. W. P. A.—59½ feet) beat Rebino (Palestine—57 feet).

200 Yards (Free style):—E. Guth (Palestine—2 minutes, 31 4-5 seconds) beat N. Gordon (2 minutes, 48 seconds).

Relay:—E. W. P. A. (M. Robottom, D. McClumpha, D. Hay) beat Palestine (D. Rebino, E. Godardi, E. Guth). Time 2 minutes, 21 seconds.

YACHTING.

Bombay.

Seventh Day Cups—

'H' Class	"Viking II."
Sea Birds	"Guillemot."
Tomtits	.. "Bunty."

Inter-Club Invitation Races—

Bombay Sailing Association	.. 76 pts.
Royal Connaught Yacht Club	.. 57 pts.
Royal Bombay Yacht Club	.. 49 pts.
Secunderabad Sailing Association.	47 pts.

Poona.

Captain's Cup—

P. A. Street, South Staffords 1

The following are the placings and points for the whole event, each competitor having raced three times:—

1.	Street	9, 9, 9=27
2.	Hazlerigg	9, 8, 8=25
3.	Forestier-Walker ..	7, 9, 6=22
	Thomas	8, 7, 7=22
5.	Mac Rae	7, 8, 5=20
6.	Mrs. Thomas ..	6, 4, 8=18
	Boxall	5, 4, 9=18
8.	Henderson	3, 6, 6=15
	Parry	4, 5, 6=15
10.	McVean	1, 7, 5=13
11.	Carroll	5, 6, 1=12
12.	Lucas	8, 1, 1=10
13.	Ashley	5, 4, 0= 9
	Balwin	1, 1, 7= 9

Who's Who in India.

ABDUL HAMID, SIR, KHAN BAHADUR DIWAN, Bar-at-Law, Kt., C.I.E., O.B.E., Chief Minister, Kapurthala State. *b.* 15 October 1881. *m.* a daughter of Khan Sahib Sheikh Amir-ud-Din, retired Extra Asstt. Commissioner in the Punjab. *Educ.*: Government College, Lahore. Judge, 1909; Supdt. of the Census Operations 1911; Head of the Executive and Revenue Depts. as Mashir Mal; Fellow of the Punjab University; Lately Member, Punjab Legislative Council; Chief Secretary, March 1915; Chief Minister, 1920. Khan Bahadur (1915), O.B.E. (1918); C.I.E. (1923)—Knighted, 3rd June 1933. Appointed by the Government of India Chairman of the Banking Enquiry Committee for the Centrally Administered Areas, 1929-30. Delegate at the Assembly of League of Nations in 1931. *Address:* Kapurthala.

ABDUL KARIM, MAULAVI, B.A., M.L.C., Government pensioner; Member, Council of State; Member, Bengal Legislative Council since 1926, *b.* 20 Aug. 1863. *m.* Ayesha Khatun of Calcutta. *Educ:* Sylhet and Calcutta. Started as a teacher in the Calcutta Madrasah; Assistant Inspector of Schools for Mahomedan Education for about 15 years; Inspector of Schools, Chittagong Division, for about five years. *Publications:* History of India for Beginners in English, Bengali, Hindi and Urdu; Students' History of India. The Mahomedan Empire in India in Bengali; Hints on Class Management and Method of Teaching in English; and Mahomedan Education in Bengal (English). *Address:* 13-1, Wellesley Square, Calcutta.

ABDUL QAIYUM, Nawab Sir Sahibzada, K.C.I.E. (1917), *b.* 1866; formerly in Foreign and Political Department; Government of India and Pol. Agent. Khyber Black Mountain Expedition 1888 (despatches), Samana Expedition 1891, Tirah Expedition 1897-8 (despatches, Khan Bahadur), Zakka-Khel Expedition 1908 (C.I.E.); on Indo-Afghan Boundary Commns. 1894-5; has been an M.L.A. since 1923; received title Nawab 1915; and Kaisar-i-Hind Gold Medal 1929. One of the founders of and Life Hony. Secretary, Islamia College, Peshawar; Member, Indian Round Table Conference; First Minister, N. W. F. P. Government. *Address:* Peshawar.

ABDUSSAMAD KHAN, SAHEBZADA SIR, C.I.E. (Kt., 1934), Holds 1st Class Kaisar-i-Hind; Chief Minister, Rampur State. *b.* September 1874. *m.* A Princess of Ruling Family of Loharoo State. *Educ:* In India under European Tutors. Private Secretary to His late Highness 1894 to 1900; Chief Secretary 1900 to 1930; Chief Minister 1930 onwards; Was deputed as an Adviser to Indian States Delegation; Round Table Conference, August 1931; Imperial Economic Conference, Otttawa, May 1932 and Delegate on behalf of Indian States to the Assembly of League of Nations, 1933. *Address:* The Mall, Rampur (State), U.P.

ABERCROMBIE, JOHN ROBERTSON, Merchant, Director, Wilson Latham & Co., Ltd., *b.* June 11, 1888. *m.* Elsie Maude *d.* of E. W. Collin late I.C.S. *Educ:* Cheltenham Coll. Came to India as Assistant in 1910; joined I. A. R. O. Feb. 1915. Joined 18th K.G.O. Lancers in France, May 1916; active service in France, May 1916—March 1918 and in Palestine March 1918—Feb. 1919. Military Cross and mentioned in despatches. Vice-President, Bombay Chamber of Commerce, 1925; President, 1930; Member, Bombay Legislative Council, 1925-26 and 1930-31. *Address:* Central Bank Buildings, Bruce Street, Bombay.

ABHEDANANDA, HIS HOLINESS SREEMAT SWAMI, PH.D. (New York); President, Ramakrishna Vedanta Society, Calcutta, Spiritual Teacher, Lecturer and Author. *b.* Oct. 2, 1866. *Educ:* Calcutta University. Disciple of Sri Ramakrishna Paramahamsa and a spiritual brother of Swami Vivekananda, a Trustee of the Belur Math and Ramakrishna Mission. Went to London in 1896 to lecture on Hindu Philosophy (Vedanta). In 1897 went to New York, U. S. A., and organised the Vedanta Society of New York. Lectured before educational institutions, societies and universities for twenty-five years in England, America and Canada. Returned to Calcutta in 1921 and established the Ramakrishna Vedanta Society of which he has since been President and also of Ramakrishna Vedanta Ashrama at Darjeeling, of Ramakrishna Ashram at Salkea, Dt. Howrah and of Ramakrishna Vivekananda Ashram at Muzzafarpur of Chatra Bhaktashram, Dist. Seranpur as well as of "Abhedananda Institute." Darjeeling. *Publications:* Reincarnation; Spiritual Unfoldment; Philosophy of work; How to be a Yogi; Divine Heritage of Man; Self-Knowledge (Atma Jnan); India and her People; Gospel of Ramakrishna; Sayings of Ramakrishna; Human Affection and Divine Love; Great Saviours of the World, "The Doctrine of Karma"; "The Religion of the Twentieth Century; "Lectures and Addresses in India;" and a number of pamphlets in English and Bengali; Founder and Editor of *Biswa-Bani*, an illustrated Bengali monthly Magazine of the R. K. V. Society. *Address:* Ram Krishna Vedanta Society, 19/B., Raja Raj Kissen Street, Calcutta.

ACHARYA, M.K., B.A., L.T., Ex-M.L.A., Public Worker and Journalist. *b.* 1876. *m.* Rukmani Ammal, in 1894, Two sons. *Educ:* at the Madras Christian College. Lecturer, 1896 to 1902: Head Master, 1902-1917; independent political worker since 1917. *Publications:* Portraits from Indian Classics, A Hand-Book of Morals, "Kumuda" a drama, "Dasaratha" a tragedy, "Shri Krishna Karna Mrita," The Basic Blunder in the reconstruction of Indian Chronology by Orientalists, Indo-Britannia, etc.; elected as a Member to the Indian Legislative Assembly by the Chinglepet *cum* S.

Arcot Non-Mahomedan Constituency in 1923 and 1926. Till 1928 a prominent Member of the Swaraj Party and the Congress. Since 1929 a prominent member of the All-India Varnashram Swarajya Sangha of Orthodox Hindus. *Address:* 46, Lingha Chetti Street, Madras, E.

ACLAND, RICHARD DYKE, The Right Rev. M.A., Bishop of Bombay, (1929). *b.* 1881. *Educ.* Bedford and Oxford. Deacon 1905; Priest 1906; Curate St. Mary's, Slough 1905-10; S. P. G. Missions, Ahmednagar, Kolhapur, Dapoli, Bombay, 1911-1929. *Address:* Bishop's Lodge, Malabar Hill, Bombay 6.

ADDISON, MAJOR-GENERAL GEORGE HENRY, M. A. (Camb.), M.I. Mech. E., D.S.O. (1915), C.M.G. (1917), C.B. (1933); Engineer-in-Chief, Army Headquarters, India, since May 1932. *b.* 13 May 1876. *m.* Margaret Henderson, 1905. *Educ:* Wellington College. R. M. Academy, Woolwich; King's College, Cambridge (Fellow Commoner). First Commission in R. E. 1895; served throughout S. African War, 1899-1902; Great War, 1914-1918; Promoted to Major-General in 1931. *Address:* Army Headquarters, Delhi and Simla.

ADVANI, MOTIRAM SHOWKIRAM, Kaisar-i-Hind Gold Medal (1919); President, Hyderabad Educational Society. *b.* 12 October 1868. *m.* Margaret Annesley, *d.* of the late Rev. Charles Voysey. *Educ:* The Albert School and Presidency College, Calcutta. Barrister (Inner Temple), 1892; Practised in Karachi, 1892-1904; Assistant Judge, Hyderabad, 1904; Acted as District Judge, Hyderabad, 1905, Permanent District Judge, 1911. Served in Thana, Surat. District Judge, Broach, 1917-1922 and District Judge, Nasik, until June 1924. *Address:* No. 6, Bungalow, Cantonment, Hyderabad, Sind.

AGA KHAN, AGA SULTAN MAHOMED SHAH, P. C. (1934); G.C.I.E. (1902); G.C.S.I. (1911); G.C.V.O. (1923); K.C.I.E. (1898); LL.D., Hon. Camb. *b.* 1875; Brilliant Star of Zanzibar, 1900, 1st Class; has many religious followers in East Africa, Central Asia and India; head of Ismail Mahomedans; granted rank and status of first class chief with salute of 11 guns in recognition of loyal services during European War. *Publication:* India in Transition. *Address:* Aga Hall, Bombay.

AGARWALA, LALA GIRDHARILAL, B.A., Advocate, High Court, Allahabad, Member, First Legislative Assembly. *b.* 16th Feb. 1878, *m.* sister of Lala Banwari Lal Gupta, B.A., LL.B., Vakil, High Court (Muttra). *Educ:* Agra College, B.S.M., London. Moved resolution in Legislative Assembly *re* Indian Governors, Chief Justices, etc., 27th Sept. 1921 at Simla and Bill to remove inequalities between Vakils and Barristers. Was Director, Moradabad Spinning and Weaving Mills for 10 years, and of Babrala Cotton Gin and Press Co., Ltd., for 6 years; original member, U. P. Chamber of Commerce; Secry., U. P. Hindu Sabha. Elected Member of the first Bar Council, Agra Province, President, Agarwal Seva Samiti (Social Service and Scouting). *Publications:* an article *re* use of aircraft during war in "Legitimite de la Guerre Aerienne," Proposed legislation for protection of Cows and improvement of Cattle in India, Hindu Home and Temple in London, Parallel Agra Tenancy Act, 1926, and the Law of Pre-emption; Member, Hindu Law Research Society, Member of Court, Benares Hindu University. *Address:* 33, George Town, Allahabad.

AGA SHAH ROOKH SHAH, Nawab Shah Rookh Yar Jung Bahadur (1923). *b.* 1874, eldest *s.* of Aga Akbar Shah; *g.s.* of H. H. the First Aga Khan, *m. e. d.* of the late Aga Shahabuddin Shah (1897). *Educ.*: English and Persian. Hon. A.D.C. to H. E. H. the Nizam of Hyderabad, 1918; Hon. Private Secretary to H. H. the Aga Khan, 1900; M.L.C., ex-President, Poona Suburban Municipality, 1925 to 1931; Founder and President, Servants of Islam Society, Poona, 1926; ex-Director, Queen Mary's Technical School for Disabled Indian Soldiers, Kirkee, 1923; Life Fellow, Royal Society of Arts (London) since 1927; President, Poona District Muslim Educational Society, Poona, since 1928, etc. *Address*: 13, Connaught Road, Poona.

AHMAD, DR. ZIA-UDDIN, C.I.E., M.A. (Cantab.), Ph.D., D.Sc., M.L.A., Pro. Vice-Chancellor, Muslim University, Aligarh, 1920-28. *b.* 1878. *Educ:* Aligarh Trin. Coll., Cambridge. (Sir Isaac Newton Scholar), Paris, Bologna, Hazbe (Cairo), Gottingen (Ph. D.) and Allahabad (D.Sc.); Member of Calcutta University Commn.; *Address:* Member, Legislative Assembly, New Delhi.

AHMED, KABEERUD-DIN, M.L.A., Bar-at-Law and Advocate, Calcutta High Court; Landholder. *b.* 1886. *Educ.:* Malda Govt. High English School and Magdalene College, Cambridge. Called to the Bar in 1910; Member, University Court, Dacca. Founder of Bengal Jotedars and Raiyats' Association and its Hon. Secretary; takes great interest in agriculture; was elected Presdt., Bengal Agricultural Conference in 1917; Organiser, Founder and President, Indian Seamen's Union, Calcutta, 1922-27; elected its Patron, 1929. Elected member, Bengal Legislative Council in 1920; elected member, Legislative Assembly, 1921-23; 1924-26; 1927-30; re-elected again in 1930 from the Rajshahi Division; Founder of Parliamentary Muslim Party in Indian Legislative Assembly 1924, and its Chief Whip. Member, Central National Mahomedan Assoc., Calcutta; Member, Democratic Party in Indian Legislature, 1921-23; Member of the Royal Commission on Labour, 1929-31. *Publications:* Handbook of Equity, Roman Law, etc. *Address:* 10, Hastings Street, Calcutta; Bishwanathpur, Kansant P.O. Malda (Bengal).

AHMED, KHAN BAHADUR KAZI SIR AZIZUDIN, Kt., C.I.E., O.B.E., I.S.O., Chief Minister, Datia State. *b.* 7 April 1861. *Educ.*: at Gonda High School. *m. d.* of Mirza Mahomed Ismail, Subordinate Judge, Gonda, 1893. Served in the P. C. S., U. P., for 34 years during which time acted as Magistrate and Collector, Bulandshar and Asstt. Director of Agriculture and Commerce, U. P.; was on deputation with His Majesty the late Amir of Kabul during his Indian tour; services lent to Bharatpur State in 1910 for employment as Rev. Member of Council of Regency; transferred to Dholpur, 1913 and retired from Government service in 1920 but continued to serve His Highness the Maharaja of Dholpur as Judicial Minister; rendered valuable services to the British Government during non-co-operation days 1922-23 and 1930-31. Appointed Chief Minister, Datia, in 1922. Is member of the Court of the Delhi University and Aligarh University and Trustee, Agra College, Member, Senate of the Agra University, was Fellow, Allahabad University, 1907-20, and Member, Royal Asiatic Society, London; State Scout Commissioner for Datia State; President, St. John Ambulance Association and Red Cross Society, Datia State Centre. Awarded by the Grand Priory, St. John's Gate, London, an insignia on admission as an Associate Serving Brother of the Venerable Order of the Hospital of St. John of Jerusalem. Was awarded a jagir of Rs. 5,000 per annum in recognition of his meritorious services by H. H. the Maharaja of Datia on the occasion of the celebration of his Silver Jubilee. *Publications:* Author of about 40 books in English and Urdu including life of H. M. King George V. and H. R. H. the Prince of Wales, Commentaries on Criminal Procedure Code and U. P. Land Revenue Act; translated into Urdu at the request of Government of India proceedings of the War Conference, 1919 and History of Coronation Durbar, 1911. *Address:* Datia.

AIKMAN, DAVID WANN, C.I.E. (1912), Consulting Engineer to the Cawnpore Improvement Trust. *b.* 8 December 1863. *Educ.*: Cooper's Hill. *m.* Marion Drummond Stewart. Joined P. W. D., 1885. Retd., 1918. *Publication:* Roorkee treatise on water supply, Consulting Engineer for the Cawnpore Water-Work, etc. *Address:* Charleville, 2, Simla; and 18, Clyde Road, Lucknow.

AINSCOUGH SIR THOMAS MARTLAND, KT.(1932) C.B.E.(1925), M. Com., F.R.G.S. His Majesty's Senior Trade Commissioner in India and Ceylon. *b.* 1886. *m.* Mabel, *d.* of the late W. Lincolne of Ely, Cambs. two *s.* one *d. Educ.*: Manchester Gr. School, Switzerland and Manchester University. In business in China, 1907-12; Spl. Commissioner to the Board of Trade in China, 1914; Sec., Board of Trade Textile Committee, 1916; Sec., Empire Cotton Growing Committee, 1917; Expert Assist.to Persian Tariff Revision Commission, 1920. Member of the Royal Asiatic Society Central Asian Society and Fellow of the Royal Society of Arts. *Publications*: "Notes from a Frontier." *Address:* Bengal Club, Calcutta.

AIYANGAR, CHETLURU DURAISWAMI, B.A., B.L., Advocate, Madras and Mysore High Courts and Ex-Member, Legislative Assembly. *b.* 1873. *Educ:* Madras Christian College and Law College. Schoolmaster for two years; then Vakil from July 1899; occupied offices of President, District Congress Committee, Dist. Conference, etc. President, Taluk Board and Chairman, Municipal Council, Chittoor, for some years. President, Andhra Provincial Conference, 1928; President, Postal, and R.M. S. Union, Madras Province, 1929; *Publications.* Estates Land Act in Telung; Sri Venkatesa or the First Archa; lessons from Sri Bhagavad Gita; Hinduism in the light of Visishta dvaitam, Gandhi Unveiled. *Address* Chittoor.

ALI, A. F. M. ABDUL, M.A. *b.* 1884. Son of Nawab Bahadur Abdul Latif Khan, C. I. E. *Educ:* St. Xavier's, Doveton College, Calcutta. Founder of Moslem Institute, Calcutta, Founder and Editor of the Journal of the Moslem Institute. Joined Bengal Civil Service, 1906; placed on special duty, Political Department, Bengal, as Special Press Censor, Sept. 1918 to March 1919; Police Magte., Alipore, September 1921 to March 1922; Appt. Keeper of the Records of the Govt. of India and *Ex-Officio* Assistant Secretary to the Govt. of India, April 1922. Secretary to the India Historical Records Commission; Trustee and Honorary Secretary of the Indian Museum; Fellow, Calcutta University; Member of the Court of the Dacca University; Member, Executive Committee of the Countess of Dufferin Fund. Past President, Rotary Club of Calcutta. Member of the Executive Committee, District Charitable Society; Governor of the Calcutta Blind School; President of the Bengal Olympic Association; Member of the Executive Committee of the Bengal Flying Club; Secretary, Calcutta Historical Society; Vice-President, Calcutta Mahomedan Orphanage. President of the Refuge for the Homeless and Helpless and Governor of the Calcutta Juvenile House of Detention. *Address:* 3, Turner Street, Calcutta.

ALI, KHAN BAHADUR MIR ASAD, Merchant Jagirdar *b.* August 1789. *m.* to Leakut-Anisa Begum, *d.* of Nawab Ali Yaver Jung, Bahadur of Hyderabad (Deccan). *Educ.*: Nizam Coll., Hyderabad. Hon. Magte., Madras, 1912. Member, Imperial Legislative Council, 1913-20; Member, Legislative Assembly, 1921-23: Presdt. Elect, Dist. Political Confce. of Pullampet, 1916. Presdt. Elect, Dist. Political Conference Malabar, 1918; Presdt., Provincial Educational Confee., Poona, 1919; Presdt., Madras Presidency Muslim League, 1917-20; Presdt.-Elect of All-India Unani Confce., Delhi, 1917. President, Unani-Ayurvedic Confce., Hyderabad, 1922. *Publications:* "Maasharat," Urdu translation of the *Use of Life* by Lord Avebury; "Iraq-wo-Iran" Member, Cosmopolitan Club and Nizam Club, retired from

Public Life, 1927, visited holy places in Iraq and Persia in 1929. Visited holy places in Palestine, Syria, Egypt and Hedjaz in Arabia in 1932. *Address:* Banganapalle.

ALIKHAN, KUNWER HAJEE ISMAIEL, M.L.A.; Raies of Asrauli Estate, (Bulandshahr). Chairman, City Board, Mussoorie. *b.* Dec. 1897. *m. d.* of late Kunwer Abdul Shakur Khan, Chief of Dharampore. *Educ.:* Persian and Arabic at home, English St. Peter's College, Agra. Was elected a Member of the City Board, Mussoorie, 1922. Junior Vice-Chairman a year later. Attended Wembley 1924), Fellow of the British Empire Exhibition. Toured European countries, Western Asia and Northern Africa (1924-25), Chairman, Proposed High School Committee, Mussoorie (1925), General Secretary, Reception Committee, All-India Muslim-Rajput Conference (1925); Vice-President and Hony. Treasurer of the All-India Muslim Rajput Conference. Elected Member of the United Provinces Legislative Council from the Bulandshahr District Mohammadan Rural Constituency (1926); Secretary, Ghana Nand High School, Mussoorie (1927-29). President, Anjuman Islamia, Mussoorie (1928-29). Manager-in-Charge, Islamia School, Mussoorie (1929-30). Elected Member of the Legislative Assembly from the Meerut Division Muhammadan Rural Constituency (1930). Member of the Governing Body the School of Agriculture, Bulandshahr. President, Tilak Memorial Library, Mussoorie. Hereditary Darbari of the Government. Chief Whip and founder of United India Party in the Assembly; Member, Public Accounts Committee of Government of India; Member of Standing Haj Committee and Labour and Industry Committee. *Publications:* Talim-e-Niswan Muslim Rajputan-i-Hind. Council Speeches, Presidential Address of Mussoorie Tanzim. *Address:* Summer:—Devonshire House, Mussoorie. Winter:—Asrauli Estate (Bulandshahr). U.P.

ALI IMAM SIR SYED. (See under Imam).

ALI, SHAUKAT. *b.* Rampur State, 10th March 1873. *Educ.:* M.A.O. Coll., Aligarh (Capt. Cricket XI). In Govt. Opium Dept. for 17 years. Sec. and Organiser, Aligarh Old Boys' Assoc. Trustee, M.A.O. Coll. Organised collection of funds for Aligarh University. Interned during the war. Prominent leader of the Khilafat movement, 1919-20, and of Non-co-operation movement. Sec., Central Khilafat Committee. Founder and Secretary of Kkuddam-i-Kaaba Society. Appointed Member, Round Table Conference to represent Moslems; travelled in Moslem lands and helped in organizing the World Moslem Conference; visited Egypt, Palestine, Syria, Irak, Zemen and Hejaz. Invited to America to deliver lectures about India and Islam in 1933. *Address:* Khilafat House, Love Lane, Bombay, 10. Rampur State, U.P.

ALWAR, HIS HIGHNESS BHARAT DHARAM PRABHAKAR SEWAI MAHARAJ RAJ RISHI SHRI JEY SINGHJI DEV VEERENDRA SHIROMANI, G.C.S.I. (1924), G.C.I.E. (1919), K.C.I.E. (1919), K.C.S.I. (1911) Col. in British Army, 1919; General in Chief of the Alwar State Forces; *b.* 1882; S. father, His Highness Shri Sewai Maharaj Mangal Sighji Dev Veerendra Shiromani, G.C.S.I., 1892; *m.* one c; maintains two regiments of infantry and one Garrison force. The infantry participated in operation for relief of Pekin, 1900; infantry and cavalry both served at front in European War; State has area of 3,185 square miles, and population in round figures of 7,50,000, salute, seventeen guns. *Recreations:* Racquets; shooting; fishing; polo (his Polo team won the Open Cup at the Delhi Durbar, 1903); motoring; tennis. *Address:* The Palace, Alwar, Rajputana India, T.A. Alwarendra, Alwar.

ANANTA KRISHNA AYYAR, The Hon'ble Mr. Justice Rao Bahadur C. V., B.A., B.L., Judge of the Madras High Court. *b.* 1874. *Educ.:* Madras Christian College and the Madras Law College; Carmichael and Innes Prizeman in Law. Apprenticed to the late Justice P.R. Sundara Ayyar. Enrolled as a Vakil of the Madras High Court, in 1898; Election Commissioner, 1921-23. Government Pleader, Madras, 1923-27. Acted as a Judge of the Madras High Court in 1927. Appointed Advocate-General, Madras, in March 1928; Elevated to the Bench as a permanent Judge in December 1928; Member of the Law College Council from 1921-1931; First Chairman of the Madras Bar Council. *Address:* "Sweta Sadan", No 1, Brodies Road, Mylapore, Madras.

ANDERSON, SIR GEORGE, Kt. (1924); C.I.E. (1920); M.A. (Oxon); Educational Commissioner to the Government of India. *b.* 15th May 1876. *m.* to Gladys Alice Morony. *Educ.:* Winchester College, University College, Oxford. Transvaal Education Department, 1902-10; Indian Educational Service, Professor of History, Elphinstone College, Bombay; Assistant Secretary, Calcutta University Commission, 1918-1919; Member, Enquiry Committee of the Muslim University, Aligarh, Oct. 1927; Member of the Education Committee of the Indian Statutory Commission, 1928-29. *Publications:* The Expansion of British India: British Administration in India; Short History of the British Empire. *Address:* Government of India, Simla and Delhi.

ANDERSON, THE RT. HON. SIR JOHN, P.C., G.C.B. (1923). G. C. I. E. Governor of Bengal (1932). *b.* 8 July, 1882. *m.* Christina (*d.* 1920) 3rd *d.* of the late Andrew Mackenzie of Edinburgh: one *s.* one *d.* *Educ.:* George Watson's College, Edinburgh, and Edinburgh and Leipzig. Universities Entered the Colonial Office in 1905. Secretary of the Northern Nigeria Lands Committee, 1909; Secretary of the West African Currency Committee, 1911; Principal Clerk in the office of Insurance Commissioners, 1912; Secretary to Insurance Commissioners, 1913; Secretary, Ministry of Shipping, 1917-19; Additional Secretary to the Local Government Board, April 1919; Second Secretary, Ministry of Health, 1919; Chairman of the Board of Inland Revenue, 1919-22; Joint Under-Secretary to the Lord

Lieutenant of Ireland, 1920. Permanent Under-Secretary of State at the Home Office, 1922 to 1932. *Address:* Government House, Calcutta.

ANDREWS, CHARLES FREER, Professor in the International University of Rabindranath Tagore at Santiniketan, Bengal. *b.* 12 February 1871. *Educ.:* King Edward's School, Birmingham and Pembroke College, Cambridge. Fellow and Lecturer of Pembroke College, Cambridge, 1899. Professor in St. Stephen's College, Delhi, and member of Cambridge University Brotherhood, Fellow and some time member of Syndicate, Punjab University from 1904 to 1913; since that date at Santiniketan, Bengal. *Publications:* "Christianity and the Labour Problem", "North India", "The Renaissance in India", "Christ and Labour", "The Indian Problem", "Indians in South Africa", "To the Students," "The Drink and Drug Evil." "What I owe to Christ," "Christ in the Silence." Correspondent, *Manchester Guardian Cape Argus, Natal Advertiser. Address:* Santiniketan, Bolpur, Bengal.

ANKLIKER, LT.-COL. AMIR-UL-UMRA SARDAR SIR APPAJIRAO SAHIB SITOLE DESHMUKH, SENA HARDOO, SAH-SHRI, K.B.E. (1919); C.I.E. (1913); Member of the Gwalior Government in Department of Revenue, since 1918 and Vice-President, Council of Regency, (1925) *b.* 1874. *Educ:* Belgaum. Pte. Secretary to the Maharaja of Gwalior, 1897. *m.* the youngest daughter of the late Maharaja Jayjirao Sahib Scindia of Gwalior. *Address:* Gwalior.

ANNA RAO, CHALIKANI, B.A. (Chemistry); Landholder and Director of Luxmi Rangam Copper Mines. *b.* 1 January 1909. *m.* to Anasuyadevi, *d.* of Rajah of Panagal. *Educ:* Presidency College, Madras. *Address:* Bobbili, Vizagapatam District.

ARCOT, PRINCE OF, SIR GHULAM MAHOMED ALI KHAN BAHADUR, G.C.I.E. (1917), K.C.I.E. (1909). *b.* 22 Feb. 1882. *s.* father, 1903. Premier Mahomedan nobleman of Southern India, being the direct male descendant and representative of the Sovereign Ruler of the Karnatic. *Educ:* Newington Court Wards Institutions, Madras under C. Morrison, M. A.; Member of Madras Legislative Council, 1904-6; Member of the Imperial Legislative Council (Mahomedan Electorate) of the Madras Presidency, 1910-13; Member of the Madras Legislative Council by nomination, 1916; President, All-India Muslim Association, Lahore; President, South India Islamiah League, Madras. Presided All-India Muslim League, 1910, Life Member, Lawley Institute, Ooty; Life Member, South Indian Athletic Association, Club, Gymkhana Madras. *Address:* Amir Mahal Palace, Madras.

AROGYASWAMI MUDALIAR, DIWAN BAHADUR RAYAPURAM NALLAVEERAN, B.A., B.C.E., Rao Bahadur (1915) and Diwan Bahadur (1925); *b.* 18th April 1870. *Educ:* Madras Christian College and College of Engineering, Madras. Entered service under Madras Government Asstt. Engineer in 1896 and retired as Superintending Engineer in 1925 Minister for Public Health and Excise (resigned in March 1928) *Address:* Leith Castle, San Thome, Mylapore.

ASH, HERBERT DUDLEY, A.M.I.E.E., Director, Turner Hoare & Co., Ltd. *b.* 1879. *m.* Madeline Edith Ash. *Educ:* Haileybury College. Attached 29th Lancers, 1915-17; Staff Captain Indian Cav. Brigade, 1917-19. Twice mentioned in despatches. *Address:* C/o Turner Hoare and Co., Ltd., Bombay.

ASTON, ARTHUR HENRY SOUTHCOTE, M.A. (Oxon), Bar-at-Law, (Lincoln's Inn.) Additional Judicial Commissioner in Sind. *b.* 4 July 1874. *m.* to Lilian, *d.* of the late Col. A. R. Savile. *Educ:* Harrow School, Balliol College, Oxford. Public Prosecutor in Sind, 1906; Chief Presidency Magistrate, Bombay, 1906; Acting Additional Judicial Commissioner in Sind, 1920-23. *Publications:* Joint Editor, Starling's Indian Criminal Law (8th Edition); Editor (9th Edition). *Address:* The Ridge, Bath Island, Karachi.

AYANGAR, VALANGIMAN KRISHNASWAM ARAVAMUDHA, M.A. (1914); C.I.E. (1928); Secretary, Indian Central Banking Enquiry Committee. *b.* 15th December 1891. *d.* of Prof. K. R. Ramaswami Ayangar, Prof. of Mathematics, Engineering College, Madras (retired); *Educ:* Kumbakonam Government College and Madras Presidency College. Office of the Accountant General, Madras; Personal Assistant to the Controller of Currency, Calcutta; Asstt. Secretary, Finance Department, Govt. of India; Jt. Secretary to the Royal Commission on Indian Currency and Finance; Under-Secretary to Govt. of India, Finance Department; Member of the Joint Committee on the Reserve Bank of India Bill; Under-Secretary, Commerce Department, Govt. of India. Officer on special duty, Finance Department, Govt. of India and Secretary, Indian Central Banking Enquiry Committee. Budget-Office, Finance Department, Government of India. *Address:* Wingate, Simla.

AZIZ, SYED ABDUL, Barrister-at-Law, Minister of Education, Bihar and Orissa. *b.* 1885. *Educ.:* Patna Collegiate School, Patna College and B. N. College. Called to the Bar in 1911 by the Middle Temple. Enrolled Advocate of Calcutta High Court, 1913 and of Patna High Court, 1916. Founded the Anjuman Islamia Urdu Public Library and the Patna Club; President, Anjuman Islamia and Patna Muslim Orphanage; interested in the development of Urdu language; presided over Several Literary Conferences; returned to Provincial Legislature in 1926 from Patna Division and again 1930; leader of the Ahrar Party in the Council; Minister of Education from January 15, 1934. *Address:* "Dilkusha," Patna, E. I. Ry. (Bihar and Orissa).

BABER, SHUM SHERE JUNG BAHADOOR RANA, General of the Nepalese Army, G.B.E.; (Hon.Mil.) *cr.* 1919; K.C.S.I. (Hon.) *cr.* 1919; K.C.I.E. (Hon.) *cr.* 1916; Hon. Colonel, British Army (1927). *b.* 27 January 1888; 2nd *s.* of His late Highness Hon. General Maharaja Sir Chandra Shum Shere Jung, G.C.B., G.C.S.I., G.C.M.G., G.C.V.O., etc., of Nepal and Her late Highness Bada Maharani Chandra Lokabhakta Laxmi Devi. *m.* 1903, Deva Vakta Lakshmi Devi; 2 *s.* 2 *d.* Director-General, Police Forces, Katmandu, 1903-1929; was present at the Delhi Caronatiou Durbar, 1903; visited Europe, 1908: was in charge of shooting arrangements during King George's shoot in Nepal, Terai, 1911; attached to the Army Headquarters, India (March 1915 to February 1919) as Inspector-General of Nepalese Contingents in India during the Great War (Despatches, specially; thanks of Commanders-in-Chief in India; K.C.S.I., K.C.I.E., for Meritorious Service; received the 1st class Order of the Star of Nepal with the title of Supradipta Manyabara, 1918; the thanks of the Nepalese Government and a Sword of Honour); European War (Waziristan Field Force, 1917) Despatches; special mention by Commander-in-Chief in India and Governor-General in Council; the Nepalese Military Decoration for bravery; the British War and Victory Medals; at Army Headquarters, India, as Inspector-General of Nepalese Contingent during Afghan War, 1919; (Despatches G.B.E.; India General Service Medal with Clasp). Represented Nepal at the Northern Command Manœuvres (Attock, Nov. 1925). In memory of his son Bala Shum Shere supplied (1921) Pokhara, a hill-station in Nepal, with pipe drinking water at a cost of over Rs. 1,00,000. *Address:* Baber Mahal, Katmandu, Nepal, *via* India.

BADLEY, BRENTON THOBURN (BISHOP), M. A., D.D., LL. D., Fellow of the American Geographical Society; Member, Phi Beta Kappa Fraternity; Member, Sigma Alpha Epsilon Fraternity; Bishop of the Methodist Episcopal Church, Bombay Area. *b.* May 29 1876. *m.* Mary Putnam Stearns of Boston University, Boston, Mass., U.S.A. *Educ:* Philander Smith College, Naini Tal (High School); Ohio Wesleyan Univ., Delaware Ohio, B. A., D.D.; Columbia Univ. New York City, M.A.; Simpson College, Indianola, Iowa (LL.D.) Professor of English Literature, Lucknow Christian College, Lucknow, 1900-1909; Gen. Secretary, Epworth League, India and Burma, 1910-17, Associate Secretary, Board of Foreign Missions, New York, 1918-19; Executive Secretary, Centenary Movement, India and Burma, 1920-24; Consecrated Bishop (American Methodist Episcopal Church) May 1924. *Publications:* "The Making of a Christian College in India" (Calcutta) 1906; "God's Heroes; Our Examples" (Mysore City) 1913; "New Etchings of Old India" (New York) 1917; "India, Beloved of Heaven" (New York) 1918; "Hindustan's Horizons" (Calcutta) 1923; "Indian Church Problems" (Madras) 1930; "The Solitary Throne" (Madras) 1931; "Visious and Victories in Hindustan" (Madras); "Warne of India" (Madras) 1932. *Address:* "Robinson Memorial", Byculla, Bombay.

BAGCHI, SATISCHANDRA, B.A., LL.D., Barrister-at-Law; Principal, University Law College, Calcutta. *b.* Jan. 1882. *Educ.*: Santipur Municipal School, Calcutta; St. John's College, Cambridge, B. A., Calcutta University, 1901, B.A., LL.B., Cambridge Dublin, LL.D., Trinity College, Dublin, 1907; Fellow, Calcutta University, 1909; Tagore Professor of Law, 1915; Member of the Faculty of Law, Dacca Uni. 1931; head of the department of Law, Allahabad Uni. 1931-32; Dean of the Faculty of Law, Allahabad Univ., 1931-32; Asutosh Mukerji Lecturer in Law, Calcutta Univ., 1931, called to Bar, Gray's Inn, 1907. *Address:* Principal's Quarters, Darbhanga Buildings, University Law College, Calcutta.

BAILEY, ARTHUR CHARLES JOHN, King's Police Medal (1920), C. I. E. (1931); Deputy Inspector-General of Police. *b.* 2nd October 1886. *m.* to Heather M. H. Hickie. *Educ:* St. Andrew's College and King's Hospital, Dublin. Joined Indian Police, 1906. *Address:* Belgaum, M. & S. M. Rly.

BAIRD, MAJOR-GENERAL HARRY BEAUCHAMP DOUGLAS, C.B., C.M.G., C.I.E., D.S.O., Croix de guerr, (France) with palms; Commander Deccan District. *b.* 4th April, 1877. *m.* Mary, *d.* of Captain A. Caldecott. *Educ.*: Clifton and R.M.C. Sandhurst. 12th Bengal Cavalry; Brigade Major, I.G.C.; A.D.C. to G.O.C. in Chief, Aldershot; A.D.C. to G.O.C. 1st Corps, B.E.F.; G.S.O. (Ind.), Cav. Corps.; O.C. 8th Argyllshire Highlanders; G.O.C. 75th Imp. Brigade, B.E.F., B.G.G.S., Baluchistan Corps, Third Afghan War; G.O.C. Zob Brigade; Commandant S.O.S. Belgaum; D.A. and Q.M.G., Northern Command, G.O.C. Kohat District; G.O.C. Deccan District; Tirah, 1897-1898, Great War, France 1914-18; Third Afghan War, Waziristan Operations 1921.

BAJPAI, GIRJA SHANKAR, B.A. (Oxon.); B.Sc. (Allahabad); C.B.E. (Civil), 1922; C.I.E., 5 July 1926; I.C.S.; Joint Secretary to the Government of India, Department of Education, Health and Lands. *b.* 3 April 1891. *Educ.*: Muir Central College, Allahabad and Merton College, Oxford. Appointed to the I.C.S. in November 1915; Asstt. Magistrate and Collector, United Provinces, 1915-1919; Under-Secretary to Government, United Provinces, 1920-21; Private Secretary to the Rt. Hon. V. S. Srinivasa Sastri and Secretary for India at Imperial Conference, 1921; and at Conference for Limitation of Armaments, Washington, 1921-22; on deputation to the dominions of Canada, Australia, and New Zealand to investigate the status of Indian residents in those territories, 1922; Under-Secretary to the Government of India, Dept. of Education, Health and Lands, 1923; officiating Deputy Secretary to the Government of

India, Department of Education, Health and Lands, 1924; Secretary to the Indian deputation to South Africa, 1925-26; Deputy Secretary to the Government of India, June 1926. *Address:* Secretary to Government of India, 1927-29; Private Secretary to the Leaders of Indian Delegations to Geneva, 1929 and 1930; Joint Secretary to British Indian Delegation to the Indian Round Table Conference, 1930-31; Joint Secretary to Government of India, Department of Education, Health and Lands.

BAJPAI, PANDIT SANKATA PRASADA, Rai-Bahadur, B.A., Zemindar and Banker. *b.* Nov. 18, 1886. *m.* Shrimati Sumitra Devi. *Educ.*; Canning College, Lucknow; Ewing Christian College, Allahabad and University School of Law, Allahabad. Elected Member, Benares Hindu University in 1917; Elected Hon. Secy., Kheri Dist. Board, 1918; Appointed Hon. Magistrate, 1918; Elected Chairman, Lakhimpur Municipality, 1919, and Member of the Imperial Legislative Assembly, 1920; Elected Member, U.P. Legislative Council, 1926; Elected Chairman, Education Committee, District Board, Viheri, 1929; Elected Chairman, District Board, Kheri, March 1933. *Address:* Lakhimpore, Kheri, (Oudh).

BAKSHI SOHAN LAL, RAI BAHHDUR, Ex-M.L.A. (non-Mahomedan Constituency, Jullunder Division); Advocate, High Court, Lahore. *b.* 4 April 1857. Practised as Vakil in Kangra, Jullunder and Lahore. Elected Member, Punjab Legislative Council, 1913-20. *Address:* High Court, Lahore.

BALKRISHNA, DR., M.A., Ph. D., F.S.S., F.R.E.S., F.R. Hist. S., Principal and Prof. of Economics, Rajaram College and Inspector of Secondary Education, Kolhapur, *b.* 22nd December 1882. *m.* Miss Dayabai Malsey, B.P. N.A. *Educ:* Govt. High School, Multan, D.A.V College and Government College, Lahore; School of Economics and Politics, London. Was Principal and Governor of Gurukula University, Hardwar, for one year; Vice-Principal for six years and Professor of History and Economics for 11 years. Became Principal, Rajaram College, 1922. Director of Economic Bureau; President, Kolhapur Scout Association; Chairman, Secondary Teachers' Association; President, Technical School; Col. Wodehouse Orphanage, Shahu D Free High School; Member, State Panchayat. *Publications.*: (In English) Commercial Relations between India and England (1924); The Industrial Decline in India; Demands of Democracy (1925); Hindu Philosophers on Evolution; Shivaji the Great; Indian Constitution. (In Hindi): Seven books on History, Economics, Politics and Religion. History of India (In Marathi) *Address:* Shahpuri, Kolhapur.

BALRAMPUR, MAHARAJA PATESHWARI PRASAD SINGH SAHEB, minor under guardianship of the Court of Wards, United Provinces. *b.* 2 Jan. 1914. *m.* Nov. 1932, *d.* of H. H. the late Maharaja Sir Chandra Shamsher Jung Bahadur Rana, G.C.B., G.C.S.I., G.C.M.G., G.C.V.O., D.C.L. (Oxon), F.R.G.S., Prime Minister and Commander-in-Chief of Nepal Receiving Education at Mayo College, Ajmer *Address:* Balrampur.

BANERJEE, RAI BAHADUR SARAT CHANDRA, M.A., D.L., C.I.E., Advocate, High Court, Calcutta. *b.* 3rd October 1870. *m.* Sreemati Usha Devi. *Educ:* Presidency College, Calcutta and the Metropolitan Institution (Law); Lecturer in Mathematics, Physics, History and Political Economy, Free Church of Scotland Institution, Duff College, 1892; Vakil, High Court, 1893-1907; Legal Assistant, Legislative Department, Govt. of India, 1907-14; President, Calcutta Improvement Tribunal, 1914-1930. *Address:* 29, Sastitala Road, Narikeldanga, Calcutta.

BANERJI, SIR ALBION RAJKUMAR, Kt. (1925) I.C.S., C.S.I. (1921), C.I.E. (1911), *b.* Bristol, 10 Oct. 1871, *m.* 1898. *d.* of Sir Krishna Gupta. *Educ.:* Calcutta University, Balliol College, Oxford; M.A., 1892. Entered I.C.S., 1895; served as district officer in the Madras Presidency; Diwan to H. H. the Maharaja of Cochin, 1907-14; reverted to British service, 1915; Collector and District Magistrate, Cuddapah; services placed at the disposal of Government of India, Foreign Department, for employment as Member of the Executive Council of H.H. the Maharaja of Mysore, March 1916. Officiated as Dewan of Mysore, 1919. Retired from the I.C.S. Diwan of Mysore, 1922-26. Foreign Minister, Kashmir 1927-29. Awarded I Class title "Rajamantradhurina" of Gandabherunda Order, with Khillats by H. H. The Maharaja in open Durbar, Oct. 1923. *Publications:* The "Indian Tangle" (Published by Hutchinson & Co.) *Address:* C/o. Coutts and Co. 440, Strand, London, W. C. 2.

BANERJI, BHABO NATH, M.Sc. (Allahabad) Ph. D. (Cantab); Meteorologist, Bombay (on leave) *b.* 15 August 1895. *m.* Renuka Devi. *Educ:* Allahabad University, Central Hindu College, Benares, 1912-16, and Canning College, Lucknow, 1916-18. Research Scholar and Assistant Palit Professor of Physics, University post-graduate College of Science, Calcutta, 1918-20, with Sir C. V. Raman, Government of India University State Scholar from Allahabad Univ. at Cavendish Laboratory, Cambridge, with Sir J. J. Thomson, 1920-22. Joined Indian Meteorological Service January 1923; Meteorologist, Simla, 1923-26. As Meteorologist, Karachi Decr. 1926 to Nov. 1932 founded and organised on international lines the first aeroplane and airship meteorological centre at Karachi including a first class Observatory equipped with all self-recording meteorological instruments and investigational installations at the Airship Base, Drigh Road. On deputation to England, Scotland, Notway, Germany, Belgium, France, Italy and Egypt Oct. 1927 to August 1928 in connection with aviation meterology with particular reference to Airships. Fellow of the Royal Meteorological Society, London, 1928. Made special study of the Meteorology of the uninvestigated international air route from Persian Gulf to Karachi writing a book 'Meteorology of the Persian Gulf and Mekran' the first of its

kind for that region. Under London Air Ministry programme for the expected trial flight of the airship R. 101 being responsible for the section Basra to Karachi set up a complete temporary organisation for all the detailed requirements of the airship. Honorary member, Karachi Aero Club. Member from India on the "Commission de l'application de la Meteorologie a' la Navigation Aérienne" Permanent member, Indian Science Congress. Meteorologist, Bombay, since 15th November 1932. *Publications:* The book "Meteorology of the Persian Gulf and Mekran" and other original contributions in Physics and Meteorology published in various Indian and European Journals. *Address:* Colaba Observatory, Bombay.

BANERJI, SUKUMAR, RAI SAHIB, B.A., Assistant Commissioner of Police in charge of North Suburbs, Calcutta. *b.* 5 October 1880. *m.* to Suhasini, eldest *d.* of late Kumar Satyeswar Ghosal of Bhukailas Raj. *Educ:* St. Xavier's College, Calcutta, Law class, Government College, Krishnagar; Bengal Police Training School; obtained First prize in Law in the Final examination of the Police Training School. Joined Calcutta Police in 1902; has been on several occasions especially mentioned in the Annual Administration Reports of the Calcutta Police. Title of Rai Sahib conferred by Government, January 1931. *Address:* Police Headquarters, Lal Bazaar, Calcutta.

BAPNA, WAZIR-UD-DOWLA RAI BAHADUR S.M., C.I.E., B.A., B.Sc., LL.B., Prime Minister to His Highness the Maharaja Holkar. *b.* 24th April 1882. *m.* Shreemati Anand Kumari, *d.* of the late Mehta Bhopal Singh, Dewan of Udaipur *Educ:* at Maharana High School, Udaipur; Govt. College, Ajmer, and Muir Central College, Allahabad. For about a year practised law in Ajmer Merwara; served in Mewar for about a year and a half as Judicial Officer; appointed District and Sessions Judge in the Indore State in Jan. 1907. In 1908 was appointed Law Tutor to H. H. Maharaja Tukoji Rao Holkar III; appointed His Highness' Second Secretary in 1911 and First Secretary in 1913; appointed Home Minister in 1915; retired on special pension in April 1921; joined Patiala State as Minister and remained there till August 1923; rejoined Holkar State Service as Home Minister in 1923; soon after appointed Deputy Prime Minister and President of the Appeal Committee of the Cabinet. In February 1926 was appointed Prime Minister and President of the Cabinet. *Address:* Baxibag, Indore, C. I.

BARIA, MAJOR (HON.) HIS HIGHNESS MAHARAWAL SHRI SIR RANJITSINHJI, RAJA OF; K.C.S.I. (1922). *b.* 10 July 1886; two *s.* one *d. Educ:* Rajkumar College, Rajkot; Imperial Cadet Corps, Dehra Dun, and in England. Served in European War, 1914-15 and in the Afghan War, 1919. Receives a salute of eleven guns. *Address:* Devgad Baria, (Baria State Rly.)

BARKER, JOHN STAFFORD, M.V.O. (1911); P. W. Member and Chief Engineer, Holkar State. *b.* 6 Septr. 1879. *m.* Mary Gertrude, only *d.* of the late H. L. Moysey, I.S.O., Ceylon Civil Service. *Educ:* Bedford School and Royal Military Academy. Commissioned in Royal Engineers, 1898; retired as Lt.-Col. March 1929; Electrical Engineer, Delhi Durbar 1911; Chief Engineer, Holkar State 1912 to 1915, 1919-1922 and since February 1929. Served in Mesopotamia 1915 to fall of Kut-el-Amara, April 1916; mentioned in despatches for defence of Kut-el-Amara. Was C.R.E. Quetta for three and a half years before retirement from the Army. *Address:* Indore, Central India.

BARNE, THE RT. REV. GEORGE DUNSFORD, M.A. (Oxon), C.I.E. (1923), O.B.E. (1919), V.D. (1923); Elected Bishop of Lahore, April, 1932. *b.* May 6, 1879. *m.* Dorothy Kate Akerman. *Educ:* Clifton College and Oriel Coll., Oxford. Asstt. Master, Summerfields, Oxford, 1902-08; Curate of Christ Church, Simla, 1908-10; Chaplain of Sialkot, 1910; Chaplain of Hyderabad, Sind, 1911; and Asstt. Chaplain of Karachi, 1911-12. Principal, Lawrence R. Military School, Sanawar *Address:* Lahore.

BARTHE, RT. REV. JEAN MARIE; Bishop of Paralais since 1914. *b.* Lesignan, Tarbe. 1849. *Educ.:* St. Pe. Seminary. Bishop of Trichinopoly, 1890-1914. *Address:* Shembaganur, Madras Presidency.

BARUA, RAI BAHADUR DEVICHARAN, B.A., B.L., M.L.A., Tea Planter. *b.* 1864. *Educ.:* City College, Presidency College and the General Assembly's Institution, Calcutta. Joined the Bar in 1888 and taking to tea plantation and having acquired 3 tea gardens at Jorhat retired from the Bar in 1917; Secretary, Jorhat Sarvajanik Sabha for nearly 17 years since 1890. Elected member of the Indian Legislative Assembly, 1921; Hon. Magistrate, Jorhat Bench. *Address:* Jorhat, Assam.

BASU, JATINDRA NATH, M.A. Solicitor. *b.* 7 Feb. 1872. *m.* Mrs. Sarala Basu. *Educ:* Hindu School and Presidency College, Calcutta. Has been a member of the Bengal Legis. Council almost continuously since 1920. President, Indian Association, Calcutta; leader of People's Party in Bengal Legislature; delegate from Bengal to the Indian Round Table Confc.; is connected with several Educational and Social service organisations in Calcutta and is the head of B. N. Basu & Co., Solicitors. *Address:* 14, Balaram Ghose Street, Calcutta.

BATLEY, CLAUDE, A.R.I.B.A., Professor of Architecture, Bombay School of Art, also Member of Messrs. Gregson, Batley and King, Chartered Architects. *b.* Oct. 1879. *Educ.:* at Queen Elizabeth's School, Ipswich. Articled in Ipswich. Practised in Kettering, Northants and in London up to 1913 and in Bombay thereafter. *Publications:* Sundry articles and papers both in England and India on architectural subjects. *Address:* School of Art, or Chartered Bank Building, Bombay.

BATLIWALA, SORABJI HORMUSJI, (B.A. English Literature and Latin) *b.* 21 March, 1878. *Educ:* St. Xavier's School and College. Connected with the Cotton industry; Technical Adviser to the Court Receiver of the Petit Group of Mills in Liquidation (1931). Has travelled extensively and studied the economic systems of various countries. *Publications:* Contributions on financial and economic subjects. *Address:* Green's Mansion, Apollo Bandar, Bombay.

BEADON, DR. MARY, M.B.B.S. (Lond.); Kaisar-i-Hind Second Class (1920); Principal, Lady Hardinge College, New Delhi. *m.* to R. C. Beadon, K.C.S.G. *Educ:* at London (Royal Free Hospital) School of Medicine for Women. Joined W. M. S. in 1914; in charge Dufferin Hospital, Lucknow, 1909-1918; Superintendent, Women's Medical School, Agra, 1918-1920; Superintendent, Government Victoria Hospital, Madras and Lady Willingdon Medical School for Women, Madras, 1921-1930; Principal, Lady Hardinge Medical College, New Delhi, June 1930. *Address:* Lady Hardinge College, New Delhi.

BEASLEY, SIR HORACE OWEN COMPTON, Kt. cr. 1930, O.B.E., Hon. Mr. Justice Beasley, Chief Justice of Madras since 1929. *b.* 2nd July 1877. *m.* 1909, Evelyn Augusta Atherton two *s. Educ:* Westminster School; Jesus College, Cambridge. Called to Bar, Inner Temple, 1902; Puisne Judge, High Court of Burma, 1923-24; a Judge in the High Court of Madras, 1924-29; served European War, 1914-19; Western Front 1916-19 (Major O.B.E., despatches); Major Regular Army Reserve of Officers. *Address:* High Court, Madras.

BEAUMONT, THE HON. SIR JOHN WILLIAM FISHER, M.A. (Cambridge); King's Counsel, 1930; Chief Justice of Bombay *b.* 4th September 1877. *m.* Mabel Edith. *d.* of William Wallace (deceased). *Educ.:* Winchester and Pembroke College, Cambridge, First Class Historical Tripos, 1899. Called to Bar Chancery Division. Lieut. R. G. A., 1916-1918. *Address:* "Coleherne Court." Harkness Road, Malabar Hill, Bombay.

BEDI RAJA, SIR BABA GURBUKSH SINGH, Kt. *cr.* 1916; K.B.E. (1920), C.I.E., 1911; Hon. Extra Asst. Commissioner in the Punjab. *b.* 1861. A Fellow of the Punjab and Hindu Universities; was a delegate to the Indo-Afghan Peace Conference in 1919. *Address:* Kallar, Punjab.

BELL, ROBERT DUNCAN, C.S.I. (1932), C.I.E. (1919), Member of Council of the Government of Bombay. *Educ:* Heriot's School, Edinburgh, Edinburgh University and Trinity College, Cambridge. *m.* Jessie, *d.* D. Spence, Esq. Appointed I.C.S. Bombay, 1902. Secretary, Indian Industrial Commission, 1916-17, Controller, Industrial Intelligence, 1917-18, Controller, Oils and Paints, 1918-19; Director of Industries, Bombay, 1919-24. Secretary to Government, Development Department and Commissioner, Bombay Suburban Division, 1924-30. Chief Secretary to Government, Revenue Department, 1930-32. *Address:* Secretariat, Bombay.

BELVALKAR, SHRIPAD KRISHNA, M.A. Ph D. (Harvard Univ.), I.E.S., Professor of Sanskrit Deccan College, Poona. *b.* 11 Dec. 1881. *Educ.:* Rajaram College, Kolhapur and Deccan College, Poona and at Harvard, U. S. A. Joined Bombay Educational Department, 1907. Prof., Deccan College since 1914; one of the principal founders of the Bhandarkar Oriental Research Institute and for several years its Hon. Secretary. Also Hon. Secretary, Poona Sanskrit College Association and General Secretary, All-India Oriental Conference. Recipient of Kaiser-i-Hind Silver Medal, *Publications* "History of Systems of Sanskrit Grammar"; Edition and translation of Bhavabhuti's "Later History of Rama" in the Harvard Oriental Series; English translation of Kavyadarsa; Critical edition of Brahmasutrabhashya with Notes and translation; Basu Mallik Lectures on Vedanta Philosophy, Calcutta University, 1925, and (in collaboration with Prof. Ranade) History of Indian Philosophy, Vol. 2 (out of the 8 projected); several papers contributed to Oriental Journals or presented to the Oriental Conferences, and other learned Societies. *Address:* "Bilvakunja," Bhamburda, Poona, No. 4.

BENJAMIN, VEN. T. KURUVILLA, B.A., Archdeacon of Kottayam since July 1922. Formerly Incumbent of Pro-Cathedral, Kottayam. 1895-1922; Acting Principal, C.N.I., Kottayam, 1912-13, Surrogate, 1922, Bishop's Commissary, 1923. *Publications:* (in Malayalam) Notes on the Epistles to the Hebrews; Notes on the Epistles to the Thessalonians: Devotional Study of the Bible. Editor of Treasury of Knowledge Family Friend. *Address:* Kottayam.

BENNETT, GEORGE ERNEST, M.Sc., M. Inst. C.E., M.I.M.E., Chief Engineer, Bombay Port Trust. *b.* 1884. *m.* Frances Sophia Bennett. *Educ.:* Stockport Grammar School, Manchester University. Assistant Engineer (Bridges), G.I.P., 1910-1916; Port Engineer, Chittagong, 1916-1919; Ex-Engineer, Calcutta Port Trust, 1919-24; Senior Executive Engineer, Calcutta Port Trust, 1924-26; Deputy Chief Engineer, Bombay Port Trust, 1926-30; Chief Engineer, 1930. *Address:* Bombay Port Trust, Bombay.

BENTHALL, SIR EDWARD CHARLES, KT., Senior Partner, Bird & Co., Calcutta and F. W. Heilgers & Co., Calcutta, since 1929; *s* of Revd. Benthall and Mrs. Benthall; *b.* 26th November 1893 *m* 1918 Hon'ble Ruth McCarthy Cable, daughter of first Baron Cable of Ideford; one son; *Educ:* Eton (King's Scholar), King's College, Cambridge. Served European War 1914-19, India 1914-15, Mesopotamia 1916-18 (wounded), Staff War Office 1918-19. Director of numerous Companies, Director, Imperial Bank of India, 1916-32; Governor, 1928-30. President, Bengal Chamber of Commerce.

1932; President, Associated Chambers of Commerce of India and Ceylon, 1932; Delegate, Indian Round Table Conference, 1931-32; Indian Army Retrenchment Committee, 1931. *Address:* 37, Ballygunge Park, Calcutta.

BENZIGER, THE MOST REV. ALOYSIUS MARY, O.C.D., *b.* Einsoedeln, Switzerland, 1864. *Educ.:* Frankfort, Brussels; Downside. Came to India, 1890: Bishop of Tabæ, 1900; Assistant to the Pont. Throne, Roman Count, 1925. Retired as Bishop of Quilon in August 1931 & nominated Titular Archbishop of Antinoe (Antinopolis) in recognition of his merits. *Address:* Carmel Hill Monastery, Trivandrum, Travancore.

BERKELEY-HILL, Lt.-Col. OWEN ALFRED ROWLAND, M.A., M.D., Ch. B. (Oxon.), M.R.C.S. (Eng.), L.R.C.P. (Lon.), I.M.S., Medical Superintendent, European Mental Hospital, Ranchi. *b.* 22 Dec. 1879. *m.* Kunhimanny *d.* of Nellary Ramotti. *Educ.* at Rugby School, Universities of Oxford and Gottingen and University College Hospital, London. Entered Indian Medical Service in 1907. Served throughout Great War (East Africa Campaign); Mentioned in Despatches. President, Indian Psychological Association; President, Indian Association for Mental Hygiene; Member of Indian Branch of the International Association of Psycho-Analysis. *Publications:* Numerous articles in scientific journals. *Address:* Kanke (P.O.), Ranchi, Bihar and Orissa.

BERTHOUD, EDWARD HENRY, B.A. (Oxon.), 1898; Member, Council of State and Commissioner of Excise and Inspector-General of Registration, Bihar and Orissa. *b.* 13 Sept. 1876. *m.* Phyllis Hamilton Cox. *Educ.* at Uppingham and New College, Oxford. Asstt. Magte., Joint Magte. and Magte. and Collector in Bengal and Bihar and Orissa since 1900. *Address:* Patna.

BERTRAM, REV. FRANCIS, S.J. (or BERTRAND), B.A., D.D., Kaiser-I-Hind (I class, 1921), Principal, Loyola College, Madras. *b.* 28 July 1870, at Montigny-les-Metz, Lorraine. *Educ:* in the Society of Jesus. Entered Society of Jesus, Aug. 1888; came to India 1888; Principal, St. Joseph's College, Trichinopoly, 1909-25; Principal, Loyola College since 1925; Member of Senate, Madras University since 1910; Member of Syndicate, since 1916; Member, Academic Council, since 1923; offg. Vice-Chancellor, Madras University, April to September 1931. *Address:* Loyola College, Cathedral P. O., Madras.

BEWOOR, GURUNATH VENKATESH, B.A. (Bom.), B.A. (Cantab.), C.I.E., I.C.S., Director-General of Posts and Telegraphs. *b.* 20 Nov. 1888. *m.* Miss Tingatai Mudholkar. *Educ.:* Deccan Coll., Poona, and Sydney Sussex Coll., Cambridge. Under Secretary to Govt., C. P. Dy. Commissioner, Chanda; Postmaster-General, Bihar and Orissa and Central Circles: Dy. Director-General of Posts and Telegraphs, Delhi, and Postmaster-General, Bombay Circle; Indian Delegate to the Air Mail Congress at the Hague, 1927 and to the Universal Postal Congress, London, 1929. *Address:* Delhi and Simla. "Shri Krishna Niwas," Poona 4.

BHABHA, HORMASJI JEHANGIR, M.A., D. Litt. J.P., C.I.E., Hon. Pres. Magte., Director of Tata Hydro-Electric Power Supply Co.; Member of Council of the Indian Institute of Science, Bangalore, deputed as a delegate to the Congress of Imperial Universities 1926 by the Universities of Bombay and Mysore. *b.* 27 June 1852. *m.* Miss Jerbai Edaljee Batiwala. *Educ:* Elphinstone College and in England. Asstt. Professor, Elphinstone College, 1874-76; Vice-Principal and Professor of Logic and Ethics, Central College, Bangalore, 1876. Principal, Maharaja's College, Mysore, 1884; Education Secretary to Government, Mysore, 1890; Inspector-General of Education in Mysore, 1895-1909; Munir-ul-Talim (Mysore) 1909. *Pub.:* Special Report on Manual Training in Schools of General Education; Report on the Education of Parsi Boys, 1920, a Visit to Australian Universities, 1923, a Visit to British Universities, 1926; Modern Cremation and Parsees, 1922. *Address:* Malakoff Lodge, Mount Pleasant Road, Malabar Hill, Bombay 6.

BHAIRUN SINGHJI BAHADUR, COLONEL MAHARAJ SRI SIR, K.C.S.I., *b.* 15th September 1879. *Educ.* Mayo College Ajmer, Appointed Companion to H.H. the Maharaja of Bikaner, 1895 and accompanied him in his Indian Tour in 1896. Appointed Member of State Council, 1898 and was from time to time Personal Secretary to His Highness. Senior Member of Council and Secretary for Foreign and Political Department, Mahkma Khas; Foreign Member of Council, Political Member; Vice-President of State Council and the last Cabinet. Also acted as President of Council during H. H's visits to Europe. Now in charge of the portfolio consisting of Bikaner Fort, Fort Palace, Badakarkhana Devasthan and Government General Records, Bikaner State. Is Hon. Col. of the Sadul Light Infantry and Personal A. D. C. to the Maharaja. *Publications:* Bhairavbilas, Bhairubnenod and Rasikbinod Son and heir Heroji Sri Ajit Sinhji Sahib being Educated at Mayo College, Ajmer. *Address:* Bikaner.

BHANDARI JAGAN NATH, Rai Bahadur, Raj Ratan, M.A., LL.B., Dewan, Idar State. *b.* Jan. 1882. *m.* Shrimati Ved Kunwarji. *Educ:* Government College, Lahore, and Law College, Lahore. Practised at Ferozepur till 1914; joined Idar State as Private Secretary, 1914; served there till 1922 as Political Secretary and Officiating Dewan; left Service and resumed practice at High Court, Lahore; appointed Dewan, Idar State, 1931. *Address:* Himmatnagar, Idar State.

BHARGAVA, RAI BAHADUR, PANDIT JAWAHAR LAL, B.A., LL.B., Advocate, High Court, Lahore. *b.* 1st Oct. 1870. *m. d.* of L. Madan Lal, Bhargava of Rewari. *Educ.* Sirsa M.B. School, Rewari M. B. School, Lahore Mission Coll., Lahore. Government Coll. and Law School, President, Bar Assocn., Hissar; got Durbar

Medal and War Loan Sanad; acted as Secretary, India War Relief Fund, The Aeroplane Fleet Fund, King Edward Memorial Fund; was elected member, Punjab Legislative Council, 1916-20; and Legislative Assembly, 1921-23. Life member, St. John Ambulance Association and Chairman, District Centre at Hissar. *Address:* Hissar (Punjab).

BHATE, GOVIND CHIMNAJI, M.A. (Bom.) *b.* 19 Sept. 1870. Widower. *Educ:* Deccan College. Professor in Fergusson College, Poona, from 1895 to 1933. Principal and Professor, Willingdon College, Sangli, from 1919. *Publications;* Principles of Economics, Distant Travels, Lectures on Sociology, Carlyle, Three Philosophers, Philosophy of the Fine Arts. (All in Marathi). Speeches and Essays (in English); Kant and Shankaracharya (in Marathi). *Address:* Willingdon College Post, Dist. Satara.

BHATIA, MAJOR SOHAN LAL, M.A., M. D., B. Ch. (Cantab.); M.R.C.P. (London); F.R.S.E. (1932) F.C.P.S. (Bombay); M. C. (1918), I.M. S., Dean and Prof. of Physiology, Grant Medical College, Bombay. *b.* 5 Aug. 1891. *m.* Rajkishorie. *Educ:* Cambridge Univ., (Peterhouse), and St. Thomas' Hospital, London. Casualty Officer and Resident Anæsthetist, St. Thomas Hospital, London, Clinical Assist. Children's Department; House Surgeon, Ophthalmic House Surgeon. Joined I.M.S. 1917; saw active service with Egyptian Expeditionary Force (105th Mahratta Light Infantry), 1918; appointed Professor of Physiology, Grant Medical College in 1920 and Dean in 1925. *Publications:* A number of scientific papers in the Indian Journal of Medical Research and Indian Medical Gazette. *Address:* "Two Gables", Mount Pleasant Road, Malabar Hill, Bombay.

BHAVNAGAR, H. H. MAHARAJA KRISHNA KUMAR SINHJI, MAHARAJA OF; *b.* 19th May 1912, *s.* father Lt.-Col. H. H. Maharaja Sir Bhavsinhji Takhtasinhji, K.C.S.I., July 1919. *Educ:* Harrow, England. Installed with full powers, 1931; married 1931. *Address:* Bhavnagar, Kathiawar.

BHOPAL, H. H. SIKANDER SAULAT NAWAB IFTIKHARUL-MULK SIR MOHAMMAD HAMIDULLAH KHAN, NAWAB of, G.C.S.I. (1932), G.C.I.E. (1929), C.S.I. (1921), C.V.O. (1922). *b.* 9th Sept. 1894; is the Ruler of the second most important Mohammadan State of India. *m.* 1905 Her Highness Maimoona Sultan Shah Banoo Begam Sahiba; succeeded in 1926 mother, Her Highness Nawab Sultan Jahan Begam, G.C.S.I., G.C.I.E., C.I., G.B.E. Has three daughters, the eldest of whom Nawab Gouhar-e-Taj-Abida Sultan Begam is the heiress-presumptive. *Address:* Bhopal, Central India.

BHORE, SIR JOSEPH WILLIAM, K.C.I.E., C.B.E. (1920), C.I.E. (1923), K.C.S.I., I.C.S., Member Viceroy's Executive Council, in charge of Department of Commerce and Railways. *b.* 6th April 1878, *m* to Margaret Wilkie Stott, M.B., Ch. B. (St. Andrews), M.B.E. *Educ.:* Deccan College, Poona, and University College, London, Under Secy., Govt. of Madras, 1910; Dewan of Cochin State, 1914-1919; Dy. Director of Civil Supplies, 1919; Secretary to the High Commsr. for India, London, 1920; Ag. High Commsr. for India in the United Kingdom, 1922-1923; Secretary to Government of India, Department of Education, Health and Lands, 1924; and Ag. Member, Viceroy's Executive Council, November 1926 to July 1927; Secretary to Govt. of India, Dept. of Education, Health and Land Records (on deputation with the Statutory Commission on Indian Reforms, 1928-30. *Address:* Windcliffe, Simla and c/o The National Bank of India, Madras.

BHUTTO, KHAN BAHADUR SIR SHAH NAWAZ, O.B.E. (1919); K.I.H. (1924); C.I.E. (1925), Kt. (1930); Minister for Local Self-Government, Bombay. *b.* 1st March 1888. *Educ:* Sind Madressah and St. Patrick High School, Karachi. President, District Local Board and M.L.C., Bombay Council; Chairman, Co-operative Bank, District Larkana; and Chairman, Bombay Provincial Simon Committee; Zamindar, Landlord and President, Sind Mahomedan Association. Delegate, Round Table Conference. Member, old Imperial Council. Under Muslim Party in Bombay Council President. Sind Azad Conference. *Address:* Secretariat, Bombay.

BILIMORIA, ARDASHIR JAMSETJEE, B.A., *b.* 18 September 1864. *Educ.:* Chandanwady High School and Elphinstone College, Bombay. Joined Messrs. Tata in 1884. Retired 1921. *Address:* C/o Dr. Modi, Cooperage, Fort, Bombay.

BILLIMORIA, Sir SHAPOORJEE BOMONJEE, KT. (1928), M.B.E., J.P., Partner in the firm of S. B. Billimoria & Co., Accountants and Auditors. *b.* 27 July 1877. *m.* Jerbai, *d.* of Bhicaji N. Dalal (1906). *Educ.* St. Xavier's College. Honorary Presidency Magistrate, Member, Auditors' Council, Bombay, Member of the City of Bombay Improvement Trust Committee, Vice-President, Indian Merchants' Chamber, 1926-27; President, Indian Merchants' Chamber, 1927-28; Member, Government of India Back Bay Inquiry Committee, 1927-28. President, Indian Chamber of Commerce in Great Britain, 1928-29. Member, Indian Accountancy Board; Trustee, N. M. Wadia Charities, The Parsi Panchayat Funds and Properties, Sir Jamsetjee Jeejeebhoy Charity Funds and a number of other charity trusts and institutions. *Address:* 13, Cuffe Parade, Colaba, Bombay.

BIRLEY, FRANK, D.C.M. (1915); M.I.C. Director, Best & Co., Ltd., Madras and President, Chamber of Commerce, Madras. *b.* 6 July 1883. *m.* Evelyn Clifton of Perth, W. A. Joined Best & Co., Ltd., Madras in 1909. *Address:* C/o Best & Co., Ltd., Madras.

BISWAS, CHARU CHANDRA, C.I.E. (1931) *y. s.* of late Asutosh Biswas, Public Prosecutor, 24 Parganas; M.A., B.L., Advocate, Calcutta High Court. *b.* April 21, 1888. *m* Sm. Suhasini Biswas *d.* of Mr. S. C. Mallick. *Educ:* Hindu School, Presidency College, Ripon Law College,

Enrolled Vakil, High Court, April 18, 1910; Advocate, November, 1924; Ordinary Fellow, Calcutta University, and Member of the Syndicate, 1917-22, again from 1926, member of Dacca Board of Secondary Education, 1921-22, again 1928-29; Examiner and Paper-Setter, Arts and Law, Calcutta University; Professor, University Law College, 1913-21; Commissioner, Calcutta Corporation, 1921-24, and again, Councillor, Calcutta Corporation since 1925; Member, Calcutta Improvement Trust, since 1926; Secy. Bhowanipore Ratepayer's Association, Founder Secy., South Suburban College, 1916-21; Secy., South Suburban School, Main and Branch, and Sir Romesh Mitter Girls' School, Member of Governing Bodies of Presidency College, Ripon College, Asutosh College; Member of Committee of Indian Association, and of Council of National Liberal Federation; President, Khelat Institution, Calcutta, and Jangipara H. E. School-Dist. Hooghly; Governor and Secretary, Calcutta Blind School; Member, Calcutta Tramways Advisory Committee; was member of Council and for a short time Secretary, National Liberal League, Bengal. Unsuccessfully contested in Liberal interests once for Indian Legislative Assembly (1920), and twice for Bengal Legis. Council (1924 and 1926), from Calcutta constituencies. Elected Member of Leg. Assembly from Calcutta Urban Non-Mahomedan Constituency 1930. Was a delegate to Reserve Bank Committee in London at the invitation of His Majesty's Government, June-August, 1933. *Address:* 58, Puddopukur Road, Bhowanipore, Calcutta. Phone, Calcutta, Park 446.

BLACKWELL, THE HON. MR. JUSTICE, CECIL PATRIC, M.B.E. (Mil. Div. 1919); High Court Judge, Bombay. *b.* 8 November 1881. *m.* to Marguerete Frances, eldest *d.* of the late J. A. Tilleard, M. V. O. *Educ:* Blackheath Proprietary School and City of London School; Hollier Greek Scholar, Univ. College London, 1901; Classical Exhibition, Wadham College, Oxford 1901; 1st Class Classified Honour Moderations 1903, 2nd Class Litt. Hum. 1905; B. A. 1905; Secretary of Oxford University Athletic Club 1902; President, Wadham College Athletic Club, 1903. Called to Bar at Inner Temple 1907, and went the Northern Circuit. Lieut T. F. Reserve and on Recruiting Staff and in Ministry of National Service during European War. Was Liberal candidate for Hastings in 1914, but resigned on the outbreak of war; contested Kingswinford Division of Staffordshire (Lib.), December 1923; appointed a Puisne Judge of High Court of Bombay 1926. *Address:* "Rylstone," Pedder Road, Bombay.

BLAIR, ANDREW JAMES FRASER, (Hamish Blair), Author and Journalist, formerly joint Editor of *The Statesman;* Founded the Eastern Bureau, Limited, Calcutta, 1912; late Editor and Managing Director, The Empire, Commerce, The Empire Gazette (daily and weekly newspapers published in Calcutta); *b.* Dingwall, Ross-shire, 30 September, 1872; *y. s.* of late Andrew Blair, Rector, Dingwall Burgh School, and Mary Ann Campbell, *d.* of Thomas Duff, Glasgow. *m.* 1900, Constance, *e. d.* of Thomas Ibbotson; one *s.* one *d. Educ.:* Glasgow High School. Author of "1957," "Governor Hardy," "The Great Gesture" and other novels. Retired from journalism, 1930. *Address:* Kenilworth, Ootacamund.

BLANDY, EDMOND NICOLAS, B.A. (Oxon.); Boden Scholar of Sanskrit, Secretary, Finance, Commerce and Marine Departments, Bengal, *b.* 31st July, 1886. *m* Dorothy Kathleen (nee Marshall). *Educ:* Clifton and Balliol. Asst. Magte. and Collr., Dacca, 1910; Sub-Div. Officer, Munshiganj, Dacca, 1912; Secretary to Bengal District Administration Committee, 1913; Under Secretary, Finance Dept. Govt. of Bengal, 1914 in addition Controller of Hostile Firms and Custodian of Enemy Property, 1916; Addl. Dist and Sessions Judge, Jessore, 1917; Secretary, Provincial Recruiting Board, 1917, and later in addition Controller of Hostile Firms, etc., and Jt. Secretary, Publicity Board; Under-Secretary, Finance Department, Government of India, 1919; Collector of Income-Tax, Calcutta, 1921; Commissioner of Income-Tax, Bengal, 1922; Magte. and Collr., Bakarganj, 1924 to 1926; Magte. and Collr., 24 Parganas, 1928; Deputy Commissioner, Darjeeling, 1928; Secretary to Government of Bengal, Finance Department, 1930. *Address:* Bengal Club, Calcutta.

BLASCHECK, ARTHUR DAVID, Fellow of Coopers Hill, (1900); D. Oec. Munich, (1910). Inspector-General of Forests to the Govt. of India. *b.* 16th Jan. 1879. *m.* Helen 2nd *d.* of the late C. Usborne of Berkshire. *Educ:* Felsted School; Royal Indian Engineering College, Coopers Hill, Indian Forest Service, Punjab, 1900; Chief Conservator of Forests, Punjab, 1929; Inspector-General of Forests to the Govt. of India and President, Forest Research Institute and College, 1930. *Address:* Dehra Dun, U.P.

BLATTER, THE REV. ETHELBERT, S. J., Ph. D., F. L. S. *b.* 15 Dec. 1877. *Educ.* in Switzerland, Austria, Holland, France, England. Joined the Society of Jesus in 1896; Professor of Botany, St. Xavier's College, Bombay, since 1903; Principal of the same College from 1919-1924; Fellow and Syndic. of the Bombay University since 1919. *Publications:* Bibliography of Indian Botany; The Ferns of Bombay; Natural Orders in Botany; The Palms of British India and Ceylon; The Flora of Aden; The Flora of the Indian Desert; Flora Arabica; Flowering Season and Climate; Contributions to the Flora of Baluchistan, Bionomie der Palmender Alten Welt; Revision of the Bombay Flora; Flora of the Indus Delta; Beautiful Flowers of Kashmir; The Indian Bamboos brought up-to-date; Plants of Basra, Mesopotamia; Plantae Novae Waziristanenses; New Indian Species of Plants. The Flora of Waziristan; Botanical Bibliography of Arabia; Beautiful Indian Trees; numerous botanical papers in English and German Scientific Journals. *Address:* Panchgani, Satara.

BLUNT, HON. MR. EDWARD ARTHUR HENRY, C.I.E., O.B.E., B.A., I.C.S. Member of Executive Council, United Provinces *b.* 14 March 1877; *m.* Ada, *d.* of C. H. Stone, R. N. two *ds*, one *s. Educ.:* Marlborough College and Corpus Christi College, Oxford. Served in U.P. as Asst. Commr. and Asst., Magistrate, and Collector; Under Secretary to Govt. and Superintendent, Census Operation; on special duty in Finance Department of Govt. of India, 1912-13; Settlement Officer in 1915; Director of Civil Supplies in 1918; Director of Industries, 1919; Financial Secretary to U. P. Govt., 1920-31; appointed Member of Executive Council, 1931. *Publications:* "Christian Tombs and Monuments" of Historical interest in the U.P. (1911); Caste System of Northern India, (1932). *Address:* Bandaria Bagh House, Lucknow.

BLUNT, LESLIE, Solicitor. *b.* 29 Dec. 1876. *m.* Kathleen, 2nd *d.* of the late Dr. Thornton of Margate. *Educ.:* Rugby. Senior partner in Craigie Blunt and Caroe. *Address:* 50, Pedder Road, Bombay.

BOAG, GEORGE TOWNSEND, M.A. (Cambridge), C.I.E., (1928), I.C.S., Member, Indian Tariff Board. *b.* November 12, 1884. *Educ.:* Westminster (1897 to 1903), and Trinity College, Cambridge, (1903 to 1907). Passed into the I.C.S. in 1907 and joined the Service in Madras in 1908. *Address:* Madras Club, Madras.

BOILEAU, COLONEL COMMANDANT GUY HAMILTON, C.B. (1919), C.M.G. (1917); D.S.C., (1915), Chief Engineer, Western Command. *b.* 27 Sep. 1870, *m.* Violet Mary (Fergusson.) *Educ.* Christ's Hospital, R.M.A., Woolwich. Active Service W. Africa, 1892; Chitral Relief, 1895; China, 1899; Great War France, 1914-19; Afghan War, 1919. *Address:* Quetta.

BOMON-BEHRAM, SIR JEHANGIR BOMONJI, KT. (1934), B.A., LL.B., J.P. (Solicitor), Bombay. Merchant. *b.* July 1868. *Educ.:* St. Xavier's and Elphinstone College. Jurisprudence Prizeman and Narayan Vasudev Scholar. Practised as an Attorney for about 20 years, then became partner in C. Macdonald & Co., and was there for 5 years. Gave up business to do public service. Became member of Bombay Municipal Corporation, 1919; member of Standing Committee, 1921-22 to 1926-27 and 1928-29; Chairman, Standing Committee, 1928-29; Chairman, Schools Committee, Jan. to March 1928 and January to December 1929; Chairman of Law, Procedure and Elections Committee, 1930-31; Chairman, Advisory Committee, J. J. and other Hospitals; Representative of Bombay Municipal Corporation on G. I. P. Advisory Committee and President of Corporation, and First Mayor of Bombay, 1931-32. Honorary Presidency Single sitting Magistrate. Director of several Joint Stock Companies. *Address:* "Behistan," opposite Colaba P. O., Colaba, Bombay.

BOMBAY, BISHOP OF. See Acland, Rt. Rev. Richard Dyke.

BOSE, SIR JAGADIS CHANDRA, Kt. *cr.* 1917 C.I.E., 1903; C.S.I., 1911; M.A. (Cantab.), D.Sc. (Lond.); LL.D., F.R.S., Corresponding Member, Academy of Science, Vienna; Founder Director of Bose Research Institute. *b.* 30 Nov. 1858; *Educ.:* Calcutta; Christ's College, Cambridge; Delegate to International Scientific Congress, Paris, 1900; scientific member of deputation to Europe and America, 1907, 1914 and 1919. Published series of papers on Electric waves and other electric phenomena. (Proc. Roy. Society.) Former Member, Committee of Intellectual Co-operation, League of Nations. *Publications:* Response in the Living and Non-living; Plant Response, Electro-physiology of Plants, Irritability of Plants; Life Movements of Plants, Vols. I and II; Life Movements in Plants, Vols. III and IV; The Ascent of Sap; The Physiology of Photosynthesis. Nervous Mechanism of Plants, Motor Mechanism of Plants, Plant Autographs and their Revelations, Tropic Movement and Growth of Plants. *Address:* Bose Institute, Calcutta.

BOSE, SIR KAILAS CHUNDER, RAI BAHADUR, Kt. *cr.* 1916, C.I.E., 1910; Kaiser-i-Hind, 1909; O.B.E. *b.* Decr. 26, 1850. *Educ.* Calcutta Training Academy, Calcutta University and Medical College. Fellow, Calcutta University; Vice-President, Indian Medical Congress; Fellow, R. Institute of Public Health; Member, British Medical Association; ex-Member of the Corporation of Calcutta and Hon. Presidency Magistrate; connected with many literary and scientific societies of India and England and most of his contributions to the Medical Journals have been reproduced in the English and American Press. 2nd *s.* of late Babu Madhusan Basu. *Address:* 1, Sukea Street, Calcutta.

BRABOURNE, 5th BARON, *cr.* 1880. MICHAEL HERBERT RUDOLPH KNATCHBULL, G.C.I.E. M.C., Governor of Bombay, since 1933, *b.* 8th May 1895. *s.* of 4th Baron and Helena. *d.* of late H. von Flesch-Brunningen, Imperial Councillor, Vienna; *s.* father 1933. *m.* 1919 Lady Doreen Geraldine Browne, *y. d.* of the 6th Marquess of Sligo. *Educ.:* Wellington, R.M.A., Woolwich. Served European War, 1915-18 (despatches thrice, M.C.); M.P. (U) Ashford Division, Kent, 1931-33; Parliamentary Private Secretary to Secretary of State for India, 1932-33. *Heir:* *S.* Hon. Norton Cecil Michael Knatchbull, *b.* 11 February 1922. *Address:* Government House, Bombay.

BRADFIELD, ERNEST WILLIAM CHARLES Lieut.-Colonel. M.B., M.S., F.R.C.S., O.B.E. (1918); C.I.E. (1928) A.D.M.S., Peshawar District *b.* May 28, 1880. *m.* Margaret Annie Barnard. *Educ.:* King Edward's School, Birmingham; St. Mary's Hospital and St. Bartholomew's Hospital London. *Address:* Peshawar, N. W. F. Province.

BRAY, SIR EDWARD HUGH, Kt., *cr.* 1917; Senior Partner, Gillanders, Arbuthnot & Co.. President, Bengal Chamber of Commerce; Member of Imperial Legislative Council:

Controller of Contracts, Army Headquarters: *b.* 15 Apr. 1874; *m.* 1912, Constance, *d.* of Sir John Graham, 1st Bt. *Educ.*: Charterhouse; Trinity College, Cambridge. *Address*: Gillander House, Calcutta.

BRAYNE, ALBERT FREDERIC LUCAS, M.A. (Glas.), B.A. (Oxon), C.I.E. 1923, Indian Civil Service, *b.* 1 April 1884. *m.* 1909, Mary, *e.d.* of James Thomson, M. D. Irvine, Ayrshire. *Educ.*: Irvine, Royal Academy, Glasgow University, Oxford (Trinity College). Appointed I.C.S., Bombay, 1908; Assistant Collector, Satara, 1908-1913; Superintendent, Land Records, 1913-1916; Under-Secretary and Deputy Secretary to Bombay Government, Revenue and Financial Departments, 1916-20. Subsequently Deputy Secretary, Finance Department, Government of India and in 1922-23 attached to the Inchcape Committee on Retrenchment. Financial Adviser, Posts and Telegraphs, 1923-24; Financial Adviser, Military Finance, 1924-29. Offg. Secretary, Finance Department, 1926-27, and again in 1931-32; also Army Department, 1928, Retrenchment Officer, Government of India 1931; Chairman, Sind Conference and on special duty in the India Office, 1932; Secretary to Indian Delegation to Monetary and Economic Conference, 1933. *Address*: Finance Department, Government of India.

BRAYNE, FRANK LUGARD, M.C. (1918), Officiating Commissioner, Multan, Punjab, *b.* Jan. 6, 1882. *m.* Iris Goodeve Goble, 1920. *Educ*: Monkton Combe School and Pembroke Coll., Cambridge. Joined I.C.S., 1905; Military Service, France, Palestine, etc., 1915-19. M;C. 1918 *Publications*: Village Uplift in India (1928); Socrates in an Indian Village (Oxford Univ. Press); The Remaking of Village India (being the second edition of Village Uplift), 1929, (Oxford Univ. Press.) The Boy Scout in the village (Uttar Chand Kapur, Lahore 1931), Socrates persists in India and The Indian and the English village (Oxford University Press) 1932. *Address*: Multan, Punjab; and Great Ryburgh, Norfolk.

BRAYSHAY, MAURICE WILLIAM, M.Sc., (Leeds). A.M. Inst. C.E. M. I. E. (India), Agent, B. B. and C. I. Ry. *b.* 7 March 1883. *Educ.*: Ripon Grammar School, 1895-1900, and Leeds University, 1900-1903. Training in Royal Dockyard Chatham, 1903-5; Apptd. Asstt. Engineer, Indian P.W.D. (Railways) 1905; Asst. Engineer, Eastern Bengal Railway, 1905-09; Assistant and Executive Engineer under Sir Robert Gales on the construction of the Sara Bridge over the Ganges, 1909-15; Assistant Agent, North-Western Railway, 1915-17; Dy. Controller, Indian Munitions Board, 1917-18; Assistant Secretary Railway Board, 1918-24; Dy. Agent, B. B. & C. I. Railway, 1924. Member, Railway Board, 1929. Agent, B. B. & C. I. Railway, 1932; Offig. Chief Commissioner, Railway Board 1933. *Address*: Bombarci, Altamont Road, Bombay.

BROOMFIELD, ROBERT STONEHOUSE, Mr. JUSTICE, B.A., (Cantab), Bar-at-Law; Judge, High Court, Bombay. *b.* 1 Dec. 1882. *m.* Mabel Louisa nee Linton. *Educ.*: City of London School and Christ's College, Cambridge. Appointed to Indian Civil Service, 1905; Judge, High Court, November 1929. *Address*: Murrayfield, Malabar Hill, Bombay.

BROWN, THE REV. ARTHUR ERNEST, M.A. (Cantab.), B.Sc. (London), C.I.E. (1926) Missionary (Wesleyan Methodist). *b.* 17 May 1882. *m.* E. Gertrude Parsons, M.A. *d.* of T. L. Parsons, Esq., Four Oaks, Warwickshire in 1908. *Educ.*: Stationer's Company's School, London; Kingswood School, Bath (1895-1901) Trinity Hall, Cambridge (Scholar). Entered Wesleyan Methodist Ministry and joined Wesleyan College, Bankura in January 1905; became Principal in 1917; Nominated Fellow of Calcutta University, 1921; General Superintendent, Wesleyan Mission in Bengal, 1924-29. *Publication*; Translation from Bengali of "The Cage of Gold" by Sita Devi. *Address*: Wesleyan College, Bankura, B. N. Ry.

BUCK, SIR EDWARD JOHN, O.B.E. (1918), C.B.E. (1918) Kt. (June 1929) late Reuter's Agent with Government of India now adviser to Associated Press of India; late Vice-Chairman, Alliance Bank of Simla; Chairman, Associated Hotels of India, Pelman Institute (India), and Director, Borooah Timber Co. *b.* 1862; *m.* Annie Margaret, *d.* of late General Sir R. M. Jennings, K.C.B. *Educ.*: St. John's College, Hurstpierepoint. Was in business in Australia. Assistant and Joint Secretary, Countess of Dufferin's Fund for 28 years. Hon. Sec., Executive Committee "Our Day" in India 1917-28. *Publication*: "Simla, Past and Present" (two Editions). *Address*: Northbank, Simla.

BUCKLAND, SIR PHILIP LINDSAY, Kt., *cr.* 1926; Judge, High Court, Calcutta, since 1919. *Educ.*: Eton and New College, Oxford. *m.* Mary, *d.* of Livingstone Barday. Called to the Bar Inner Temple, 1896. Practised in High Court, Calcutta. *Publication*: Text Book on the Indian Companies Act, 1913. *Address*: Bengal Club, Calcutta.

BUNBURY, EVELYN JAMES, B.A. (Oxon.); M.C., J.P., Hon. Presidency Magistrate. (Kaiser-i-Hind Gold Medal in 1932). General Manager, Messrs. Forbes, Forbes Campbell & Co., Ltd., Bombay. *b.* 31 Oct. 1888, *m.* 11 Oct. 1928. *Educ.*: The Oratory School, Queen's College, Oxford, and Caen Univ., France. Joined Forbes, Forbes Campbell & Co., Ltd. and came to Bombay in 1912; served with Grenadier Guards in 1917 and 1918 in France and Germany. *Address*: Mount Ida, Cumballa Hill, Bombay.

BUNDI, H. H. MAHARAO RAJA, SIR RAGHUBIR SINGHJI BAHADUR, G.C.S.I., 1919; K.C.S.I. *cr.* 1897, G.C.I.E. *cr* 1900, G.C.V.O. *cr.* 1911; *b.* 26 Sept. 1869. *S.* 1889. *Address*: Bundi, Rajputana.

BURDON, SIR ERNEST, B.A., Oxon; C.I.E. (1921); C.S.I. (1926); Knighthood (1931); Auditor-General in India. *b.* 27 Jan. 1881. *m.* Mary, *d.* of Rev. W. Fairweather, D. D., Dunnikier, Manse, Kirkcaldy, Fife, *Educ.*: Edinburgh Academy; University College, Oxford (Scholar). Entered Indian Civil Service,

1905; Financial Under-Secretary to Punjab Government, 1911, and to Government of India, 1914; Financial Adviser, Mesopotamian Expeditionary Force, 1918-19; Financial Adviser, Military Finance, Govt. of India; Member of Indian Munitions Board, and of Imperial Legis. Council, India, 1919; Secretary to Government of India, Army Department and Member of Legislative Assembly, 1922-26; Secretary to Government of India, Finance Department, and Member of Council of State, 1927-29. *Address:* Simla and New Delhi.

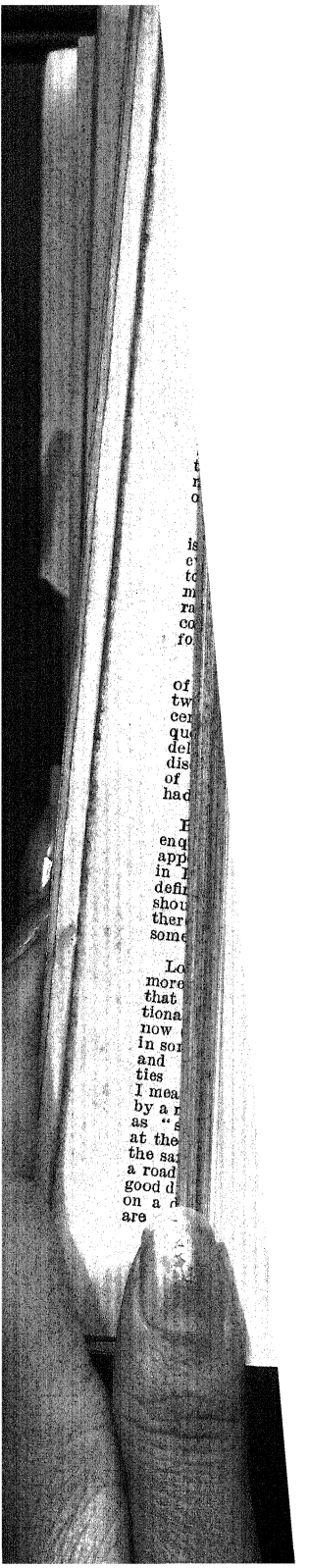
BURDWAN, SIR BIJAY CHAND MAHTAB, MAHARAJADHIRAJA BAHADUR OF, G.C.I.E. *cr.* 1924, K.C.S.I. *cr.* 1911, K.C.I.E. *cr.* 1909. I.O.M., *cr.* 1909; F.R.G.S., F.R.S.A., F.R.C.I., F.N.B.A., M.R.A.S.; Hon. LL.D. Camb. and Edin. 1926. *b.* 19 Oct. 1881; a Member of 3rd Class in Civil Division of Indian Order of Merit for conspicuous courage displayed by him in the Overtoun Hall, Calcutta, 7 Nov. 1908; adopted by late Maharajadhiraja and succeeded, 1887, being installed in independent charge of zemindari, 1903; management in intervening years carried on by his father, the late Raja Bun Bihari Kapur; two *s.* two *d.* Burdwan (the senior Hindu House in Bengal) ranks first in wealth and importance among the great Bengal zemindaris. Has travelled much in India; made a tour through Central Europe, and visited British Isles in 1906, when he was received by King Edward; a Member of Imperial Legislative Council, 1909-12, Bengal Legislative Council, 1907-18; temp. Member of the Bengal Executive Council-1918; Member of the Bengal Executive Coun, cil, 1919-24; Vice-President, Bengal Executive Council, from March 1922 to April 1924; Member of the Indian Reforms Enquiry Committee, 1924; Member of the Indian Taxation Enquiry Committee, 1924-25; a nominated member of the Council of State, 1926; Delegate from India to the Imperial Conference, London, 1926, when he was received by King George V; Received the Freedom of the Cities of Manchester, Edinburgh and Stoke-on-Trent, 1926. Trustee of the Indian Museum, 1908. President, Agri-Horticultural Society of India, Calcutta, 1911 and 1912; President of the British Indian Association, Calcutta, 1911-18; again from 1925 to 1927; Trustee of the Victoria Memorial Calcutta since 1914; Chairman, Calcutta Imperial (King-Emperor George V. and Queen Empress Mary) Reception Fund Committee, 1911-12; President of the Bengal Volunteer Ambulance Corps and of the Bengalee Regiment Committees during the War. *Publications:* Vijaya Gitika, and various other Bengali poetical works and dramas, Studies Impressions (the Diary of a European Tour); Meditations; The Indian Horizon; etc. *Heir:* Maharajadhiraja Kumar Saheb Uday Chand Mahtab, B.A., Dewani Raj of the Burdwan Raj since 1927; Manager of the Burdwan Raj Wards Estate since 1930; Private Secretary to the Maharajadhiraja Bahadur at the Imperial Conference, London, 1926 *b.* 14 July 1905. *Address:* The Palace, Burdwan Bijay Manzil, Alipore, Calcutta; The Retreat, Kurseong, Bengal; Rosebank, Darjeeling; Mosapher Manzil, Agra, U. P., etc.

BURLEY, DR. GEORGE WILLIAM, Wh. Ex.; 1906; B.Sc. (Engineering) (London), 1921; D.Sc. (London), 1927; M.I.MechE., 1923; M.I.E., 1923; M.A.S. Mech.E., 1926; M. R. S. T. (1929), Principal any Professor of Mechanical Engineering, Victoria Jubilee Technical Institute, Matunga, Bombay. *b.* 1885. *m.* Ella Elizabeth, *e.d.*, Harry Turton. *Educ.:* Sheffield University College and Sheffield University (Applied Science Department). Asst. Engineer, Yorkshire Electric Power Co., Engineering Research Student, Sheffield University; Lecturer in Engineering and head of Machine Tool and Cutting Tool Research Departments, Sheffield University; Technical Manager, Guy Motors, Wolverhampton; and Lecturer in Electric Engineering, Wolverhampton Technical College. *Publication:* (*Books*) Lathes: their construction & Operation; The Testing of Machine Tools: Machine and Fitting Shop Practice; Principles and Practice of Toothed Gear Wheel Cutting. (*Papers*): On Machine Tool Design before the Sheffield Society of Engineers and Metallurgists; on Cutting Tools before the Institution of Mechanical Engineers; and on Automatic Machine Tools and Mass Production before the Institution of Engineers (India). *Technical Articles:* Upwards of 200 on various Engineering subjects in the Technical Press of England, America and India. *Address:* V. J. T. Institute, Matunga, Bombay.

BURNS, WILLIAM, D.Sc. (Edin.), I.A.S., Director of Agriculture, Bombay Presidency. *b.* July 6, 1884. *m.* Margaret Forrest Aitchison, 1912. *Educ.:* Edinburgh University. Reading College, Assistant Lecturer in Botany 1907-8. Indian Agricultural Service, Economic Botanist to Bombay Government 1908-1933, Principal, Poona Agricultural College (in addition) 1922-1933. Joint Director of Agriculture 1926-27. *Publications:* Botanical, Agricultural, Horticultural, and Nature Study papers. *Address:* Poona.

BURT, BRYCE CHUDLEIGH, C.I.E., M.B.E., B.Sc. (Lond.), I.A.S., Agricultural Expert, Imperial Council of Agricultural Research. *b.* April 29, 1881. *m.* 1906. *Educ.:* Univ. Coll., London, Assistant Lecturer, Liverpool University, 1902-4; Trinidad, British West Indies, 1904-7. Entered the Indian Agricultural Service, January 1908; Dy. Director of Agriculture, United Provinces 1908-21; Director of Industries, United Provinces, (in addition), 1912-15. Secretary, Indian Central Cotton Committee, 1921-28; Director of Agriculture, Bihar and Orissa, 1928-29. Official Adviser to Indian Delegation, Imperial Economic Conference, Ottawa, May to September 1932. *Address:* 1, York Road, New Delhi; and Middle Land, Simla.

BYRAMJEE JEEJEEBHOY, SIR, Kt. (1928), eldest son of Rustomjee Byramjee Jeejeebhoy, Landlord and Merchant, large landed proprietor owning 9,000 acres in Salsette, *b.* 28th Feb. 1881. *m.* Jerbai Jamsetjee Cursetjee, grand daughter of Sir Jamsetjee Jejeebhoy, 2nd Baronet. *Educ.:* St. Xavier's School and College, Bombay. J.P. (1908), Hon. Pres. Magte., 1908-1915;



Delegate Parsi Chief Matrimonial Court, (1909-1925), Chairman, Standing Committee of Bombay Municipal Corporation (1924); Member, Bombay Municipal Corporation from 1914; Member, Bombay Board of Film Censors from 1924; Member, Govt. of India Committee for Conditional Release of Prisoners 1924; Chairman, Byramjee Jeejeebhoy Parsi Charitable Institution,; President, 32nd Bombay Parsi Pioneers Boy Scouts and Vice-President, Bombay Presidency Released Prisoners Aid Society. Donated a sum of Rs. 2,00,000 for the foundation of an Hospital for Children, it being the first of its kind in India. Chairman of the Governor's Hospital Fund, Bombay: Sheriff of Bombay for 1927. President, Landlords' Association, Bombay; and Vice-President, Society for the Protection of Children in Western India. *Address:* The Cliff, Ridge Road, Bombay.

BYRT, ALBERT HENRY, Special Correspondent for *Times of India, Daily Mail* and *Morning Post*, in Delhi and Simla. *b.* 18 March 1881, *m.* Dorothy Muriel, only *d.* of Mr. and Mrs. Stafford Thorne, Kingston-on-Thames. *Educ.* Privately: Articled to editor, *Bath Chronicle* and afterwards went to *Surrey Advertiser*. Joined editorial staff of *Times of India* 11 June 1904: Assistant Editor 1911, Correspondent at Government of India headquarters since 1923, Acting Editor October 1926-February 1927. *Address:* 22, Aurangzeb Road, New Delhi and United Service Club, Simla.

CAIRNS, JAMES, O.B.E., M.A., MB., Ch.B. (Glas.), D.P.H. (Camb.), D.T.M. & H. (Eng.), Chief Medical and Health Officer, North Western Railway. *b.* 12th July 1885. *Educ.:* University of Glasgow. House Surgeon, House Physician, Glasgow Royal Infirmary and Victoria Infirmary, Glasgow; Asst. to Professor of Anatomy, Glasgow University; Resident Physician, Rucill and Knightswood Hospitals, Glasgow, Sanitary Officer, 34th General Hospital; Major R.A.M.C. (Temp.); Dy. Assistant Director, Medical Services (Sanitary), 8th Lucknow Division; Senior Assistant Health Officer, Bombay Municipality; Principal Medical and Health Officer, G.I.P. Railway and Major, Auxiliary Force Medical Corps. *Address:* C/o The Agent, North-Western Railway, Headquarters Office, Empress Road, Lahore.

CALCUTTA, BISHOP OF, MOST REV. FOSS WESTCOTT, D.D. *b.* 23 October 1863. *s.* of the Rt. Rev. B. F. Westcott (late Bishop of Durham). *Educ.:* Cheltenham and Peterhouse, Cambridge. Joined the S. P. G. Mission, Cawnpore, 1889. Bishop of Chota Nagpore, 1905, Bishop of Calcutta and Metropolitan in India, 1919. *Address:* Calcutta.

CALDER, CHARLES CUMMING, B.Sc., B.Sc.(Agr.), F.L.S. Superintendent, Royal Botanic Garden, Calcutta; Superintendent, Cinchona Cultivation in Bengal; and Director, Botanical Survey of India, Calcutta. *b.* 3 Dec. 1884. *m.* Lilian Margaret Reid, *d.* of James Reid, Esq., Aberdeen, Scotland. *Educ.:* Logic School Morayshire Gordons College, Aberdeen; University of Aberdeen; North of Scotland College of Agriculture; University of Berlin; Botanisches Institute, Dhalem, Germany; Landwirtschaftliche Hochschule, Berlin. Curator, Herbarium, Royal Botanic Garden, Calcutta; Secretary, Board of Scientific Advice for India; Superintendent, Gardens and Plantations in Bengal and Burma; and Director, Botanical Survey of India. *Publications:* Various Reports and Records; Editor, Report of Board of Scientific Advice; Annals, Royal Botanic Garden, Calcutta; Records of the Botanical Survey of India. *Address:* Royal Botanic Garden, Calcutta.

CAMPBELL, THE HON. MR. JUSTICE ARCHIBALD, B.A., Puisne Judge, High Court, Lahore. *b.* 18 Jan. 1877. *m.* Violet, youngest *d.* of the late Sir Cecil Beadon, K.C.S.I., Lt.-Governor of Bengal. *Educ:* Harrow and Pembroke Coll., Cambridge. Entered I.C.S. (Punjab) 1901, Asstt. Commr., Registrar, Chief Court, 1912, Offg. Dist. and Sessions Judge 1918; Addl. Judge, High Court 1921; Permanent Judge; 1925. *Address:* Lahore.

CAROE, CECIL NIELS, B.A. (Oxon.), Solicitor. *b.* 23 Aug. 1878. *Educ.:* Private and Univ. College, Oxford. *Address:* 4, Pali Hill, Bandra.

CARR, SIR HUBERT WINCH, Kt. (1925), Managing Director, Balmer Lawrie & Co, Ltd. *b.* 1877. *m.* to Evelyn Margaret Bruce, elder *d.* of Herbert Johnston, Esq., W. S. Edinburgh. *Educ:* The Abbey, Beckenham Kent. Tea-planting in Assam, 1898-1901; thereafter joined Balmer Lawrie & Co., Calcutta; became senior resident partner, 1916; Pres. of European Association, 1922-25. *Address:* 7, Alipore Park, Calcutta

CASSELS, GENERAL SIR ROBERT ARCHIBALD, G.C.B. (1933), C.S.I., D.S.O., G.O.C. in Command Northern Command (1930). *b.* 15 March 1876. *m.* Miss F. E. Jackson (1904) Served in the European war, including Egypt and Mesopotamia. Commanded Peshawar District, 1923-1927; Adjutant-General in India, 1928-29. *Address:* H. Q. Northern Command, Rawalpindi and Murree.

CATER, SIR ALEXANDER NORMAN LEY, Kt., C.I.E. (1930); Agent to the Governor General, Baluchistan. *b.* 15 June 1880. *Educ:* Wellington College, Christ's College, Cambridge. Entered I.C.S. 1904. *Address:* The Residency, Quetta.

CATRY, DR. HECTOR, O. C., Catholic Bishop of Lahore, since March 1928. *b.* 1889, Belgium. *Educ.:* Seraphic School, Bruges. Joined the Capuchin Order at Enghien, 1907; ordained priest, 1914; came to India, 1920. *Address:* 1, Lawrence Road, Lahore.

CHAIN SINGH, RAO BAHADUR, M.A., LL.B., F.R.E.S., Thakur of Pokaran (Premier Noble) a jagir of over 1,000 sq. miles area in Jodhpur State, and Talukdar of Ralpur (District Rae Bareli), Oudh. *b.* 5 Feb. 1889. *Educ:* Canning College, Lucknow and Muir Central College, Allahabad. Enrolled Allahabad High Court Bar 1911. Judge, Court of Sardars 1911-1922, Puisne Judge, Chief Court 1922-1927, Chief Judge, Chief Court 1927-1929; Minister in charge of Justice and Education, Government of Jodhpur since 1929; also President, Marwar Soldiers Board and Red Cross Society (Jodhpur Branch); Member, Governing Bodies of Lucknow, Benares and Agra Universities. *Address:* Pokaran House, Jodhpur and The Fort Pokaran.

CHAMAN LALL, DIWAN, ex-M.L.A. *b.* 1892. *Educ:* at Convent Muree; Gordon Mission College, Rawalpindi; Private Tutors at Folkestone, London and Paris. Joined the Middle Temple in 1910; finished his Bar Final in 1914; took Honours Degree, in Jurisprudence from Jesus College, Oxford, 1917; spent 1918-1919 touring England in connection with the Home Rule Deputation headed by Mr. Tilak; was appointed General Editor of *Coterie*, a London quarterly of Art and Literature; returned to India in 1920; joined the staff of the *Bombay Chronicle* as Asstt. Editor; founded the All-India Trade Union Congress in 1920. Member, Legislative Assembly, 1923-30. Founder the *Daily and Weekly Nation* (Newspaper); Adviser, Labour Delegate, International Lab. Confce., Geneva, 1925; Labour Delegate, International Labour Confce., Geneva, 1928; Parliamentary Delegate, Indian Delegation to Canada, 1928; Member, Royal Commission on Labour in India, 1929-1931; offered membership Round Table Conference, 1930 but declined; resigned from the Legis. Assembly, 1930 on Tariff issue; President, Sind Provincial Conference, 1929. President, North-Western Railway Recognised (Registered) Union since 1929; President All-India Telegraph Workmen's Union, since 1929; President, All-India Postal and R.M.S. Association, 1930; President, All-India Postman and Menial Staff Association, 1930; seceded from All-India Trade Union Congress and as Chairman of secessionists helped to found All-India Trade Union Federation: Labour Delegate, International Labour Conference Bureau, 1932. *Publication*; "Coolie: or the Story of Capital and Labour in India." *Address:* Lahore, (Punjab).

CHAMNEY, LT.-COL. HENRY, C.M.G., 1900; Principal, Police Training College, Surdah. *b.* Shillelagh, co. Wicklow. *m.* 1st, 1907, Hon. Cecilia Mary Barnewall (*d.* 1908); *sister* of 18th Lord Trimleston; 2nd, 1913, Alice, *d.* of Col. W. E. Bellingham of Castle. Bellingham, co. London. *Educ.:* Monaghan Diocesan School. Served South Africa, 1900, first as Major Commanding Lumsden's Horse, and later with South African Constabulary; joined Indian Police, 1909; accompanied the relief column to Manipur in 1891. *Address:* Police Training College, Surdah, Rajshahi, Bengal.

CHANDA KAMINI KUMAR, M.A. (1886), B.L., M. L.A., Advocate, High Court, Calcutta. *b.* Sept. 1862. *m.* Chandraprabha Chaudhuri. *Educ.:* Presidency Coll., Calcutta. Formerly a member of the Assam Council and Governor-General's Council and later of the Legislative Assembly; Fellow, Calcutta University. *Publications:* Presidential Address, 1st Surma Valley Conference, 1906; Presidential Address, Special Session, Bengal Provincial Conference, 1919; Presidential Address, Allahabad Postal and R.M.S. conference, 1924, Chairman, Reception Committee, Literary Conference, 1914-1915 and 1928; Chairman, Municipality Silchar; Chairman, Silchar Co-operative Town Bank. *Address:* Silchar, Assam.

CHANDAVARKAR, VITHAL NARAYAN, Vice-chancellor of Bombay University, eldest *s.* of the late Sir Narayan Ganesh Chandavarkar, B.A. (Cantab); Maths. Trip. Pt. I. (1909); Nat. Sc. Trip. Pt. I. (1911); Hist. Trip. Pt. II. (1912); Barrister-at-Law of Lincoln's Inn, 1913; Assistant, N. Sirur & Co. Cotton Mill Agents. *b.* 26 Nov. 1887 *m.* Vatsalabai, 3rd *d.* of Rao Saheb M. V. Kalkini of Karwar (N. Kanara). *Educ:* Aryan E. S. High School and Elphinstone High School; Elphinstone College, Bombay; and King's College, Cambridge, Advocate, Bombay High Court, 1913-20; Acting Professor of History, Elphinstone College, Bombay July to October 1915; joined the firm of N. Sirur & Co., 1920; Elected Councillor, Bombay Municipal Corporation, 1926; re-elected 1929 and 1932; Chairman, Law Committee, 1928-29; Chairman, Standing (Finance) Committee, 1929-30; Chairman, Revenue Committee, 1930-31; Mayor of Bombay, 1932-33. Appointed Vice-chancellor, University of Bombay. April 1933. *Address:* 41, Pedder Road, Malabar Hill, Bombay.

CHARANJIT SINGH, THE HON'BLE RAJA (1932), Chief of Punjab and Member, Kapurthala Ruling Family; Member Council of State. Durbar 1903; Coronation 1911: Durbar 1911. *b.* 1883. *s.* of Kanwar Sochel Singh. *Educ:* Jullunder, Chief's College, Lahore; Govt. College, Lahore, *Address:* Charanjit Castle, Jullunder City; Chadwick, Simla, S. W.; 5 Mansingh Road, New Delhi.

CHARKHARI, H. H. MAHARAJA-DHIRAJ, SIPAHDAR-UL-MULK MAHARAJA ARIMARDAN SINGH JU DEO. BAHADUR. *b.* Jan. 1903, *s.* 1920. *Educ.:* Mayo Coll., Ajmer; invested with full Ruling Powers on December 6th, 1924. *Address:* Charkhari State, Bundelkhand.

CHATTERJEE, SIR ATUL CHANDRA, G.C.I.E., (1933), K.C.S.I., (1930) K.C.I.E., (1925). Member of the India Council 1931. *b.* 24 Nov. 1874 *m.* 1 Vina Mookerjee (deceased) (2) Gladys M. Broughton, O.B.E., M.A., D. Sc. *Educ.:* Hare School and Presidency Coll., Calcutta, and King's Coll., Cambridge; First in list Calcutta B.A., B.A. with Honours (Cambridge); Hon. LL.D. (Edinburgh); First in list I.C.S. Open Competition. Entered I.C.S., 1897; served in U. P. Special inquiry into industries in U. P., 1907-08; Registrar, Co-operative Societies, U.P., 1912-16; Revenue Sec., U. P. Govt., 1917-18; Ch. Sec., U. P. Govt., 1919; Govt. of India delegate to International Labour Confce., Washington, 1919 and Geneva, 1921, 1924-1933; (President, International Labour Conference, 1927) and to League of Nations Assembly 1925; President, Governing Body, International Labour Office; Vice-President of the Economic Consultative Committee of the League of Nations; Member, Permanent Opium Board of League of Nations;

has been Member of Imperial Economic Committee 1925-1931; Indian Government Delegate to London Naval Conference, 1930; Member, Munitions and Industries Board, 1920; Secretary to the Government of India, Department of Industries, 1921; Member of the Viceroy's Executive Council in Charge of Industries and Labour; Member of the Legislative Assembly, 1921-24. High Commissioner for India in London 1925-31. Leader of Indian Delegation to Imperial Conference, Ottawa; 1932. *Publications:* Note on the Industries of the United Provinces (1909). *Address:* The Athenaeum, Waterloo Place, London., S. W. I.

CHATTERJEE, SISIR CHANDRA, M. D. (Edin.)-M. R. C. P. (Edin.), D.P.H. (Univ. Edin.); officiating Chief Medical Officer, E. B. Rail, way. *b.* 4 Dec. 1886. *m.* Nance MacDonald, *Educ:* Calcutta and D Edinburgh. Temp. Commission in the I. M. S. during Great War; District Surgeon, G. I. P. Railway, 1918-28; Dy. Chief Medical and Health Officer, N. W. Rly., 1920-31; Principal Medical and Health Officer, G. I. P. Railway, 1931. *Address:* 2, Belvedere Park, Calcutta.

CHAUDHARI, JOGES CHANDRA, B.A. (Oxon), M.A. (Cal.), Bar.-at-Law. *b.* 28 June 1863. *m.* Sarasibala Devi, 3rd *d.* of Sir Surendranath Banerjea. *Educ.*:Krishnaghar Collegiate School, Presidency College, Calcutta, St. Xavier's College, Calcutta and New College, Oxford. For some time Lecturer of Physics and Chemistry at Vidyasagar College, Calcutta; Editor, Calcutta Weekly Notes since 1896; Organising Secry., Indian Industrial Exhibitions in Calcutta in 1901-1902 and 1906-7; Member, Bengal Council, 1904-7; Member, Legislative Assembly, 1921-1923; Fellow of the Calcutta University, 1927-1931: *Publications:* Calcutta Weekly Notes. *Address:* 3, Hastings Street, and "Devadwar," 34, Baligunge, Circular Road, Calcutta.

CHAUDHRI LAL CHAND, HON. CAPTAIN THE HON. RAO BAHADUR, B.A.,LL.B., O.B.E., M.L.A. (Nominated) *b.* 1882. *m.* Shrimati Sushila Devi, belonging to a Sikh Jat Family of Ferozepur Dist. *Educ:* St. Stephin's College, Delhi, Joined Revenue Department, 1904; took LL.B. degree 1912 and practised as lawyer at Rohtak elected Vice-Chairman, District Board, 1914-17; elected Punjab Council, 1916; nominated Council of State, 1922; President All-India Jat Maha Sabha, 1918 (elected); Manager of High School for Sons of Soldiers; hon. recruiting officer during War. Minister, Punjab Government, 1924; Revenue Member, Bharatpur State, 1924 and President, State Council, 1926-1927. Has taken to practice as an Advocate of the Lahore High Court at Rohtak. President All-India *Jat* Maha Sabha. *Address:* Rohtak.

CHETTY, SIR SHANMUKHAM, K.C.I.E. (1933), B. A., B. L. Lawyer and President, Legislative Assembly. *b.* 17 Oct. 1892. *Educ:* The Madras Christian College. Elected as a member of the Madras Legis. Council in 1920; was appointed Council Secretary to the Development Minister in 1922; in Oct. 1922 was deputed by the Madras Govt. to report about measures of Temperance Reform in Bombay, Bengal and the United Provinces. Elected in 1923 as member, Legislative Assembly. Visited England in May 1924 as one of the members of the Deputation sent by the National Convention of India; visited Australia as Indian representative on the Delegation of the Empire Parliamentary Association in September 1926; was re-elected uncontested to Legis. Assembly in the General Election of 1926; Chief Whip of the Congress Party in Legislative Assembly; was nominated by the Government of India as Adviser to the Indian Employers' Delegate at the Eleventh Session of the International Labour Conference held at Geneva in June 1928. Again in 1929 was nominated a second time to represent the Indian Employers in the 12th International Labour Conference at Geneva; was appointed a member of the Central Banking Enquiry Committee; Re-elected to the Assembly in 1930 without contest; was elected Dy. President, Legislative Assembly in January 1931. Attended International Labour Conference at Geneva in April 1932 as Chief Delegate of Indian employers; was nominated by Government of India as one of its representatives at Imperial Economic Conference held at Ottawa in July-August 1932. Elected unanimously as President of the Legislative Assembly in March 1933. *Address:* "Hawarden" Race Course, Coimbatore.

CHETWODE, FIELD-MARSHAL SIR PHILIP WALHOUSE; 7th Bt. cr. 1700; G.C.B. (1929); K.C.B. (1918), K.C.M.G. (1917); C.B. (1915); D.S.O. (1900); A.D.C. General, 1927; Commander-in-Chief in India (November 1930). *b.* 21 September 1869; *e. s.* of Lieut.-Col. Sir George Chetwode, 6th Bt. and Alice, *d.* of late Michael T. Bass, Rangemore, Staffordshire. *m.* 1899. Hester Alice Camilia, *e. d.* of late Col. Hon. Richard Stapleton Cotton; one *s.* one *d. Educ:* Eton. Entered Army 1889; Capt. 1897; Major 1901; Lieut.-Colonel, 1909; Col. 1912; Brig.-General 1941; General, 1926; Field-Marshal, 1933; served Chin Hills, Burmah, 1892-3 (medal with clasp); S. Africa, 1899-1902 (despatches twice, Queen's Medal 5 clasps, King's Medal 2 clasps, D.S.O.); European War 1914-18; commanded 5th Cavalry Brigade, 1914-15 (wounded, C. B.); 2nd Cavalry Division, 1915-1916 (promoted Major-General for distinguished service); commanded Desert Corps, Egypt, 1916-17 (K.C.M.G.); commanded East Force, 1917; commanded 20th Army Corps, 1917-18; capture of Jerusalem and campaign in Palestine and Syria (despatches eleven times); 1914 Star, British General service Medal and Allied Medal, K.C.B., Commander Legion of Honour, Croix de Guerre Grand Officer Order of the Nile) 1st Class Order of the Sacred Treasure (Japan; order of the Star of Nepal, First class; promoted Lieut.-General, (1919); Military Secretary, War Office, 1919-20; Deputy Chief of the Imperial General Staff, 1920-22; Adjutant General to the Forces, 1922-23; Commander-in-Chief, Aldershot Command-1923-27; Chief of General Staff, India, 1928, 1930. *Address:* Simla and Delhi.

CHHATARI, HIS EXCELLENCY CAPTAIN NAWAB SIR MUHAMMAD AHMAD SAID KHAN, K.C.S.I. (1933), K.C.I.E. (1928), M.B.E. (1918); *b.* 12th December 1888. *m.* to *d.* of his uncle Nawab Bahadur Abdus Samad Khan of Talibnagar, (Aligarh), U.P. *Educ:* M.A.O. College, Aligarh. President, All-India Muslim Rajput Conference, 1923; Member, U.P. Legislative Council, 1920-25; First elected non-official Chairman, District Board, Bulandshahr, 1922-23; Minister of Industries, U.P. 1923-25; Home Member, U.P., 1926-1933; Ag. Governor U.P. June 1928-August 1928, Member, 1st and 2nd London Round Table Conferences, 1930 and 1931; appointed Governor of United Provinces, 6th April, 1933. *Address:* Secretariat, United Provinces.

CHIDAMBARAM CHETTYAR, M. Ct. M., Banker. *b.* 2nd August 1908. *m.* C. Valliammai. *Educ.:* Madras Christian Coll., President, Sir M. C. T. Muthiah Chettyar's High School, Purasawalkum, Madras. Director, The Indian Bank Ltd., Littles' Oriental Balm and Pharmæcials Ltd., Madras; Madras City Co-operative Bank Ltd., Madras. Chairman, United Life Assurance Co., Ltd., Madras; Trustee; Monegar Choultry and other connected Trusts: Madras Port Trust Board, Hindu High School Triplicane; Hindu Theological High School, Madras; Member, South India Chamber of Commerce, Madras Chamber of Commerce, Madras; Member, Madras Race Club, Gymkhana Club, Madras, Flying Club. Cosmopolitan Club, National Liberal Club, London Automobile Association of Southern India, Madras. *Address:* "Bedford House," Vepery, Madras.

CHINOY, SULTAN MEHERALLY, J.P., and Hon. Magistrate, Merchant, Managing Director in the firm of F.M. Chinoy & Co., Ltd., *b.* 16th February 1885, *m.* Miss Sherbanoo Ludhabhoy Ebrahim. *Educ.:* Bharda New High School and Elphinstone College. Founded the well-known firm of Automobile Distributors and Engineers, the Bombay Garage, now situated at Meher Buildings, Bandstand, Chowpatty. Mainly responsible for the Wireless Industry in India; Director of the Indian Radio and Cable Communications Co., Ltd. *Address:* Carmichael Road, Cumballa Hill, Bombay.

CHINTAMANI, CHIRRAVOORI YAJNESWARA, Chief Editor of *The Leader* of Allahabad. *b.* 10 April 1880, *m.* Srimati Krishnavenemma, *Educ.:* Maharaja's College, Vizianagram, Editor of *The Leader*, Allahabad, 1909-20; Member, U. P. Legislative Council, 1916-1923; and again since 1927: Delegate of the Liberal Party to England 1919; General Secretary, National Liberal Federation of India, 1918-20 and 1923-29, President, ibid, 1920 and 1931; Minister of Education and Industries, U. P., 1921-23; Member, Indian Round Table Conference, and Indian Franchise Committee; President, U. P. Liberal Association. *Publications:* Indian Social Reform, 1901; Speeches and writings of Sir Pherozeshah Mehta, 1904. *Address:* Gauri Nivas, 17, Hamilton Road, Allahabad.

CHITRE, ATMARAM ANANT, LL.B., Advocate (O.S.); J.P., Chief Judge, Presidency Court of Small Causes, Bombay. *b.* 17 May 1877. *Educ.:* Wilson College and Govt. Law School, Bombay. Practised as an Advocate on the Original Side of the High Court from 1907 to 1916: acted as Chief Judge 1916-17; confirmed as Chief Judge Dec. 1928. *Address:* Laburnum Road, New Gamdevi, Bombay.

CHOKSY, THE HON'BLE SIR NASARVANJI HORMASJI, Kt. (1929) C.I.E., 1922; Member, Council of State, 1933; Khan Bahadur (1897); Chevalier of the Crown of Italy (1899); Medallistedes Epidemies Republique Francaise (1906); M.D. (Hon. Causa), Freiburg, F.C.P.S. (Bombay), L. M. & S. (Bombay 1884); Member, Bombay Medical Council, 1912-1932; ex-President, College of Physicians and Surgeons, and; Bombay Medical Union Hon. Secretary, Governor's Hospital Fund for Bombay and the British Empire Leprosy Relief Association, Bombay Presidency Branch. Chairman, Sanitary Committee, Back Bay Reclamation Scheme. *b.* 7 Oct. 1861; *m.* Serenbai Maneckjee Jhaveri, *Educ.:* Elphinstone High School and Grant Medical College, Medical Superintendent, Acworth Leper Asylum, 1890-97; Medical Superintendent of Arthur Road, Plague and Infectious Diseases Hospital (1888-1921), and Maratha Plague Hospital (1902-1921). *Publications:* Numerous publications on Plague, Cholera, Relapsing Fever, Leprosy, Special reports connected with these subjects, etc. *Address:* Nepean Sea Road, Malabar Hill, Bombay.

CLARKE, WALTER DOUGLAS MONTGOMERY, H. M. Trade Commissioner, Bombay. *b.* 3rd March, 1890, *m.* Jocelyn, *d.* of late J. E. Baker, Esq., Christ Church, N.Z. two daughters. *Educ:* High School, Kelso and Trinity College, Glenalmond. In business in Burma and India, 1911-1921; joined Indian Army Reserve of Officers, 1915; served with 38th Dogras, Mohmand campaign, 1915-16; appointed Asstt. Cable Censor, Madras, 1916; and Deputy Controller (Hides), Indian Munitions Board, Bombay, 1918-19; Hon. Secretary, Cochin Chamber of Commerce and Member, Cochin Harbour 'ad hoc' Committee, 1921. *Address:* Somerset Cottage, Warden Road, Bombay.

CLAY, JOSEPH MILES, B.A. (Oxon.), C.I.E. (1925), I.C.S., Chief Secretary to Government, United Provinces. *b.* 6 September 1881, *m.* Edith Marguerite Florence, *d.* of E. T. Hall, F.R.I.B.A., of Dulwich. *Educ:* Winchester College, New College, Oxford. Entered I.C.S. in 1905; Under-Secretary to Government; 1911-13; Dy. Commissioner, Garhwal, 1931-20; Magistrate and Collector, Cawnpore, 1921-25; Dy. Commissioner, Naini Tal, 1925-28; Secretary to Government 1928-31; Chief Secretary since 1931. *Address:* Lucknow.

CLAYTON, HUGH BYARD, C.I.E. (1924); I.C.S. Commissioner, Central Division, Poona. *b.* 24 Dec. 1877. *m.* Annie Blanch Nepean. *Educ:* St. Paul's School, Wadham College, Oxford, 1st Class Hon. Mods. 1st Class Lit. Hum. Came to India 1901; served in Bombay Presidency; employed in Military Intelligence Branch of War Office, 1914-19. Municipal Commissioner 1919-1928. Chairman, Haj Enquiry Committee, 1929-30; Member, Council of State, 1929-30. *Address:* 21, Queen's Gardens, Poona.

CLOW, ANDREW GOURLAY, M.A., J.P., F.S.S., C.I.E. (1928); Indian Civil Service, Joint Secretary to Government of India, Dept., of Industries and Labour (1931). *b.* 29th April 1890, *m.* Ariadne Mavis Dunderdale 1925. *Educ:* Merchiston Castle School, Edinburgh, St. John's College, Cambridge. Served in U. P. as Asstt. Collector, Assistant Settlement Officer and Settlement Officer, 1914-20; Controller, Labour Bureau, Govt. of India, 1920-23, Chairman, Seamen's Recruitment Committee, 1922; Secretary, Workmen's Compensation Committee, 1922; Under-Secretary to Government of India, 1923-4; Adviser and delegate, International Labour Conferences, Geneva, 1921, 1923, 1929 and 1931; Dy. Secretary to Government of India; Department of Industries and Labour, 1924-27; Member, Legislative Assembly, 1923, 1925-27, 1932-33; Member, Council of State, 1928-29 and 1932-33; Member, Royal Commission on Labour in India, 1929-31. *Publications:* The Indian Workmen's Compensation Act (1924); Indian Factory Legislation, a Historical Survey (1927), The State and Industry, (1928), etc. *Address:* 2 York Place, New Delhi.

COLLINS, GODFREY FERDINANDO STRATFORD, M.A., O.B.E., (1919); C.I.E., (1931); I.C.S., Collector and District Magte., Karachi. *b.* 3rd November 1888. *m.* Joyce, *d.* of G. Turville Brown, Esq., *Educ.:* Charterhouse and Christ Church, Oxford. Asstt. Collector, 1912; on Military Duty, 1916-18, Dy. Director of Civil Supplies, 1919. Forest Settlement Officer, 1920-22, Revenue Settlement Officer, 1924-26; Deputy Secretary, Finance Department, 1925-1926; Registrar Co-operative Societies, 1926-27; Collector and District Magistrate, 1923-1926; and 1928-1929, Home Secretary, 1929-31. *Address:* Grindlay & Co., Bombay.

COLSON, LIONEL HEWITT, C.I.E. (1934); King's Police Medal (1916); Commissioner of Police, Calcutta. *b.* May 24, 1887. *m.* Isabel A. Denham, *d* of T. Denham, Esq., Indian Educational service (retired). *Educ*; Victoria College, Jersey. *Address:* 2 Kyd Street, Calcutta.

COLVIN, GEORGE LETHBRIDGE, C.B. (1919), C.M.G. (1918); D.S.O. (1916); Commendatore of the Order of St. Maurice and St. Lazarus, (Italy), 1920; A. D. C. to H. M. King (1928). Agent, East Indian Railway. *b.* 27 March 1878. *m.* Katherine Mylne, *d.* of James Mylne of Edinburgh. *Educ:* Westminster. Joined E. I. Railway, 1898; served in Army (France and Italy) during war, 1914-1919; Hon. Brigadier-General in Arm Director of Development Ministry of Transport, London, from 1919 to 1921. Rejoined E. I. Rly. in 1921 as Agent. *Address:* Bengal Club, Calcutta.

CONNOR, COL. SIR FRANK POWELL, Kt. (1926), D. S. O., F. R. C. S., V. H. S., I. M. S., A. D. M. S., Bombay Dist. Late Professor of Surgery, Medical College, Calcutta. *b.* 1877, *m.* Grace Ellen Lees, *d.* of late R. O. Lees. *Educ:* St. Bartholomew's Hospital, London. Indian Army, Civil in Bengal; War service in France and Mesopotamia (mentioned in Despatches four times, D.S.O., Brevet Lieut.-Colonel); Consulting Surgeon, Mesopotamian Expeditionary Force. *Publications:* Surgery in the Tropics (Churchill) Chapters on "Surgery in the Tropics" in (1) Rose and Carless, Manual of Surgery and (2) Nelson's Loose-Leaf Surgery; and various surgical articles in Medical Journals. *Address:* 3, Heneker Drive, Colaba, Bombay.

CONTRACTOR, MISS NAVAJBAI DORABJI, B.A., J.P., Hon. Presidency Magistrate; Member of the Committee of Visitors for the Cama and Allbless Hospitals; Lady Superintendent, Chanda Ramji High Girls' School, Bombay *Educ.:* Wilson College, Bombay. First Indian Lady Fellow in Arts in the Bombay University (1922); an extensive traveller throughout India, Burma and Ceylon; and in China, Japan, and United States of America; and Educational tours in 1921 and 1933 through principal Cities of England, France, Germany, Italy, Spain, Austria and Norway. *Publications:* Contributions on topical, educational and social subjects in English and Gujarati in periodicals and newspapers published in Bombay. *Address:* Hardinge House, Gowalia Tank Road, Bombay.

COPPEL, RT. REV. FRANCIS STEPHEN, Kaisar-I-Hind Gold Medal (1924), R. C., Bishop of Nagpur, since 1907. *b.* Les Geta Savoy, 5 Jan. 1867. *Educ.:* College of Evisn, University of France, Lyons, B.A., B.Sc. Entered Congregation of Missionaries of St. Francis de Sales, Annecy; Priest, 1890; sent to India for mission of Nagpur, 1892; for fifteen years attached to St. Francis de Sales College, Nagpur, as professor and principal. *Address:* Nagpur.

COPPINGER, MAJOR-GENERAL WALTER VALENTINE, M.D. (Dublin); F.R.C.S.I., D.S.O. (1917); C.I.E. (1930); Surgeon-General with Government of Bengal. *b.* 1875. *m.* Miss M. M. O'Kelly. *Educ.:* Belvedere School, Dublin and T. C. Dublin. Civil Surgeon, Bengal, 1903; Prof. of Ophthalmic Surgery, Medical College, Calcutta, 1919-1929. Inspector-General of Civil Hospitals, Central Provinces, 1929-1931. *Address:* Writers' Buildings, Calcutta.

CORBETT, GEOFFREY LATHAM, M.A. (Oxon.), C.I.E. (1921); Joint Secretary, Commerce Department, Government of India. *b.* 9 Feb. 1881. *m.* Gladys Kate. *d.* of late George Bennett, Esq., Little Rissington Manor, Glos. *Educ:* Bromsgrove School, Hertford Coll., Oxford, 1st Class. Hon. Mods. (1902), 1st Class Lit. Hum. (1904). Passed into I.C.S., 1904; Asstt. Commissioner, C. P., 1905-09; Settlement Officer, Saugor, 1910-16; Dy. Commissioner, C. P., 1916-18; Dir. of Industries and Dy. Secretary, C. P., 1918; Dy. Secretary, Com. Depart., Government of India, 1919-21; on deputation, South and East Africa, 1920; Washington Disarmament Conference, 1921; Fiji Islands, 1922; Director of Industries and Registrar, Co-operative Credit Societies, C. P., 1923; Offg. Secretary, Commerce Department, Government of India, 1923-24. *Address:* Commerce Department, Government of India, Delhi and Simla.

COSGRAVE, WILLIAM ALEXANDER, B.A. (Dublin); C.I.E. (1931); Indian Civil Service. Commissioner, Assam Valley Division (1933).

b. 6 April 1879. *m*, Maude Elizabeth, *d.* of late C. E. Gale, Esq., of Cheltenham. *Educ:* Shrewsbury and Trinity College, Dublin. Came to India 1903 and served in Bihar, Eastern Bengal and Assam; transferred to Assam 1912; Political Agent in Manipur, 1917-20; Deputy Commissioner, Lakhimpur, 1920-24; Official representative of Govt. of Assam on Indian Legislative Assembly in several sessions between 1925-32; Chief Secretary to Government of Assam, 1930-31 and 1932-33. *Address:* Commissioner's House, Gauhati, Assam.

COTELINGAM, JOHN PRACASA RAO, M.A., F.M.U., Retired Principal of Wardlaw College. Bellary, 1891-1918. *b.* 9th Dec. 1860. *m.* Miss Padmanji, *d.* of the Rev. Baba Padmanji of Bombay. *Educ.*: Madras Christian Coll. Asstt. Master, London Mission High School, Madras; Headmaster, Wesley Coll.; Principal, Hindu Coll., Cuddalore, 1889-1891; Member Bellary Dist. Board and Taluk Board since 1895; Vice-Presdt., Dist. Board, 1901-4; Member, Bellary Municipal Council since 1893; Presdt., District Educational Council, Bellary, 1921-24. Represented Indian Christian Community and Madras Presidency on the Legislative Assembly, 1921-23. *Address:* Rock Cottage, Bellary.

COTTERELL, CECIL BERNARD, C.S.I. (1933), C.I.E., I.C.S. Member, Board of Revenue, Madras, 1928. *m.* 1922. *Educ:* St. Peter's School, York, Balliol College, Oxford. Entered I.C.S., 1898; has served in the Madras Presidency, since 1899; Deputy Commissioner Salt and Abkari Dept., 1905; Private Sec. to Governor of Madras 1912-15. Secretary to Government, 1925-28; Commissioner of May 1930. First Excise, Ag. Chief Secretary to Government, Member, Board of Revenue, August 1932. *Address:* Madras

COUBROUGH, ANTHONY CATHCART, C.B.E (1918); M.A., B.Sc., C.E., M.I.E.E., M.I. MECH. E., M.I.E. (Ind.); Director, Messrs. Mather and Platt, Ltd. *b.* 10th Feb. 1877. *Educ.*: Glasgow University. Joined Mather and Platt, Ltd., in 1898 as apprentice, subsequently became General Manager, Electrical Department and in that capacity travelled widely on the Continent went to India and South Africa and eventually returned to India to establish Mather and Platt's own office in Calcutta, Bombay and other centres for the control of their business from Mesopotamia to the Straits; has travelled in China, Japan, United States of America, Australia and Egypt. During war services were lent to Govt. of India; under Munitions Board, was Controller of Priority and latterly Controller of Munitions Manufacture. *Publications:* Pamphlets on Technical and Economic subjects. *Address:* 7, Hare Street, Calcutta.

COUSINS, JAMES HENRY, Doctor of Literature of Keiogijuku University, Japan, (1922), *m.* Margaret E. Cousins, B. Mus. J. P. (1903). *Educ.:* at various schools in Ireland and partly in Trinity College, Dublin (Teachers Course). Private Secretary to Lord Mayor of Belfast; Asstt. Master, Belfast Mercantile Academy; Asstt. Master, High School, Dublin; Reporter to Royal Academy of Medicine in Ireland; Demonstrator in Geography and Geology, Summer Course, Royal Col. of Science, Ireland; Asstt. Editor, "New India," Madras; Principal, Theosophical College, Madanapalle 1916-1921; Fellow and Prof. of English, National University, Adyar; Principal Brahmavidya Ashrama (School of International Culture), Adyar, Madras; University Extension and Port Graduate Lecturer, Calcutta University, Benaras Hindu University, Mysore University; Visiting Lecturer, Tagore's Visva-Bharati, Bengal; Travelling Lectures, America, 1928-31; Special Lecturer in English Poetry in the College of the City of New York, 1931-32; again Principal, Theosophical College, Madanapalle, Madras, 1933; a co-founder of the Irish Literary and Dramatic Revival (1900, etc.); poet, dramatist, critic educationist, philosopher *Publications:* (Prose) A text book of Modern Geography, The Wisdom of the West, The Bases of Theosophy, The Renaissance in India, The Kingdom of Youth, Footsteps of Freedom, New Ways in English Literature, Asia, The Play of Brahma, Work and Worship The New Japan, The Philosophy of Beauty, Heathen Essays, Samadarsana; The Work Promethean; (Poetry) Ben Madighan, Sung by Six, The Blemished King, The Voice of One, The Awakening, The Bell Branch, Etain the Beloved, Straight and Crooked— The Garland of Life Ode to Truth, Moulted Feathers, The King's Wife (drama). Sea-Change, Surya Gita, Forest Meditation, Above the Rainbow, A Tibetan Banner, The Shrine, The Girdle, A Wandering Harp (Collected Edition). *Address:* Theosophical College, Madanapalle, Madras Presidency.

COYAJEE, SIR JEHANGIR COOVERJEE, KT., Professor of Political Economy and Philosophy Andhra University. *b.* 11 Septr. 1875; *s.* of late Cooverjee Coyajee, Rajkot. *Educ:* Elphinstone College, Bombay, and Caius College Cambridge. Lately Member Royal Commissions on the Indian Tariff and Indian Currency; Member of Council of State, 1930; Delegate to the Assembly of League of Nations, Geneva, 1930. 1932; Principal, Presidency College, 1930-31; Correspondent, Royal Economic Society. *Publications:* The Indian Fiscal Problem; Indian Currency and Exchange; The Indian Currency System. "India and the League of Nations."; "The Economic Depression." *Address:* Andhra University, Waltair.

CRAIK, SIR HENRY DUFFIELD, Bt., B.A. (Oxon.), C.S.I. (1924), K.C.S.I. (1933). Home Member designate, Government of India. *b.* 2nd January 1876. *Educ:* Eton and Pembroke Coll., Oxford. Joined I.C.S. 1899 and served in the Punjab and with the Government of India in various capacities since then. Succeeded to baronetcy, 1929. Finance Member, Govt. of the Punjab; appointed Home Member, Govt. of India April 1934. *Address:* Simla and Delhi.

CUNNINGHAM, SIR CHARLES BANKS, Kt. 1933, Police Medal (Jan. 1929); C.S.I., Jan. 1931. King's Inspector-General of Police, Madras. *b.* 8 May 1884. *m.* Grace Macnish, *d.* of Hugh Macnish, 1912. *Educ:* Campbeltown Grammar School. Asst. Superintendent of Police, Madras Presidency, 1904; Supdt. of Police, 1909; Dy. Commissioner of Police, Madras, 1910; Commissioner of Police, Travancore, 1915-1921; Dy. Inspector-Genl. of Police, Jan. 1928; Commissioner of Police, Madras, May 1928; Inspector-General of

Police, Madras, May 1930. *Address:* 25, Sterling Road, Madras.

CUNNINGHAM, GEORGE, B.A. (Oxon.), C.S.I., C.I.E., O.B.E., I.C.S., Home Member, Exec. Council, N. W. F. Province. *b.* 23 March 1888. *m.* K. M. Adair. *Educ.* Fettes Coll., Edinburgh, Magdalen College, Oxford. I.C.S. 1911; Political Department, since 1914. Served on N.W. Frontier, 1914-25; Counsellor, British Legation, Kabul, 1925-6. Private Secretary to H. E. the Viceroy, 1926-31. *Address:* Peshawar.

CURLING, EDWARD HIGHAM, J. P. (1920). Manager, Lloyds Bank Limited, Bombay. *b.* 1882. *m.* Violet Maude, *d.* of the late John Plaister Marshall Craddock of Bath, Somerset. *Educ:* King's School, Canterbury. Cox & Co., London, 1901; arrived in India 1906; Lloyds Bank Ltd., on absorption of Cox & Co., 1923. *Address:* Dunkeld, Harkness Road, Malabar Hill, Bombay.

CUTTRISS, C. A., M.B.E., Landlord. Hon. Magistrate, Rangoon. *b.* Launceston. 28 Nov. 1862, *m.* Janet, *d.* of Dr. Hayter, M.D.; was Hon. Sec. Burma "Our Day" Fund, Burma War Fund, Rangoon Rivercraft Committee and Rangoon Impressment of Shipping Committee during the war. *Publications:* Essays on Commercial Subjects. *Address:* "Riverside," Kalaw, Burma.

DADABHOY, SIR MANECKJI BYRAMJEE C.I.E. (1911); Kt. (1921); K.C.I.E. (1925); President, Council of State. *b.* Bombay, 30 July 1865. *m.* 1884, Bai Jerbanoo, O. B. E., *d.* of Khan Bahadur Dadabhoy Pallonji of the Commissariat Dept. *Educ.:* Proprietary High School and St. Xavier's College, Bombay. Joined Middle Temple, 1884; called to Bar, 1887; Advocate of Bombay High Court, 1887; Member, Bombay Municipal Corporation, 1889-90; Government Advocate, Central Provinces, 1891; President, Prov. Industrial Conference, Raipur, 1907; President, All-India Industrial Conference, Calcutta, 1911; Member of Viceroy's Legislative Council, 1908-12 and 1914-17; a Governor of the Imperial Bank of India (1920-32). Elected to the Council of State, 1921; and nominated 1926 and 1931; Member, Fiscal Commission, appointed by Govt. of India, Sept. 1921; Member of the Royal Commission on Indian Currency and Finance 1925-26; Member, Round Table Conference and Federal Structure Committee, 1931, Member, Municipal Board, Nagpur, for 39 years; Managing Director, Nagpur Electric Light and Power Co., Ltd., Berar Manufacturing Co., Ltd., Model Mills, Nagpur, Limited, C. P. Contracting and Mining Syndicates, Chairman, Tirody Manganese Ore Co., Ltd., Proprietor Ballarpur, Sasti, Ghugus; Pisgaon-Rajur and Chirmiri Collieries; numerous Manganese Mines in the Central Provinces and Berar and Behar and Orissa; Several Gin and Press Factories in different parts of India. *Publications:* Commentary on the Land Laws of the Central Provinces, and Commentary on the Central Provinces Tenancy Act. *Address:* Nagpur, C.P.

DAGA, RAI BAHADUR SETH SIR BISESERDAS, Kt. (1921), Senior Proprietor of the firm of Rai Bahadur Bansilal Abeerchand, Banker, Govt. Treasurer, landlord, merchant, millowner and mineowner, Director of Model Mills, Nagpur, and of Berar Manufacturing Company, Badnera, Chairman, Nagpur Electric Light and Power Company, Life Member of the Countess of Dufferin Fund and member of the Legislative Assembly of the Bikaner State. *b.* 1877. *m.* Krishna Bai. *Educ.:* privately Second Class Tazim, Bikaner State. *Publications:* Sir Kasturchand Memorial Dufferin Hospital at Nagpur and frequent contributions on public charity. *Address:* Nagpur (C. P.) and Bikaner (Rajputana).

DALAL, ARDESHIR RUSTOMJI, B.A. (Bombay); M.A. (Cambridge), I.C.S., (retd.) Director, Tata Sons & Co., Ltd. *b.* 24 April 1884. *m.* to Manackbai Jamsetji Ardeshir Wadia. *Educ:* Elphinstone College, Bombay. St. John's College, Cambridge. Asstt. Collector, Dharwar, Colaba, Bijapur Superintendent, Land Records; Belgaum; Collector, Ratnagiri and Panch Mahals; Deputy Secretary, Govt. of Bombay, Revenue Department; Acting Secretary, Govt. of Bombay, Finance Department; Ag. Secretary, Govt. of India, Education, Health and Land Departments and Municipal Commissioner, Bombay. *Address:* C/o Tata Iron & Steel Co., Ltd. 100, Clive Street, Calcutta.

DALAL, SIR BARJOR JAMSHEDJI, Kt. (1930), B.A., I.C.S., Bar-at-Law, Chief Justice, Kashmir State. *b.* 21 Jan. 1871, *m.* to Avee, *d.* of the late Naoroji Vakil of Surat. *Educ.:* at home, Elphinstone College, Bombay; Exeter Coll., Oxford. Entered I.C.S., Asst. Magte., Allahabad, 1894; Dist. and Sessions Judge, 1899; Judicial Commissioner, Lucknow, 1921; Judge, High Court, 1925 1931; Member of every Commission appointed in U. P. under the Defence of India Act; Chief Justice, Kashmir, 1931. *Address:* C/o Lloyds Bank, Ltd., Bombay.

DALAL, SIR DADIBA MERWANJEE, Kt. (1924), C.I.E. (1921). Stock and Finance Broker, *b.* 12 Dec. 1870. *m.* 1890; one *s.* three *d. Educ.:* in Bombay. Gave evidence before the Chamberlain Currency Commission (1913); Member of the Committee on Indian Exchange and Currency (1919) and wrote minority report; Chairman, Government Securities Rehabilitation Committee, Bombay (1921); Member of Council of the Secretary of State for India, 19 Nov. 1921 to 25th Jan. 1923: Delegate for India at International Economic Confce., Genoa, and representative for India at the Hague (1922). Member of the Inchcape Committee, 1922-23, Delegate for India at the Imperial Economic Conference (1923). High Commissioner for India in the U. K., 1922-24. *Address:* 1, Marine Lines, Bombay.

DARLEY, SIR BERNARD D'OLIER, Kt. (1928), C. I. E. (1919) M. I. C. E., Chief Engineer, Bahawalpur State. *b.* 24 August 1880. *Educ.:* T. C., Dublin and Cooper's Hill. Irrigation work in P. W. D. United Provinces 1903-31; Chief Engineer 1924-31. *Address:* Bahawalpur, Punjab.

DAS, BRAJA SUNDAR, B.A., Member, Legis. Assembly; Zamindar and Proprietor of a press and cultivation. *b.* July 1880. *m.* to Umasundari, 4th *d.* of Rai Sudam Charn

Naik Bahadur. *Educ.*: Ravenshaw Coll. and Presidency Coll., Calcutta. Took part in Utkal Union Conference since its beginning in 1904 and Secy. for two years; Vice-President, Utkalsahitya Samaj; President, Oriya Peoples' Association; Vice-President, Orissa Assocn., and Ramkrishna Sevak Samaj; was President of Central Youngmen's Association; Member, Sakhigopa Temple Committee; was Member of Cuttack Municipality and District Board; Member, Bihar and Orissa Council, 1916-1920; Fellow of Patna University and member of the Syndicate. *Publications*: Editor of the Oriya Monthly Muken and of the only English Weekly in Orissa "The Oriya." *Address:* Cuttack.

DAS, MAJOR-GENERAL RAI BAHADUR DEWAN BISHAN, C.I.E., C.S.I. *b.* Jan. 1865. *Educ.* at Punjab Government College, Lahore; Private Secretary to Raja Sir Ramsingh, K.C.B., 1886-1898; Mily. Secy. to the Com.-in-Chief, Jammu and Kashmir, 1898-1909; Mily. Secry. to H. H. the Maharaja, 1909-14; Home Minister to H. H. the Maharaja, 1914-18, Rev. Minister, 1918-1921 and Chief Minister, March 1921-April 1922. Retired from Service. *Address:* Jammu and Kashmir.

DAS, MADHU SUDAN, C.I.E. *b.* 28 April 1848. *Educ.*: Calcutta University. M.A., B.L., M.R.A.S., F.N.B.A. Represented Orissa in Bengal Legislative Council four times; Fellow of Calcutta University; elected by Legislative Council of Bihar and Orissa to Imperial Council, 1913; nominated to Legislative Council of Bihar and Orissa. Minister (Local Self-Government), Bihar and Orissa, since Jan. 1921; elected by Municipalities of Orissa to his present seat in Bihar and Orissa Legislative Council. Is the proprietor of Utkal Tannery and of the Orissa Art Wares. Ex-President of All-India Indian Christian Conference; was first Minister of Local Self-Government in Bihar and Orissa; resigned office two years later. Advocate, Patna High Court. *Address:* Cuttack, B. N. Ry.

DAS, PANDIT NILAKANTHA, M.A., writer of books for children on new lines. *b.* August, 1884. *m.* Srimati Radhamani Debi (1905). *Educ.*: Puri Zilla School, Ravenshaw College, Cuttack and Scottish Churches College, Calcutta. Founded with Pt. Gopabandhu Das and others the residential open air private school at Satyabadi on a new line; was Resident Head Master there for 8 years; worked in connection with Puri Famine in 1919; appointed by Calcutta University for Post Graduate Professorship in 1920. Started Congress organisation and a National High School at Sambalpur and edited *The Seba* in 1921; became Dist. Congress Secretary, Puri, and Prov. Congress President, Utkal, 1922. Imprisoned for four months and fined Rs. 200 in 1923; elected to the Assembly from Orissa in 1924, and again in 1927; made Secretary, Utkal Provincial Congress and President, Utkal All-Party Conference; President, Gopabandhu Sebak Samaj. Elected Chairman, Reception Committee, I. N. Congress, Puri Session. *Publications:* Pranayini (a kavya in six cantos); Konarke (a long poem kavya); Mayadebi (a kavya in 6 cantos); Kharabela (a historical kavya in 25 cantos); Dasa Nayak (a long poem kavya); Aryajiban (Aryan life, a critical treatise on Aryan civilisation); many other books for children. *Address:* P.O. Sakhigopal, Dist. Puri (Orissa).

DAS, THE HON. MR. JUSTICE PROFULLA RANJAN, Judge, High Court, Patna, 1919. *b.* 28 April, 1881. *Educ.*: St. Xavier's College, Calcutta. *m.* Dorothy Mary Evans, 1904. *Address:* Ali Manzil, Patna.

DASTUR, SIR HORMAZDYAR PHIROZE, KT., (1933); B.A., LL.B., Bar-at-Law, Chief Presidency Magistrate, Bombay. *b.* 20th March 1878. *m.* Bachubai Edalji Dastur. *Educ.*: St. Xavier's College. Acted as Taxing Master, Clerk of the Crown, High Court. *Address:* The Grange, 21, Wodehouse Road, Bombay.

DAVISON, DEXTER HARRISON, Doctor of Dental Surgery. *b.* 29 Sept. 1869. *m.* Margaret St. Clair. *Educ.*: Chicago University. *Address:* Lansdowne House, Lansdowne Road, Apollo Bunder, Bombay.

DE, GLANVILLE, SIR OSCAR JAMES LARDNER, Kt. (1931); C.I.E. (1925); Barrister-at-Law; President, Burma Legislative Council, Governing Director, *Rangoon Daily News*; Member, Burma Legislative Council. *Address:* Rangoon, Burma.

DE, KIRAN CHANDRA, A.B., C.I.E., I.C.S. *b.* Calcutta, 19 January 1871. *Educ.*: Presidency College, Calcutta; St. John's College, Cambridge. Registrar of Co-operative Societies, also Fishery Officer, 1905: Magistrate-Collector, Rangpur, 1911; Member of Bengal District Administration Committee, 1913; Press Censor, Bengal, 1914. Secretary to Government to Bengal. General Dept. 1915; Commissioner of Chittagong Division, 1916-21; Member of the Legislative Council of the Governor-General of India, 1920; Commissioner of Burdwan Division, 1922; Commissioner, Presidency Division, 1923; Member of the Board of Revenue, Bengal, 1924-28; Member of the Council of State, 1928, retired from Indian Civil Service, Dec. 1928; Chairman, Bengal Banking Inquiry Committee from August 1, 1929, to May 1930. Government Manager of the estate of the Nawab Bahadur of Murshidabad from June 1931. *Address:* 1, Dumdum Road, Cossipore, Calcutta; Brookside, Shillong.

DEHLAVI, THE HON. SIR ALI MAHOMED KHAN, J.P., Kt. (1931), Bar-at-Law (1896). President, Bombay Legislative Council. *b.* 1875. *Educ.*: Bombay and London. Practised in Gujarat (1896-1900) and Sind (1900-1908). Started the first Anglo-Sindhi paper called "*Al Haq*" in Sind in the interests of the Zamindars in 1900, and edited it for three years. Organised the first Muslims Educational Conference in Hyderabad, Sind, in 1902 and was the local Secretary of the All-India Muslim Educational Conference invited to Karachi in 1907 as a result submitted the first non-official report to Government, on Education of Mahomedans in Sind. Was the Chairman of the Reception Committee which launched the All-India Muslim League for the first time in India in

1907 in Karachi. Was Diwan of Mangrol State in Kathiawar (1908-1912) and Wazir of Palanpur State in Gujarat (1914-21). Acted as Judge of the Small Causes Court, Bombay, (1913). Was elected to the Bombay Council from the Northern Division and was appointed Minister for Agriculture (1924-27). Was President of the 10th Presidency Muslim Educational Conference held in Poona. Was President of the first Mahomedan Educational Conference in Konkan held at Ratnagiri in 1926. Was elected again to the Bombay Council in 1927 and was elected as the President of the Council in the same year (1927-1930). Was elected again at the last general election from the same Mahomedan Constituency of Gujarat, and was again re-elected unanimously as President of the Council in 1931. *Publications*: History and Origin of Polo (Article), Mendicancy in India (Brochure). *Address:* Sadar House, Surat.

DENHAM-WHITE, ARTHUR, LT.-COL., I.M.S., M.B.B.S. (Hons.), Lond. 1904, M.R.C.S., L.R.C.P. (Eng.) 1903; F.R.C.S., Civil Surgeon, Alipore. Calcutta. *b.* Feb. 26, 1879. *m.* E. Gratton Geary (nee Davis). *Educ.:* Malvern College and St. Bartholomew Hospital; Gold Medalist Netley. Entered I.M.S., 1905. Resident Surgeon, Medical College Hospital. Calcutta, also Eden Hospital and Presidency General Hospital; active service in Mesopotamia, 1916-18; Offg. Professor of Surgery, Medical Course in 1922; Civil Surgeon, Darjeeling, 1919-1922; Civil Surgeon, Alipore, 1923. *Publications:* Monograph on delayed Chloroform Po'soning; Monograph on Toxic Effects of Organic Arsenic. *Address:* 25, Alipore Park, Calcutta.

DENNING, HOWARD, Sir, B.A. (Cantab.), C.I.E., I.C.S., Additional Secretary to the Govt. of India, Finance Department. *b.* 20 May 1885. *m.* Margery Katherine Wemyss Browne. *Educ.:* Clifton College and Caius College, Cambridge, 10th Wrangler. Indian Civil Service. Assistant Collector, Bombay Presidency; Under-Secretary, Finance Department of India, Joint Secretary of Babington Smith Currency Commission, Deputy Controller of the Currency, Bombay, and Controller of the Currency. *Address:* Imperial Secretariat, New Delhi.

DESAI, NICHHABHAI KALLIANJI, B.A., LL.B., Dewan, Sant State. *b.* 19 July 1875. *m.* A. S. Ichhabai. *Educ.:* Anglo-Vernacular School, Bulsar, The New High School, Bombay, Elphinstone College, and Govt. Law College, Bombay. Mathematics teacher, Cathedral Boys' High School, Bombay; High Court Pleader, Bombay; Nayadhish, Sant State, 1904 to 1912; Dewan, Sant State, since 1912. Has received certificate of merit for assisting in War Loan of 1917. *Publications:* Administration reports of Sant State. *Address:* Bulsar and Santrampur, Gujerat.

DESAI, RAMRAO PILAJI, J.P. *b.* 18 March 1876, *m.* to Lanibai, eldest *d.* of the late N. L. Mankar, once Chief Translator, Bombay High Court. *Educ.:* Elphinstone High School and Wilson College. Joined the Municipal Commissioner's Office in 1899, subsequently taken up as an Asstt. in the Municipal Corporation Office where he rose to be Municipal Secretary to which he was appointed in January 1925. Retired from 1st April 1931. *Address:* "The Dawn," Bombay Improvement Trust Dadar Matunga Estate, Plot No. 107 (South), Bombay.

DESHMUKH, GOPAL VINAYAK, L.M. & S. (Bombay); F.R.C.S. (Eng.), M.D. (Lond.). Consulting Surgeon and Physician. *b.* 4th Jan. 1884. *m.* Annapurnabai, *d.* of Deshmukh of Wun. *Educ.:* Morris Coll., Nagpur; Grant Medical College, Bombay; King's College and the London Hospital Medical College, London. House Surgeon to Jordan Lloyd, Professor of Surgery in Univ. of Birmingham at Queen's Hospital; Hon. Major at Lady Hardinge Hospital during war and Surgeon at J. J. Hospital and Professor of Operative Surgery at Grant Medical College (1920); Professor of Surgery at Goverdhandas Sunderdas Medical College and Hon. Surgeon at King Edward Hospital; Member, Bombay Municipal Corporation from 1922 and President, Bombay Municipal Corporation, 1928. *Publications:* Some papers on Abdominal Surgery; publications on Social Reform, Improving the Position and Status of Hindu Women. *Address:* Chaupati, Bombay.

DESHMUKH, RAMRAO MADHAVRAO, B.A., LL.B., Bar-at-Law, *b.* 25 November 1892. *m.* Shashikala Raje, *d.* of late Sardar Kadam of Gwalior. *Educ.:* at Cambridge. President, All-India Maratha Conference, Belgaum, 1917; practised at Amraoti in 1918 and at Nagpur, 1919-20; elected to C. P. Legislative Council in 1920 for Amraoti West Constituency; elected to All-India Congress Committee in 1921; elected to Legislative Council in 1923; as Swarajist; President of the Maharashtra Conference at Satara in 1925; elected first Chairman of District Council, Amraoti, 1925; resigned his membership of the Legislative Council in October 1925, elected to the Legislative Assembly in February 1926; elected to the C. P. Council for Amraoti Central Constituency as Responsivist in November 1926. Minister to C. P. Government, 1927-1928. Resigned the Ministry in August 1928, took office again in August 1929. Resigned Ministership in July 1930 in consequence of Berar Responsivist Party joining Forest Satyagraha. Lost his seat in 1930 elections owing Congress opposition. Started agitation for constituting Berar as a distinct unit of the Indian Federation in May 1931. President of the Berar Nationalist Party, 1932. Witness before Joint Parliamentary Committee with Hindu Mahasabha deputation in charge of Berar question; Delegate to England for Berar-All-Party Committee to represent the Berar case before the Secretary of State for India, 1933; President, Maharashtra Conference 1933. *Address:* Morsi Road, Amraoti (Berar).

DESHMUKH, THE HON'BLE DR. P. S., M.A, (Edin.), D. Phil. (Oxon.), Barrister-at-Law, Minister for Education, Central Provinces. *b.* December, 1898. *Educ.*; Fergusson College,

Poona, and took M. A. (Hons.) at Edinburgh. Won the Vans Dunlop Research Scholarship in 1923. Called to the Bar in 1925 and took the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in 1926 by writing a thesis on the "Origin and Development of Religion in Vedic Literature" Was elected Chairman of District Council, Amraoti, in 1928; increased taxation by 50 per cent. for compulsory education and threw open public wells for untouchables. Elected to C. P. Council in 1930; appointed Minister, December 1930 and put in charge of Education and Agriculture. Reduced School fees for agriculturist; introduced Hindu Religious Endowments Bill, Cattle Disease Prevention Bill, etc. *Address*: Nagpur, C. P.

DESHPANDE, SHANTARAM RAMKRISHNA, B.A., (Bom. 1st Class Honours), B. Litt. (Oxon.); Diploma in Economics and Politics and in Educational Theory and Practice (Oxon.), Senior Investigator, Labour Office, Secretariat, Bombay. *b.* 14th May 1899. *m.* Miss Leela Raje. *Educ.*: Elphinstone High School and Wilson College, Bombay, and University of Oxford. Appointed Senior Investigator, Labour Office, 1924; officiated as Director, Labour Office, 1925; statistician to the Royal Commission on Indian Labour 1929. *Publications*: "Some Village Studies", "Some Vital Problems relating to the Bombay Working Classes" written in collaboration and Published in the *Indian Journal of Economics*. "A Note on the Cotton of which the famous Dacca Muslins were made" (Published in the Bombay University Journal). *Address*: 14th Road, Khar, Bombay 21.

DESIKACHARIAR, DIWAN BAHADUR Sir T., B.A., B.L., Kt. (1922), K. I. H. (Gold) 1920; Advocate, Trichy. *b.* Sept. 1868. *Educ.*: Pachaiyappa's and Presidency Colleges, Madras. Has been closely identified with Municipal and Local Board Institutions, was elected Chairman of Trichinopoly Municipal Council for one term and nominated President of the District Board for three terms; President of the District Urban Bank, the National College Council, Dt. Health Assn., Discharged Prisoners' Aid Society and Dt. Scout's Council, Trichinopoly. Was a nominated Member in the Madras Legislative Council for two terms and took a leading part in amending the legislation in connection with the District Municipalities Act and Local Boards Act, the Elementary Education Act and the Village Panchayat Courts Act; was a member of the Civil Justice Committee and the Malabar Tenancy Committee; President, Trichinopoly Hindu Devasthanam Committee and Chairman of the Trichinopoly Srirangam Electric Corporation. *Address*: 'Venkata Park,' Reynold's Road, Cantonment, Trichinopoly; and 'Enderley,' Coonoor Railway Station.

DEVADHAR, GOPAL KRISHNA, M.A., C.I.E., (Kaisar-i-Hind Gold Medal in 1920), President, Servants of India Soc. *b.* 1871. *m.* Dwarkabai Sohani of Poona (*died*). *Educ.*: New English School, Poona, and Wilson College, Bombay. M. A., Bombay University, 1904. Served as Principal of the Aryan Education Society's High School in Bombay, was Examiner of the Bombay University for Matriculation and M.A. examinations in Marathi for more than five years. Joined the late G. K. Gokhale in his public work, 1904, and was first member to join Servants of India Society, 1905, awarded Kaisar-i-Hind Silver Medal in 1914. Worked as Vice-President of the Servants of India Society for 3 years since 1923 and was again re-elected Vice-President of the Society for 3 years more; has been twice elected President, Servants of India Society. He has been ever since its beginning the Head of Bombay Branch. Toured in England and on the Continent in 1918 as member of Indian Press Delegation. He is the founder and Hon. Organiser and General Secretary of the Poona Seva Sadan Society, started in 1909, and now Hon. General Secretary of the National Social Conference. Presided over the Provincial Social Conference in 1920 at Sholapur and over the National Social Conference in 1924 at Lucknow. Organiser of the Malabar Relief Fund, 1921; and South Indian and Malabar Flood Relief Fund in 1924; Organised a Fund on behalf of the Servants of India Society for the relief of the flood-stricken in Gujarat, Kathiawar, Baroda, Sind and Orissa in 1927, served as member of Committee on Co-operation appointed by Mysore Government 1920 and the Government of Madras in 1928. Gave evidence before the Royal Commission on Agriculture as President of the Provincial Co-operative Institute, Bombay; has worked on several Committees appointed by Government. For two years before retirement was the elected President of the Bombay Central Co-operative Institute of which for more than five years he had been Vice-President; Director, Provincial Co-operative Bank; has presided over Provincial Co-operative Conferences in almost all major provinces and Indian States; was President, First All-India Rural Representatives Conference. Has published several pamphlets on Co-operation, Female Education and Social Reform; Chairman, Executive Committee of the Deccan Agricultural Association; has undertaken "Village Uplift Work" at Khedshivapur, fifteen miles from Poona on Mahableshwar Road. Member of the Poona Advisory Board of the Imperial Council of Agricultural Research, Delhi and Simla; was Member of the Indian Central Banking Inquiry Committee, Chairman, Council of Management of the Aryan Education Society, Bombay. In June 1927 was unanimously elected President of the Servants of India Society, Poona. Celebrated Diamond Jubilee in August 1931, when a purse of Rs. 10,500 was presented to him. *Address*: Girgaum, Bombay.

DHAU BAKHSHI RAGHUBIR SINGH, RAO BAHADUR (1912), C.I.E. (1925), C.S.I. Retired President of State Council, Bharatpur. *b.* 1862. *Educ.*: Privately. Sardar holding a hereditary jagir, Sardar's allowances, etc. from the State. Entered Bharatpur State service at an early age; promoted a Member of the Council of "Panchayat" of Sardars in the time of His late Highness Maharaja Jaswant Singh Sahib Bahadur; subsequently appointed Dhau and Guardian to His late Highness Maharaja Shri Kishen Singh Sahib

Bahadur. Was a member of Indian Students' Advisory Committee for Rajputana and Ajmer Merwara; was also President of a Soldiers' Board in Bharatpur. *Address:* Bharatpur.

DHURANDHAR, RAO BAHADUR MAHADEV VISHWANATH, A.M. *b.* 4th March 1871. *m.* Gangubai, 4th daughter of Madhavrao T. Rao. *Educ:* Rajaram High School, Kolhapur, and at the Sir J. J. School of Art, Bombay. Appointed as a painting master on the staff of the School of Art, then as Head Master in 1909 to 1918. Acted as Inspector of Drawing and Craft Work, Bombay Presidency, in 1918 and 1919 and again in 1920 and in 1923. Retired as Personal Assistant to the Principal, Sir J. J. School of Art, Bombay, in March 1928 and was re-appointed as Visiting Professor of Painting. Acted as Officiating Director of the Sir J. J. School of Art in 1930. Re-appointed as Inspector of Drawing and Craft Work, Bombay Presidency, and retired in December 1931; was selected to decorate the Hon. Law Member's room Imperial Secretariat, New Delhi. *Publications:* A. Kincaid's (1) "Deccan Nursery Tales," (2) "Stories of King Vikram." S.* M. Edwardes' (I.C.S.) "By-ways of Bombay." Otto Rothfeld's, (I.C.S.) "Women of India" and several other Marathi, Gujarathi, Hindi and Mythological books for Messrs. Macmillan & Co., Oxford University Press, Longmans Green & Co., and several other Indian publishing firms. *Address:* "Shree Amba Sadan," Prabhu Nagar, Khar, Bombay, No. 21.

DICK, GEORGE PARIS, C.I.E., 1916, Bar-at-Law; Member of C. P. Legislative Council, 1921, and of each preceding Council; Govt. Advocate, C.P. *b.* 1866. *m.* Effie Geraldine Newman *Educ.:* Dulwich College; called to Bar, Middle Temple, 1889; Advocate of Calcutta High Court, 1893; of the Judicial Commissioner Court, Nagpur, 1891; Lecturer in Law to the Morris College, Nagpur until 1924; President, New English High School and President, Nagpur Civil Station Municipal Council for years; Member of the Legislative Council before the Reforms and continuously to date. *Publication:* Fitch and His Fortunes. *Address:* Nagpur, C. P.

DIGBY-BESTE, HENRY ALOYSIUS B., O.B.E. (1919); C.I.E. (1931); Captain, Superintendent, M.M.T.S. Dufferin. *b.* November 5th, 1883. *m.* Olave Hume Henderson, *d.* of Col. W. Hume Henderson, I. M. S. *Educ:* Stonyhurst College, Lancs., England. Went to sea in Merchant Service, 1899; joined R.I.M. as Sub-Lieut., February 5th 1903, service afloat till 1914; war service in H. M. S. Lawrence, Mesopotamia; transferred to Staff Central Headquarters, Bombay, and served as Divisional Naval Transport Officer up to 1921; served afloat in command of R.I.M.S. Dufferin and Clive, 1923; Deputation to England, 1924; Deputy Conservator, Madras, 1925-26; Port Officer, Bombay, 1927; Captain Superintendent, T.M.M.T.S. Dufferin, since November 1927. *Publication:* Drafted Government of India Sea Transport Regulation. *Address:* I. M. M. T. S. Dufferin, Mazagon Pier, Bombay 10.

DINAJPUR, THE HON'BLE LIEUTENANT MAHARAJA JAGADISH NATH RAY BAHADUR. *b.* 1894. *s.* by adoption to Maharaja Sir Girija Nath Ray Bahadur, K.C.I.E. *m.* 1916. *Educ:* Presidency College, Calcutta. President, Dinajpur Landholders' Association; late Chairman, District Board and Municipality, Dinajpur; Member, Council of State, British Indian Association, Bengal, Landholders' Association, Asiatic Society of Bengal, East India Association London, Calcutta Literary Society, North Bengal Zamindars' Association, Bangiya Sahitya Parishat, Road and Transport Development Association. Received Viceroy's Commission in Jan. 1924. *Address:* Dinajpur Rajbati, Dinajpur; 226, Lower Circular Road, Calcutta; 3, Council of State, Delhi and Simla.

DINSHAW, SIR HORMUSJEE COWASJEE, Kt., *cr.* 1922; O.B.E. 1918; M.V.O. 1912; senior partner in Cowasjee Dinshaw & Bros., Merchants, Naval Agents, Shipping Agents, and Ship Owners; Consul for Portugal and Consul for Austrian Republic; *b.* 4 April 1857; *s.s.* of late Cowasjee Dinshaw, C.I.E., *m.* 1875, Bai Maneckbai, *d.* of Nusserwanjee Cooverjee Erskine: three *s.* one *d.* *Educ:* Elphinstone High School and Elphinstone College; evening classes, King's College, London. Served apprenticeship with James Barber and Son & Co., London, and Leopold Bing Fils and Gans, Paris; joined his father's firm, 1879; acted as Trustee of the Port of Aden since 1891; head of the Parsee Community of Aden since 1900; acted as a member to the Aden Port Commission, 1901; presented an address from the different communities of Aden to King George and Queen Mary on their way to India; represented Aden Chamber of Commerce at the Fifth International Congress, Boston, 1912. *Address:* Steamer Point, Aden.

DORNAKAL, BISHOP OF, since 1912; RT. REV. VEDANAYAKAM SAMUEL AZARIAH, 1st Indian bishop, Hon. LL.D. (Cantab.); *b.* 17 Aug. 1874. *Educ.:* C. M. S. High School, Mengnanapuram; C. M. S. College, Tinnevelly; Madras Christian College. One of founders of Indian Missionary Society of Tinnevelly, 1903; Hon. Secretary, 1903-9; Hon. Gen. Secretary of National Missionary Society of India, 1906-9; visited Japan as Delegate of World Student Christian Federation, 1907, and its Vice-President, 1909-11; visited England as Delegate to World's Missionary Conference, 1910; Head of Dornakal Mission, 1909-12. *Publications:* Holy Baptism, Confirmation, First Corinthians, India and Missions. The Acts of the Apostles, The Life of Christ according to St. Mark. Christ in the Indian Villages. *Address:* Dornakal Singareni Collieries, Deccan.

DOW, HUGH, C.I.E., (1932); Revenue Officer, Lloyd Barrage Scheme, Sind. *b.* 1886. *m.* Ann, *d.* of James Sheffield, 1913. *Educ:* Aske's Hatcham School and Univ. Coll., London. Entered I.C.S. 1909 and served as Asst. Coll. in Sind. Municipal Commr. for Surat 1916-18; Asst. Commr. in Sind for Civil Supplies and Recruiting 1918-20, and Deputy Controller of Princes. Deputy Secretary, Finance Department, Bombay, 1921; Ag. Secretary, Finance Department,

1923; Financial Adviser to P.W.D., 1926; Since 1927 Revenue Officer to Lloyd Barrage Scheme, Sind; Member of Sind Committee, 1932. *Address:* Karachi, Sind.

DUBEY, DORI LALL, M.A. (Allahabad), Ph.D. (London), Professor of Economics, Meerut College. *b.* Sept. 1897. *Educ.:* Agra College, (1916-1922) and the London School of Economics and Political Science (1928-1930). Professor of Economics, Meerut College since 1923. Was invited by the U. P. Government in Jan. 1931 to a Conference at Lucknow with Sir Arthur Salter, the economic expert of the League of Nations, to discuss the plan of an Economic organisations for India. Member, Board of Economic Inquiry, U.P.; of the Editorial Board of the U. P. Co-operative Journal of the Committee of Courses in Economics of the Board of High Schools and Inter. Education, U. P. and of the Executive Committee of the Indian Economic Association. Served as a member of the U.P. Agricultural Debt Committee (1932) and submitted a note on the dangers of Land Alienation Act. Has travelled widely in India and all countries of Europe except Russia and Spain and Portugal. A frequent writer to the press on economic and financial questions. *Publications:* Indian Economics (1927); Revd. 1932 and The Indian Public Debt. with a foreword by Sir George Schuster (1930). "Some Financial and Economic Problems of India" and "R. T. C. Financial Safeguards" (1931). *Address:* Meerut College, Meerut.

DUDHORIA, NABA KUMAR SING, *q. s.* of Rai Bahadur Budh Singh Dudhoria of Azimganj; Zamindar and Banker; Member, Legislative Assembly. *b.* 1904. *m.* sister of Fateh Chand, present Jagat Sett of Murshidabad. *Educ:* privately. Member, British Indian Association, Calcutta; Bengal National Chamber of Commerce, Calcutta; Country's League, Delhi and Simla; Bengal Landholders' Association, Calcutta; Bengal Flying Club, Dum-Dum; Calcutta Club, Calcutta. *Address:* 74-1, Clive Street, Calcutta and Azimganj P.O., Murshidabad District.

DUFF, REGINALD JAMES, J.P., Hon. Presidency Magistrate; General Manager, New India Assurance Company, Ltd., Bombay. *b.* 11 July 1886. *m.* Olive A. Lockie. *Educ:* Whitgift Grammar School, North British and Mercantile Insurance Co., Ltd., London and Bombay. *Address:* Royal Bombay Yacht Club, Bombay.

DUGGAN, JAMSHEDJI NUSSERWANJI, C.I.E., O.B.E., D. O. (Oxon), F.C.P.S., Lt.-Col., A.I.R.O. L.M. & S., J.P., Ophthalmic Surgeon in charge, Sir C. J. Ophthalmic Hospital and Professor of Ophthalmology, Grant Medical College, Bombay. *b.* 8 April 1884. *m.* Miss Parakh. *Educ:* Bombay, Oxford, Vienna and London. Was Tutor in Ophthalmology, Grant Medical College, Consulting Ophthalmic Surgeon to War Hospitals and Ophthalmic Surgeon, Parsi General Hospital, Bombay; is Private Ophthalmic Practitioner. Hon. Member, Ophthalmological Society of Egypt. Fellow of the Bombay University and Honorary Presidency Magistrate, Bombay. *Publications:* Papers on Spring Catarrh, Anterior Keratitis, Gonorrhœa and allied diseases of the eyes, Artificial Eye, Tropical papilla, Squint cases and Sub-Conjuctival Injections in the eye. A familiar Blue group of the Salerotics; Deep infiltration Anaesthesia in Ophthalmic Operations. A family of Aniridia; A case of Rhinosporidium Kinealyi; Milk Theraphy in eye Diseases. Intravenous injections of Mercurochrome in suppurative eye conditions; Two cases of Quinine Amblyopia with unusual Ophthalmoscopic picture. *Address:* The Lawnside, Harkness Road, Malabar Hill, Bombay.

DUHR, THE REV. JOSEPH, S.J., Ph.D., D.D., Professor. *b.* March 18, 1885. *Educ.:* the Gymnasium Echternach Grand Duchy of Luxemburg; St. Joseph's College, Turnhout, Belgium; Manresa House, Roehampton, London; St. Mary's Hall, Stonyhurst; Imperial College, South Kensington; St. Mary's Theological Seminary, Kurseong, India; Gregorian University, Rome; Campion Hall, Oxford; Professor at St. Xavier's College, Calcutta, 1910-1915; Professor at St. Xavier's College, Bombay, 1918-1921; Principal of St. Xavier's College, Bombay, from 1924 to 1932. *Address:* St. Xavier's College, Cruickshank Road, Bombay.

DUNI CHAND, LALA, B.A., Licentiate in law, Honours in Persian and Literature (1894). Member, Legislative Assembly, Vakalat and Public Work. *b.* 1873. *m.* Shrimati Bhagdevi. *Educ:* Forman Christian College and Oriental Coll., Lahore. Practised at the bar until 1921. Entered public life and took part in various activities of the Arya Samaj since 1899; was Manager of Anglo-Sanskrit High School, Amballa, from 1906-1921; Member, Managing Committee, D.A.V. College; resumed practice in 1923; presided over All-India Sud Conference in 1917; been a member, All-India Congress Committee, since 1920; was convicted and sentenced to six months' imprisonment in 1922 under Criminal Law Amendment Act; presided over Punjab Provincial Conference held in Rohtak in 1922; was Swarajist Member of the Second Legislative Assembly. Suspended practice in 1930; Nominated Member, Working Committee of All-India Congress Committee; was invited by Government to serve on the Punjab Jail Enquiry Committee in 1929. Elected President, Punjab Prov. Congress Committee Aug. 1930; was convicted and sentenced to six months' imprisonment under Criminal Law Amendment Act, 1930, for continuing member of the Congress Working Committee after it had been declared unlawful. *Address:* Kripa Nivas, Amballa.

DUNNICLIFF, HORACE BARRATT, M.A. (Cantab.), M.A., Sc.D. (Dublin); F.I.C., I.E.S. Vice-Principal, Government College, Lahore, since 1927; Professor of Inorganic Chemistry, Punjab University since 1924; (also Fellow and Syndic). Chemical Adviser to the Central Board of Revenue, Finance Department, Government of India, since 1928. *b.* 23

September 1885. *m.* Freda Gladys Burgoyne, eldest *d.* of Frederick William Burgoyne-Wallace (1926). *Educ.:* Wilson's Grammar School and Downing College, Cambridge (Foundation Scholar). M.A.O. College, Aligarh, U. P. 1908-1914; Khalsa College, Amritsar, 1914-17; Government College, Lahore, 1917 to date; Indian Munitions Board 1917; Cordite Factory, Aruvankadu, 1918-1921; Delegate to Imperial Education Conference (London) 1927; Special duty with Finance Department, Government of India, 1928-29; Member, Punjab Agricultural Research, Council, Punjab Chemical Research Fund Committee, Indian Committee of Institute of Chemistry of Great Britain and Ireland; Member of Council, Indian Chemical Society, President, Chemistry Section, Indian Science Congress, 1934. *Publications:* Research papers in Chemical journals. *Address:* Government College, Lahore, Punjab.

DUTT, AMAR NATH, B.A., B.L., M.L.A., *s.* of late Mr. Durga Dass Dutt and Srimati Jugal Mohini Dutt, Advocate, Calcutta High Court. *b.* 19 May 1875. *m.* Srimati Tincari Ghosh, 1897, daughter, Sandhyatara, born 1902; son, Asok Nath, *b.* 1906. *Educ:* Salkia A. S. School, Howrah Ripon Collegiate School and Municipal School, Calcutta Metropolitan Institution and Presidency Coll. was Chairman Local Board; Member, District Board; Secretary, People's Association, District Association, Central Co-operative Bank, Ltd., Burdwan; elected Member, Court of the University of Delhi from 1925 and Elected Member Indian Legislative Assembly from 1923 was President, Bengal Postal Conference 1926 and All India Telegraph Union 1928 and of the Shuddhi Conference 1928 and President Arya Samaj 1928-30 and was editor of monthly magazine *Alo.* Member Retrenchment Committee 1931. *Address:* "Rurki Aloy," Keshabpur, P. O. and "Purbachal," Burdwan.

DWIVEDI, RAMAGYAN, M.A. (Honrs.), Principal, Maharaja's College, Dhar. *s.* of Pt. Rambhadra Dube, Zemindar of Basti. *b.* 21 Nov. 1902. *m.* Miss Sarala Devi Misra. *Educ.:* Govt. High School, Basti and Benares Hindu University, U. P. Govt. Scholar (1917-20); 1st Class Honours in English Literature, Gold Medalist and Scholar of the University, 1918-24. Prof. of English D.A.-V. College, Cawnpore, 1924-27; Head of English Department, N. R. E. C. College, Khurja, Vice-Principal, K. K. College, Lucknow and Principal, Hindi Vidyapith College, Allahabad; Chairman, Reception Committee, All-India Students' Conference and Secretary, All-India Poets' Conference (1925), President, Board of Education, Dhar State; Member, Board of Education for Central India, Rajputana and Gwalior at Ajmer; represented Dhar State as a delegate in the All-Asia Educational Conference, 1930; Elected President, All-India Arya Kumar Conference (1931). *Publications:* From Dawn to Dusk; Songs from Surdas; Songs from Mirabai; History of Hindi Literature; Saurabh; Sone ki Gari, (Hindi Drama); Dooj ka Chand, (Hindi); Sankar ke Sahityik, (Hindi); Padya Punj; Life and Speeches of Pandit J. L. Nehru, (illustrated). Published a number of original papers on Philology Literature, etc., in leading English and Vernacular Journals; Edited several classical Hindi books and periodicals, *Uddaya* and *Sammelan Patrika.* Recreation,—billiards, tennis, and chess; hobby—stamp-collecting. *Address:* Maharaja's College, Dhar and Villa Coma, Captainganj, Basti, (U.P.)

DYER, JAMES FERGUSON, M.A., C.I.E., (1929); I.C.S. President of the Council and Revenue Member, Bhopal State. Joined I.C.S. in 1902 and arrived in India in 1903, Asstt. Commissioner, Registrar in the Judicial Commissioner's Court and Settlement Officer from 1903 to 1915; 3rd Secretary to the Chief Commissioner, 1916, Deputy Commissioner, 1917; Commissioner of Settlement and Director of Land Records, C.P., 1922, and Commissioner, 1929. *Address:* Riaz Manzil, Bhopal, Central India.

EASTLEY, CHARLES MORTIMER, J.P., Solicitor and Notary Public. *b.* 2 September 1890. *m.* Esme Beryl Chester Wintle. *Educ.:* Paignton Devon, England; La Villa, Ouchy, Lausanne, Switzerland, Dr. F. Schiller, Allee 5, Coburg, Germany, Served in the Great War from 1914-1919 as Lieut. R.F.A. (T.F.) in India; as an Observer and Pilot in R.F.C. and as a Pilot in the R.A.F. against the Mohmands on the N.W.F. in 1916; against the Marri in Baluchistan in 1917; against the Turks at Aden in 1918; against the Afghans in 1919. *Address:* C/o Little & Co., Solicitors and Notaries Public, Central Bank Building, Bombay.

EDWARDS, THE REV. JAMES FAIRBROTHER, Principal, United Theological College of Western India and English Editor of the *Dnyanodaya* (or *Rise of Knowledge*) for six Missions. *b.* March 25th 1875. *m.* Miss Mary Louise Wheeler, Principal, Kindergarten Training School, *Educ.:* (Wesleyan) Methodist Theological College, Handsworth, Birmingham, England. Eight years in charge of English Churches in England; arrived in India Sept. 1908; until 1914 (Wesleyan) Methodist Superintendent in Bombay; since 1914 loaned by (Wesleyan) Methodist Church to American Marathi Mission for literary and theological work; went to Poona, July 1930, to take charge of United Theological College. *Publications: The Life and Tecaching of Tukaram;* article on *Tukaram* in Vol. XII of Hasting's *Encyclopaedia of Religion and Ethics; The Holy Spirit the Christian Dynamic:* four Marathi books on The Cross the Resurrection and the Holy Spirit; two Marathi Works on Tukaram; Editor since 1919 of English Section of the *Dnyanodaya; Liquor and Opium in India;* (reprint of Memorandum to Simon Commission, publist ed in London). *Address:* United Theological College, 7, Sholapur Road, Poona.

EMERSON, H. E. SIR HERBERT WILLIAM K.C.S.I., C.I.E., C.B.E., Governor of the Punjab, *b.* 1 June 1881. *Educ:* Calday Grange Grammar School; Magdalene College, Cambridge. Entered Indian Civil Service, 1905; Manager,

Bashahr State, 1911-14; Superintendent and Settlement Officer, Mandi State 1915; Assistant Commissioner and Settlement Officer, Punjab, 1917; Deputy Commissioner 1922; Secretary to Government, Finance Department, 1926; Chief Secretary to Government, Punjab, 1927-28, Secretary to Government of India, Home Department, 1930-32; appointed Governor of the Punjab, 1933. *Address:* Government House, Lahore.

EWBANK, ROBERT BENSON, B.A. (Oxon.), F.L.S., C.I.E., (1924), I.C.S., Secy. to Govt. of Bombay General Department, (on leave). *b.* 22 Oct. 1883. *m.* Frances Helen. *d.* of Rev. W. F. Simpson of Caldbeck, Cumberland. *Educ:* Queen's Coll., Oxford. Asst. Coll. and Asst. Pol. Agent, 1907; Registrar of Co-operative Societies, Bombay, 1912-20; Secretary to Imperial Committee on Co-operation, 1914-5, 1920-24; Deputy Secretary to Gov. of India successively in Commerce, Rev. and Agric., P. W. D. and Education, Health and Land Departments, 1920. Secretary, Colonies Committee, London, 1925 Officiated as Private Secretary to H. E. Lord Reading; Secretary, Back Bay Enquiry Committee, 1926. Delegate of the Government of India in East Africa, 1927-28. Member, Bombay Legislative Council. *Publications:* Bombay Co-operative Manual and Indian Co-operative Studies. *Address:* Secretariat, Bombay.

FALIERE, RT. REV. ALBERT PEIRRE JEAN, Vicar Apostolic of Northern Burma and Titular Bishop of Clysma since 1930. *b.* 1888. *Address:* Mandalay.

FARIDKOT, H. H. FARZAND-I-SAADAT NISHAN HAZRAT-KAISAR-I- HIND, BRAR BANS, RAJA HAR INDAR SINGH BAHADUR OF. *b.* 1915, *s.* in 1919 rules one of the Sikh States of the Punjab. *Address:* Faridkot, Punjab.

FARRAN, ARTHUR COURTNEY, B.A. (1911), F. R. Hist. Society, Principal, Karnatak College, Dharwar. *b.* June 15, 1890. *Educ:* Trinity Coll., Dublin. *Address:* Karnatak College, Dharwar.

FAWCUS, GEORGE ERNEST, M.A. (Oxon) C.I.E. (1927), O.B.E. (1923), V. D. (1923) Director of Public Instruction, Bihar and Orissa. *b.* 12 March 1885. *m.* (1911) Mary Christine, *d.* of the late Walter Dawes, J.P. of Rye, Sussex. *Educ.:* Winchester College and New College, Oxford. Joined the I.E.S. 1909; Director of Public Instruction, Bihar and Orissa, since 1917. *Address:* Patna, E.I.R.

FAZULBHOY CURRIMBHOY, SIR (1913), C.B.E. (1920); Merchant and Millowner. *b.* 4 Oct. 1872. *m.* Bai Sakinabai, *d.* of the late Mr. Datoobhoy Ebrahim. *Educ.:* privately; Municipal Corporator for over 21 years; Chairman, Standing Committee (1910-11); President, 1914-15; Represented Bombay Millowners' Association on Bombay Prov. Council, 1910-12 and Bombay Mahomedans on Imperial Legislative Council, 1913-16; represented Bombay Corpn. on Board of the Prince of Wales Museum of W. India; now a nominated Member by the Government. Hon. Secretary, Bombay Presidency War Relief Fund. Appointed by Government Member of various Committees and Commissions, chief being the Weights and Measures Committee, Committee on the education of Factory Employees, and the Commission for Life Saving Appliances; invited by Government to be one of the three delegates from India to the International Financial Conference at Brussels, convened by the Council of the League of Nations, 1920. Connected with many of the principal industrial concerns in Bombay, Chairman, Indian Merchants' Chamber and Bureau, 1914-15. An active Member of the Committee of the Bombay Millowners' Association, being Chairman, 1907-8. A keen advocate of education, particularly of Mahomedans. Member of the Anjuman-i-Islam, Bombay, a Trustee of the Aligarh College, a Vice-President of the All-India Muslim League, a Member of the Committee of the Moslem University Foundation Association. Sheriff of Bombay, 1926. *Address:* Pedder Road, Cumballa Hill, Bombay.

FAZL-I-HUSAIN, THE HON. MIAN SIR, KT. (1925), K.C.S.I, K.C.I.E., B.A. (Punjab), M. A. (Cantab.), Bar-at-Law (Gray's Inn); Member of the Governor-General's Executive Council *b.* 14 June 1877. *m.* eldest *d.* of Mian Nur-ahmad Khan. *Educ.:* Abbottabad, Govt. College, Lahore, Christ's College, Cambridge. Practised in Sialkot, 1901-5; in the Punjab High Court, Lahore, 1905-20; Presdt., High Court Bar Association, 1919-20; Professor and Principal, Islamia College, 1907-8; Secretary, Islamia College, 1906-18; Fellow, Punjab University, 1909-1920; Syndic Punjab University, 1912-1921; represented Punjab University on Legislative Council, 1917-20. President, All-India Mahomedan Educational Confce., 1922; started Muslim League, 1905. Title of K.B. 1917; President, Punjab Prov. Conference, 1916; elected to Punjab Legislative Council, 1920. Apptd. Minister of Education, Punjab, 1921; re-elected unopposed to Punjab Legis. Council, 1923; re-appointed Minister of Education, Punjab, 1924. Temp. additional Member of H. E. The Governor-General of India's Council, Aug. 1925. Re-appointed Minister of Education, Nov. 1925; Apptd. Revenue Member, Punjab, 1926. Leader of the House in the Punjab Leg. Council July 1926 to March 1930. Member of the Indian Delegation to the League of Nations 1927. Temporary Member, Governor-General's Executive Council (Dept. of Education, Health and Lands), Aug. 1929. On delegation to S. African Conference, 1932. *Address:* "The Retreat," Simla; 6, King Edward Road, New Delhi.

FERMOR, LEWIS LEIGH, O.B.E. (1919); D.Sc. (London), A.R.S.M., F.G.S. F.A.S.B., M. Inst. M.M., Director, Geological Survey of India. *b.* 18 Sep. 1880 *Educ:* Wilson's Grammar School, Camberwell, Royal College of Science and Royal School of Mines, London National Scholar, 1898; Murchison Medalist and Prizeman, 1900; Geological Survey of India, since 1902; attached Indian Munitions Board, 1917-18; represented Government of India at International Geologica

Congresses in Sweden (1910); Canada (1913); Spain (1926) South Africa (1929); President, Mining and Geological Institute of India, 1922; Vice-President, Asiatic Society of Bengal, 1931-33; President, 1933 Vice-President, Himalayan Club, 1931 and 1932; Vice-President, Society of Economic Geologists, 1932 and 1933; President, Governing Body, Indian School of Mines, 1921, 1925, 1928, 1930 to date; Bigby Medal, Geological Society of India, 1921. *Publications:* Manganese Ore Deposits of India; Memoirs, Geological Survey of India, and numerous papers on mineralogy, petrology, Ore-deposits, meteorities and mineral statistics in the publications of the Geological Survey of India, the Transactions, Mining Geological Institute of India, the Journal, Asiatic Society, Bengal, The Geological Magazine, and elsewhere. *Address:* Geological Survey of India, Calcutta, and Bengal United Service Club, Calcutta.

FILOSE, Lt.-Col. Clement, M.V.O.; Military Sec. to Maharaja of Gwalior, since 1901; *b.* 1853. *Educ.:* Carmelite Monastery, Clondalkin; Carlow College. Entered Gwalior State service, 1872; Lt.-Col., 1903; Assistant Inspector-Gen., Gwalior Police and General Inspecting Officer, 1893-97; A.-D.-C. to the Maharaja Scindia, 1899-1901. *Address:* Gwalior.

FINLAYSON, Major-General, Robert Gordon, C.B. (1931); C.M.G. (1918); D.S.O. (1915); R.A., Commanding Rawalpindi District since 1931. *b.* 15th April, 1881. *m.* 1912, Mary Leslie, *d.* of late James Richmond; Kincairney, Perthshire. Entered Army 1900; Captain 1908; Major 1914; Major-General 1930; served European War 1914-18. (despatches 8 times, Bt. Lieut. Colonel, Bt, Col. D.S.O., C.M.G.); North Russia 1919; A.D.C. to the King 1929-30; G.S.O.1. War Office, 1921-25; G.S.O. 1. Staff College, 1925-27; C.R.A. 3rd Division, 1927-30. *Address:* Rawalpindi.

FITZPATRICK, Sir James Alexander Ossory, K.C.I.E. (1933) B.A., LL.B., Bar-at-Law, C.I.E. (1917); C.B.E. (1919); Indian Civil Service, A. G. G. Punjab States. *b.* 21st November 1879. *m.* Ada Florence Davies. *Educ:* High School, Dublin, and Trinity Coll., Dublin. Joined I.C.S. 1903; served in various appointments on N. W. F. P. Political Agent, Tochi, 1913-1915; Deputy Commissioner, Bannu, 1915-1916; Political Agent, Wano, 1916-19; Resident in Waziristan, 1920-22; Commissioner, Ajmer, 1923; H. B. M.'s Consul in Arabistan (Persia), 1922; Revenue Minister, Bahawalpur, 1926-1927; A. G. G. Punjab States, 1927. Active Service: Tochi operations 1914-15 (mentioned in despatches); Mahsud Expedition, 1917 (despatches and received thanks of Government), Waziristan operations, 1920-1922 (despatches and thanks of Commander-in-Chief). *Address:* Lahore, Punjab.

FORSTER, Sir Martin Onslow, Kt. 1933 Ph. D. (Wurzburg), D. Sc. (London), F. I. C., F. R. S. (1905); *b.* 1872. *Educ.:* Private schools; Finsbury Technical College, Wurzburg Univ.; Central Technical College, South Kensington. Asstt. Prof. of Chemistry, Royal College of Science, 1902-13; Director, Salters' Institute of Industrial Chemistry, 1918-22; Director, Indian Institute of Science, Bangalore, 1922-33; Hon. Secretary, Chemical Society, 1904-10; Treasurer, 1915-22; Longstaff Medalist, 1915; President of Chemistry Section, British Association, 1921; President, Indian Science Congress, 1925. *Publications:* Contributions to Transactions of the Chemical Society, *Address:* Old Banni Mantap, Mysore City.

FOWLER, Gilbert John, D.Sc., F.I.C., F. R. San I. *b.* 1868, *m.* Amy Hindmarsh, *d.* of George S. and Eleanor Scott. *Educ:* Sidcot School, Somerset; Owens. College, Victoria University, Manchester; Heidelberg University. For 20 years in service of Rivers Committee of Manchester Corporation Responsible for treatment of the sewage and trade-effluents of Manchester. Pioneer of "*Activated Sludge*" process of sewage purification. World-wide experience as sanitary expert. Consulted by cities of New York, Cairo, Shanghai, and Hankow. First visited India in 1906 on special duty for Government of Bengal, re-purification of jute mill effluents. From 1916 to 1924 Professor of Applied Chemistry and later of Bio-chemistry at the Indian Institute of Science, Bangalore. During the war was Consulting Adviser to the Government of India on the production of acetone, used in the manufacture of cordite. Was appointed Principal of the Harcourt Butler Technological Institute, Cawnpore, in July 1927. Retired in November 1929, after assisting in framing a policy for the conduct of the Institute, accepted by Government. Has been President of the Indian Chemical Society, is Honorary Corresponding Secretary for India of the Institute of Chemistry of Great Britain and Ireland, and Corresponding Member of the Manchester Literary and Philosophical Society. Has published many scientific papers and discourses. *Address:* Central Hotel, Bangalore, S. India.

FREKE, Cecil George, M.A. (Cantab.), B.Sc. (Lond), F. S. S., I. C. S., Offg. Financial Secretary, Government of Bombay. *b.* 8 Oct. 1887. *m.* Judith Mary Marston. *Educ:* Merchant Taylor's School, London. St. John's College, Cambridge. Entered I.C.S. 1912, Under-Secretary, Government of India, Commerce and Industries Department 1919; Director-General of Commercial Intelligence and Statistics, 1921-1926; Deputy Secretary, Government of Bombay, Finance Department 1926-1929. Offg. Finance Secretary, 1929-30. *Address:* Secretariat, Bombay.

FYZEE RAHAMIN, S., Artist. *b.* 19 Dec. 1880. *m.* Atiya Begum H. Fyzee, sister of Her Highness Nazli Rafiya Begum of Janjira. *Educ:* School of the Royal Academy of Arts, London and privately with John Sargent, R.A., and Sir Solomon J. Solomon, R.A., London. Exhibitor at the Royal Academy Annual Exhibitions; privately at the Gallery George Petit in Paris,

Goupils' Arthur Tooth's and the New Burlington Galleries in London, Knoedlers', Andersons' New York and at the Palace of Fine Arts in San-Francisco. In 1925 the National Gallery of British Art acquired two paintings for their permanent collection, now hung in the Tate Gallery, Milbank. In 1930 the authorities of the Luxembourg Gallery of Paris acquired one painting for their permanent collection, as also the City Art Gallery of Manchester. Her Imperial Majesty the Queen-Empress honoured his exhibition by a visit at the New Burlington Galleries. In 1926 and 1927, painted the first dome in the Imperial Secretariat in New Delhi and in 1928-29 the 2nd dome of the Committee Room 'B' of the same building. For several years Art Adviser to H. H. the Gaekwar of Baroda. In the spring of 1930 the authorities of the City Art Gallery, Manchester organised an exhibition of his entire works at their Galleries by special invitation. Painted many portraits of the Princes and Nobles of India. Leader of the Indian School of painting and opposed to the methods both of the Bombay and the Bengal Schools. *Publications:* History of the Bene-Israelites of India. *Address:* "Aiwan-e-Rif'at," Ridge Road, Malabar Hill, Bombay.

GAJENDRAGADKAR, ASHVATTHAMA BALACHARYA, M.A., Ph. D., M.R.A.S. Professor of Sanskrit, Elphinstone College, Bombay. *b.* 1 Oct. 1892. *m.* Miss Kamalabai Shaligram of Satara. *Educ:* Satara High School, Satara and the Deccan College, Poona. Appointed Assistant to Professor of Sanskrit at Elphinstone Coll., Septr. 1915; Lecturer, 1917; apptd. Prof. of Sanskrit, Elphinstone College, in 1920. Holds the rank of Lieutenant and commands "C" Company of the 1st Bombay Battalion, University Training Corps (I.T.F.) *Publications:* Critical editions of many Sanskrit classics for the use of University students which include Kalidasa's Ritusamhara; Kalidasa's Shakuntala; Bana's Harsacharita; Dandin's Dashakumara Charita; Bhatta Narayana's Venisamhara, Annambhatta's Tarka Sangraha, etc. *Address:* Maharaja Building, Bombay 4.

GANDHI, MANMOHAN PURUSHOTTAM, M.A., F.R. Econ. S., F.S.S., Secretary, Indian Chamber of Commerce, Calcutta; Secretary, Indian National Committee, International Chamber of Commerce, 1929-31, Secretary, Federation of Indian Chambers of Commerce and Industry, 1929-30; Secretary, Indian Sugar Mills Association. Jt. Hon. Secretary, Indian Collieryowners' Association; Registrar, Indian Chamber of Commerce Tribunal of Arbitration, Calcutta; Secretary Board of Control to the East India Jute Association, Calcutta; *s.* of late Purushottam Kahanji Gandhi, of Limbdi, (Kathiawar). *b.* 5th November 1901. *Educ:* Bahauddin College, Junagadh; Gujarat College, Ahmedabad; and the Benares Hindu University. *m.* 1926, Rambhagauri, *d.* of Sukhlal Chhaganlal Shah of Wadhwan. Joined Government of Bombay Labour Office, as Statistical Assistant, 1926; Indian Currency League, Bombay, as Asstt, Secretary, 1926. Indian Chamber of Commerce, Calcutta, 1926, *Publications:* A Mercantile Marine for India—a paper read before the Indian Economic Conference, 1925, Foreign capital in India—a joint paper read before the Indian Economic Conference, 1926; Modern Economics of Indian Taxation—being the Sir Manubhai Mehta Prize Essay, (in Gujrat), 1924. The Indian Cotton Textile Industry, Its Past, Present and Future, 1930, with a Foreword by Mr. G. D. Birla, M.L.A., thoroughly revised and enlarged edition of author's Bombay University Ashburner Prize Essay, 1925. (The Book Company, College Square, Calcutta). How to compete with Foreign cloth with a foreword by Sir P. C. Roy. (The Book Co., Calcutta) 1931. Vernacular Editions of How to complete with Foreign cloth in Tamil, Gujarati, Hindi and Bengali, with a foreword by Mr. M. K. Gandhi, 1931. The Sugar Industry of India—Its Past, Present and Future, 1933. *Address:* c/o Indian Chamber of Commerce, 135, Canning Street, Calcutta, India.

GANDHI, MOHANDAS KARAMCHAND, Bar-at-Law (Inner Temple). *b.* 2nd October 1869. *Educ.* at Rajkot, Bhavnagar, and London. Practised law in Bombay, Kathiawar, and South Africa. Was in charge of an Indian Ambulance Corps during the Boer War and the Zulu revolt in Natal. During the great war raised an ambulance corps and conducted a recruiting campaign in Kaira district. Started and led the Satyagraha movement, (1918-19) and the non-cooperation campaign, (1920) in addition to associating himself with the Khilafat agitation, (1919-21). Has championed the cause of Indians abroad, notably those in South and East Africa. Sentenced to six years' simple imprisonment in March, 1922; released, Feb. 4th, 1924. President of the Indian National Congress, 1925. Inaugurated campaign for breach of the Salt Laws, April, 1930. Interned, 5th May, 1930 and released 26th January 1931. Delegate to the Round Table Conference, 1931. Imprisoned January 1932; released on May 8th, 1933. *Publications:* "Indian Home Rule," "Universal-Dawn," "Young India," Nava Jivan," (Hindi and Gujarati). *Address:* Satyagrahashram, Sabarmati, B. B. & C. I. Railway.

GANDHI, NAGARDAS PURUSHOTTAM, M.A., B.Sc., A. R. S. M., D. I. C., F. G. S., M. Inst. M. M., University Professor and Head of Department of Mining and Metallurgy, Benares Hindu University, Benares; *s.* of late Purushottam Kahanji Gandhi of Limbdi. (Kathiawar); *b.* 22nd December 1886. *m.* 1906, Shivkumvar *d.* of Sheth Bhudar Lalchand, Ranpur; *Educ:* Bahauddin College, Junagad, Wilson College, Bombay. Imperial College of Science and Technology, London. Joined Messrs. Tata Iron and Steel Co. 1915; General Manager, Messrs. Tata Sons Ltd., in Tavoy (Lower Burma) where wolfram and tin mining was carried on during the Great War, (1916-1919); University Professor and Head of the Department of Mining and Metallurgy, Benares Hindu University since 1919; *Address:* Hindu University, Benares.

GANGARAMA KAULA, B.A., C.I.E. (June 1930); I.A. & A.S., Retired Controller of Civil Accounts. *b.* 9 May 1877. *m.* to Bhagyabharee Wanchoo of Lahore and Delhi. *Educ:* Central Model School, Lahore and Government College, Lahore. Entered the service of Government of India as Assistant Examiner of Public Works Accounts, 1896; rose to the rank of Accountant-General, 1921; Accountant-General, Central Revenue, New Delhi, 1925-1928; Director, Railway Audit, New Delhi and Simla, 1929-30; Controller, Civil Accounts, New Delhi and Simla, 1930-32; appointed to officiate as Auditor-General from September 1930 to January 1931. Member, Posts and Telegraphs Accounts, Enquiry Committee, 1931; Member, Bombay Reorganisation Committee, 1932. Acting Honorary Treasurer, Indian Red Cross Society and St. John Ambulance Association (Indian Council); Honorary Treasurer, Indian Public Schools Society; Honorary Treasurer, All-India Women's Education Fund Association. *Publications:* Several departmental codes, manuals and reports. *Address:* New Delhi and Simla.

GANGULI, SUPRAKASH, nephew of the poet, Dr. Rabindranath Tagore; Artist M.R.A.S., F.R.S.A. (Lond.), Curator, Museum and Art Gallery, Baroda. *b.* 8th May 1886. *m.* Srimati Tanujabala Devi. *Educ.:* Doveton College, Calcutta, subsequently visited Europe chiefly for the study of Fine Arts and Archæology. With the idea of gaining a wider knowledge in the above subjects he held a temporary post in the Imperial Archæological Survey under late Dr. B. B. Spooner, Dy. Director-General of Archæology in India. Here he spent about 6 years doing the work of photographing and listing of the Ancient Monuments in the Provinces of Bengal, Behar and Orissa, Assam and Chota Nagpur and of studying ancient Indian Sculptures in the Indian Museum, Calcutta, and branches. *Publications:* Under preparation 1. A monograph on Rags and Raginis with 36 colour reproductions of old paintings. 2. A monograph on Rajput and Kangra Paintings with 12 illustrations 3. A short history on the art of brocade weaving in Gujarat. 4. Moghul textiles. 5. Lacquer work in India. 6 Descriptive Guide to the Baroda Museum Art Gallery (under preparation). *Address:* Pushpabag, Baroda.

GARBETT, COLIN CAMPBELL, B.A., LL.B., F.R.G.S., C.I.E., (1917); C.M.G., (1922); Chief Secretary to Government, Punjab. *b.* 22 May 1881. *m.* Marjorie Josephine, *d.* of late Lt.-Col. Maynard, I.M.S. *Educ:* King William's College, Isle of Man. Rowing, Cricket and Football Colours (Captain) Victor Ludorum. Jesus College, Cambridge Senior Scholar. Football, Athletic and Rowing Colours Victor Ludorum. B.A. (1st Class Hons.); Classics, 1903; LL.B., (2nd Class), 1904; I.C.S., 1904; Asst. Censor, 1915; Revenue Commissioner, Mesopotamia, and also Administrator, Agricultural Development Scheme (Military), 1917, (despatches twice); Assistant Secretary, India Office, 1919-20; Secretary, High Commissioner, Iraq, 1920-22; returned to India, 1922; Deputy Commissioner, Attock, 1925-29; Rawalpindi, 1929; Chief Secretary to Government, Punjab, 1931. *Address:* Punjab Civil Secretariat, Lahore/ Simla.

GARRETT, JOSEPH HUGH, B.A. (Cantab.), C.S.I. (Jan. 1931). *b.* 22 June, 1880. *Educ:* Highgate School and Gonville and Caius College, Cambridge. Served is Bombay as Asstt. Collector and Magistrate and Asstt. Settlement Officer, Deputy. Commissioner of Salt and Excise, Northern Division, Dec. 1919; Offg. Collector and District Magistrate and Political Agent, Jan. 1921; Offg. Collr. and Talukdari Settlement Officer, June 1923 and again June 1925; confirmed, Jan. 1926; Offg. Commissioner, March 1925 and again February 1926. *Address:* Shahibag, Ahmedabad.

GAUBA, KHALEEL LATIF, formerly KANHAYA LAL, B.A., LL.B. (Cantab.), 1920, Barrister-at-Law. *b.* 28th August 1899. *m.* Husnara Aziz Ahmed, *d.* of late Aziz Ahmed, Bar-at-Law. Converted to Islam in 1933. *Educ:* Privately and at Downing Coll., Cambridge. Member, Committee, Cambridge Union Society, (1920). Associated with many Joint Stock enterprises as Director; Lahore Electric Co., Ltd., The Bharat Insurance Co., Ltd., etc. President, Punjab Flying Club, 1932-33; Ex-President, Punjab Journalists' Association, (1922); Member, N. W. R. Advisory Committee; and Member, Managing Committee of the Irwin Flying Fund, (1931). *Publications:* Leone, (1921); Uncle Sham, 13th Ed., (1929); H. H. or the Pathology of Princes, 3rd Ed., (1930); The Prophet of the Desert, (1933). *Address:* Aikman Road, Lahore.

GEDDIS, ANDREW, J. P., JAMES FINLAY & Co., Limited. *b.* 11th July 1886. *m.* Jean Baikie Gunn, *d.* of Dr. Gunn, George Square, Edinburgh. *Educ:* George Watson's College, Edinburgh. Joined James Finlay & Co., Ltd., Bombay, 1907; Chairman, The Finlay Mills, Ltd., The Surya Mill, Swan Mills, Ltd., Gold Mohur Mills, Ltd., Director, Bank of India, Chairman, Bombay Millowners' Association, 1926; Millowners' Association's representative on Port Trust. G. I. P. Railway Advisory Committee; also Director, East India Cotton Association. *Address:* Sudama Villa, Nepean Sea Road, Malabar Hill.

GENNINGS, JOHN FREDERICK, C. B. E. (1933); Bar-at-Law (Middle Temple, 1911); Commissioner of Labour and Director of Information, Bombay, and Commissioner of Workmen's Compensation. *b.* 21 Sept., 1885. *m.* Edith *d.* of T. J. Wallis, Esq., of Croydon, Surrey and Aldeburgh, Suffolk. *Educ:* Aske's Hatcham and Dulwich. Entered journalism in 1902 and served on the Editorial Staffs of the *Morning Leader*, *Star*, *Daily Mail* and *Daily Telegraph*. Army (2/5th Buffs. and R. G. A.), 1915-1919; War Office. M. I. 7 b, Propaganda Section, from Aug. 1916 to Feb. 1917. Director of Information, Dec. 1920; Ag. Director of the Labour Office in addition, July 1925 to March 1926. Since that date in charge of combined offices as Commissioner of Labour and Director of Information. *Address:* Secretariat, Bombay.

GHOSE, HON. SIR CHARU CHUNDER, Knt. Bach. (1926); Judge of the High Court, Calcutta; B.A., LL.B., Calcutta; Barrister-at-Law, Lincoln's Inn, 1907; enrolled as Vakil of the Calcutta High Court, 1898; Advocate Calcutta High Court, 1907; Judge of the High Court since 1919; *b.* 4 F. be 1874; elder son of Hon. Rai Debender Chundre Ghose, Bahadur, of 10, Debender Ghose Road, Bhowanipore, Calcutta; *m.* 1892, Nirmolnolini, eld. *d.* of late Protap Chunder Bhose, of Calcutta, and has issue. *Address:* National Liberal and Calcutta Clubs.

GHUZNAVI OF DILDUAR, THE HON. ALHADJ NAWAB BAHADUR SIR ABDELKERIM ABU AHMED KHAN, KT., (1928), M.L.C., Zemindar and Land-owner; Member, Executive Council; Government of Bengal. *b.* 25 August 1872. *m.* Nawab Begum Lady Saidennessa Khanum, 1894. *Educ:* St. Peter's School, Exmouth, Devonshire. Messrs. Wren and Gurney's Institution, London. Universities of Oxford and Jena (Germany). Returned to India, 1894 and settled on his estates handed down by his ancestors Fatehdad Khan Ghuznin Lohani, brother of Osman Khan Ghuznin Lohani, the last independent Afghan Chieftain of Bengal. Represented the whole of E. B. & Assam in both Moslem & Hindu interests in the old Imperial Legislative Council, (1909-12). Represented the whole of Bengal in Moslem interests in Viceroy's Council, (1913-16). Was sent on a political mission to the Court of ex-King Hussein of Hedjaz as well as to Palestine and Syria to enquire into the question of Pilgrim Traffic, (1913). Entered Bengal Legislative Council, 1923 and 1926. Appointed Minister, Government of Bengal, in 1924 and again in 1927. Exempted from the Indian Arms Act in 1925. Elected Chairman, Bengal Provincial Simon Committee in 1928 and General Chairman of all Provincial Simon Committees in March 1929. Appointed Member, Executive Council, Bengal Government, April 1929. Author of "Pilgrim Traffic to Hedjaz and Palestine" "Moslem Education in Bengal" and other works. Has one son (Alhadj Mr. I. S. K. Ghuznavi, B. Sc.) and four daughters. *Address:* North House, Dilduar, Mymensingh; Writer's Buildings, Calcutta. Lohani Manor, Lohani-Sagardighi, Mymensingh, Bengal.

GIBSON, RAYMOND EVELYN, C.I.E., (1924), I.C.S. Commissioner in Sind. *b.* 10th Oct. 1878. *m.* 1st 1925 Mrs. Effie Kerr Gordon (died 1926); 2ndly, 1927, Mrs. Greta Twiss. *Educ:* Winchester College and New College, Oxford. Entered I.C.S., 1901 and became Asstt. Collector, 1902; Superintendent, Land Records and Registration, Sind, 1906; Colonization Officer, Jamrao Canal, 1909; Asstt. Commissioner, in Sind and Sindhi Translator to Government, 1910; Private Secretary to Governor of Bombay, 1912; Asstt. Collector, Gujarat, 1914; Collector in Gujarat and Sind, 1916; Acting Commissioner in Sind in 1923 and 1929; Commissioner in Sind, 1931. *Address:* Karachi.

GIDHOUR, MAHARAJA BAHADUR CHANDRA MOULESHWAR PRASAD SINGH, MAHARAJA BAHADUR OF GIDHOUR. *b.* 1890. Has been a Member of District Board, Monghyr; Vice-Chairman, Local Board and an Honorary Magistrate with independent powers (to try cases singly). Member of Legislative Council. Bihar and Orissa, since 1920-1926. Life Vice-President, Bihar Landholder's Association, Patna, President, Divisional Land-holders' Association, Bhagalpore President, Baidyanath Temple Committee and scheme of Management. Ascended the Gadi on 21st November 1923. Title of Maharaja Bahadur made hereditary in 1877, has a son and heir—Maharaj Kumar Chandra Choor Singh. *Address:* Srivillas, Gidhour, District Monghyr; No. 9/3, Hungerford Street, Calcutta.

GIDNEY, SIR HENRY ALBERT JOHN, KT. (1931); LT.-COL., I.M.S. (retired); F.R.C.S.E.; D.O. (Oxon.); F.R.S.A. (London); D.P.H. (Cantab.), M.L.A. Ophthalmic Surgeon. *b.* 9 June 1873. *Educ:* at Calcutta, Edinburgh R. College. University College Hospital, London, Cambridge and Oxford. Post Graduate Lecturer, in Ophthalmology, Oxford University, (1911). Entered I.M.S., 1898. Served in China Expedition, 1900-01, N. E. Frontier, 1913, N. W. Frontier, 1914-15 (wounded). President-in-Chief, Anglo-Indian and Domiciled European Association, All-India and Burma. Leader of Anglo-Indian Deputation to England, 1925. Accredited leader of the Domiciled Community in India and Burma; Member of Legislative Assembly. Assistant Commissioner, Royal Commission on Labour in India; Anglo-Indian Delegate to the Indian Round Table Conferences, London; Member, Indian Sandhurst Committee; Assessor to all four Government of India Retrenchment Sub-Committees, (1931). Member, Joint Parliamentary Committee, 1933. *Address:* 87-A, Park Street, Calcutta.

GILBERT-LODGE, CAPTAIN EDWARD MORTON, F.S.I., F.I.A., F.A.I., M.T.P.I., J.P. Hon. Presidency Magistrate; *b.* 23 Jan. 1880. *m.* May *d.* of Thomas Spencer, Esq. of Norwood, London, S. E. *Educ:* at Sydney, N.S. Wales, Australia. Private practice London, 1903-1914; Royal Engineer, April 1915—May 1920, then retiring to Reserve with rank of Captain and is now on retired list; Asst. Land Acquisition Officer, Bombay, May-Nov. 1920; Land Manager and Consulting Surveyor to Govt. Development Directorate, Nov. 1920 to Dec. 1925. *Address:* Improvement Trust Building, Esplanade Road, Bombay.

GILES, MAJOR-GENERAL EDWARD DOUGLAS, C.B. (1932); C.M.G. (1919); D.S.O. (1916); American D.S.M. (1919); A.D.C. to the King (1930-31); Major-General, Cavalry in India. *b.* 13th October 1879. *m.* Eileen Graham Dingwall-Fordyce, *d.* of late C. G. Dingwall-Fordyce and Mrs. J. F. Barry. *Educ:* Marlborough College, and R.M.C. Sandhurst. Joined King's Shropshire L.I. 1899; transferred to Scinde Horse, 1901; p.s.c. 1912; Great War in France, 1914-18 (4 times mentioned in despatches—D.S.O.; Bt. Lt.-Col., C.M.G., American D.S.M.); transferred to K.G.O., Central India Horse, 1919; Director, Staff College, Quetta, 1921-24; Commanded 4th (Secunderabad) Cavalry

Brigade, 1925-26 and 3rd (Meerut) Cavalry Brigade, 1926-29; Director of Military Operations; Army Headquarters, India, 1930-31; Major-General, Cavalry in India, 1931. *Address:* Army Headquarters, India, Delhi and Simla.

GINWALA, SIR PADAMJI PESTONJI, KT. (1927), B. A. (Hist. Tripos, Cambridge), Barrister-at-Law; Adviser to Swedish Match Co. of Stockholm and Western India Match Co., Bombay. *b.* Nov. 1875, *m.* Frenny Bezonji. *Educ:* Govt. High School and Gujarat College, Ahmedabad, Trinity Hall, Cambridge, Called to the Bar, 1899; Advocate, Chief Court of Lower Burma, 1905: Asstt. Govt. Advocate, 1915; Secretary, Legislative Council, Burma, 1916; resigned, 1902; President, Rangoon Municipal Corporation, 1922-23; Member Legislative Assembly, 1921-23; Member, Indian Tariff Board, 1923; President, 1926-1930. Resigned July 1930; Delegate, Imperial Conference, 1930; Member, Round Table Conference, 1931; Ottawa Conference, 1932; World Economic Conferance 1933. *Address:* 38, Hyde Park, Gate, London, S. W. 7.

GLANCY, BERTRAND JAMES, C.S.I. (1933), C.I.E. (1924), Political Secretary to the Government of India, Foreign and Political Department. *b.* 31st December 1882. *m.* 1914, Grace Steele. *Educ:* Clifton; Monmouth; Exeter College, Oxford, Indian Civil Service. *Address:* Delhi and Simla.

GLANCY, SIR REGINALD ISIDORE ROBERT, C.S.I. (1921), C.I.E., Member of the India Council. *b.* 1874; *m.* Helen Adelaide, *d.* of Edward Miles. Bowen House. *Educ.:* Clifton College; Christ Church, Oxford. Entered I.C.S., 1896; Settlement Officer, Bannu, 1903; Political Agent, 1907; First Asstt. Resident, Hyderabad, 1909; Finance Member of Council, H. E. H. the Nizam's Government, 1911-1921; Resident in Baroda, 1922; President of the Cabinet, Jaipur, 1923. Agent to the Governor-General, Central India, 1924-29; Chairman, H. E. H. the Nizam's State Railway Board, 1930; Member of the India Council, 1931. *Address:* India Office, London.

GLANVILLE, SIR OSCAR JAMES LARDNER, DE (See under De Glanville.)

GOKUL CHAND NARANG, THE HON'BLE DR. M.A., Ph.D., Bar-at-Law; Minister, Punjab Government, Lahore. *b.* 15 Nov. 1878. *Educ:* Punjab University, Calcutta University, Oxford University, and Bern University. Was Professor and Barrister. *Publications:* The Message of the Vedas and Transformation of Sikhism. *Address:* 5, Montgomery Road, Lahore.

GOLDSMITH, REV. MALCOLM GEORGE, Missionary of C.M.S. in Madras and Hyderabad, Deccan. *b.* 1849. *Educ.:* Kensington Proprietary Grammar School; St. Catherine's College, Cambridge. Ordained, 1872; C.M.S. Missionary, Madras, 1872-73; Calcutta, 1874-75; Principal, Harris School, Madras, 1883-91; Hyderabad, 1891-09; Hon. Canon, St. George's Cathedral, Madras, 1905. *Address:* Royapettah House, Royapettah, Madras.

GORDON, EVER, B.A. (Oxon.), C.I.E. (1931), Chief Secretary to Government, C.P. *b.* 1 Feb. 1884. *m.* Lilias Edith Napier, (1912). *Educ:* Rossall and Queen's College, Oxford. Joined I.C.S. *Address:* Nagpur, C.P.

GOSWAMI, KUMAR TULSI CHANDRA, M.A. (Oxon.), Zemindar Member, Legislative Assembly. Son of Raja Kisorilal Goswami of Serampore, member of first Bengal Executive Council. *b.* 1898. *Educ.:* Presidency College, Calcutta, Oxford and Paris. Delegate elected by the Indian Legislative Assembly to represent India at the August Session, (1928) of the Empire Parliamentary Association, Canada, and was Chairman of the Indian Section. *Address:* The Raj Baree, Serampore; Rainey Park, Ballygunge, Calcutta; Kamachha, Benares; Puri.

GOULD, HERBERT ROSS, B.A. (Oxon.); C.I.E., Indian Civil Service. Private Secretary to H. E. the Governor of Bombay, since 1931. *b.* 17th April, 1887, *m.* Florence Mary Butler. *Educ:* Chillfton College, Brasenose College, Oxford. Arrived Bombay 1911: Asst. Collr. Dharwar, Canara, Larkhana, 1911-16; Military Service, I.A.R.O. 1916-1919. Asst. Collr. Sholapur, 1919; Dy. Commissioner Upper Sind Frontier, 1920-23; Collr. Sholapur, 1924-1928; Collr. Poona, 1929. Private Secretary to Governor (Acting), 1929-30. *Address:* Bombay and Poona.

GOUR, SIR HARI SINGH, KT. (1925), M.A., D. Litt., D.C.L., LL.D., Member of the Legislative Assembly, Barrister-at-Law. *b.* 26 Nov. 1872. *Educ.:* Govt. High School, Saugor; Hislop Coll., Nagpur; Downing Coll., Cambridge. Presdt., Municipal Committee, Nagpur, 1918-22; First Vice-Chancellor, and Hon. D. Litt., Delhi University; re-appointed 1st May 1924-1926. Member of Indian Central Committee, Elected Deputy President of the Leg. Assembly and Vice-President of the Empire Parliamentary Association (Indian Branch), Leader of the National Party in the Assembly and Leader of the Opposition; its senior Chairman, Delegate to the Joint Committee of Parliament, 1933: Hon. Member of the Anthenæum Club, National Liberal Club and British Empire Society. *Publications:* Law of transfer in British India, 3 vols. (6th Edition) Penal Law of British India. 2 vols. (4th Edition); Hindu Code (3rd Edition). The Spirit of Buddhism; His only Love; Random Rhymes and other poems. *Address:* Nagpur, C. P.

GOWAN, SIR HYDE CLARENDON, B.A. (Oxon.); V.D., C.I.E. (1928); C.S.I. (1932); K.C.S.I. (1933); J.P., I.C.S., Governor, Central Provinces, Sept. 1933; *b.* 4 July 1878. *m.* Edna Gowan (nee. Brown). 1905. *Educ:* at Elstree School, 1889-1892; Rugby School, 1892-1897; New College, Oxford, 1897-1901; Univ. Coll., London, 1901-1902. Under Secretary to C. P. Govt., 1904-08; officiated as Under Secretary, Commerce and Industries Department, Government of India, July to Nov. 1908; Settlement Officer, Hoshangabad District,

1913-17; Financial Secretary to Govt., C. P., 1918-1921; Dy. Commissioner, Nagpur, 1923-25; Financial Secretary to Govt., 1925 and 1927; Chief Secretary, March 1927, Revenue and Finance Member, C. P. Government, July 1932. *Address:* Nagpur.

GRAHAM, THE VERY REV. JOHN ANDERSON, M.A. (Edin.), D. D. (Edin.), D. D. (Aberdeen); K.I.H. Gold Medal, C.I.E., V.D., F.R.G.S., Missionary of Church of Scotland at Kalimpong, Bengal, since 1889; Founder and Hon. Supdt. of St. Andrew's Colonial Homes; Moderator of Church of Scotland, 1931-32. *b.* 1861. *Educ:* Cardross Parish School; Glasgow High School; Edinburgh University. *m.* Kate McConachie (K.I.H. Gold Medal) who died in 1919. Was in Home C. S. in Edinburgh, 1877-82; graduated, 1885; ordained, 1889. *Publication:* "On the threshold of three closed lands" and "The Missionary Expansion of the Reformed Churches", *Address:* Kalimpong, Bengal.

GRAHAM, SIR LANCELOT, M.A. (Oxon.); K.C.I.E. (1930), Bar-at-Law; C.I.E. (1924); I. C. S., Secretary Legislative Department, Government of India (1924), *b* 18 April 1880, *m.* Olive Bertha Maurice. *Educ:* St. Paul's School, London and Balliol Coll., Oxford. Entered Indian Civil Service, 1904; Asstt. Collector, 1904; Asstt. Judge, 1908; Asstt. Legal Remembrancer, Bombay, 1911; Judicial Asstt., Kathiawar, 1913; Joint Secretary, Legislative Department, Government of India, 1921. *Address:* Delhi and Simla.

GRAHAME, WILLIAM FITZWILLIAM, I.C.S., Provincial Art Officer, Supdt. of Cottage Industries and Provincial Training Officer since 1925. *b.* 1871. *m.* 1905 Elizabeth Dunlop Dunning, niece of Governor Dunlop of Maine, U. S. A. *Educ.:* at Charterhouse and Trinity Hall, Cambridge. Supdt. and Pol. Officer, S. Shan States, Commissioner, Pegu Division in 1918 and again from Feb. 1919 to June 1920, Superintendent and P. O., S. S. S. from 1922-25. *Address:* Pegu Club, Rangoon.

GRAVELY, FREDERIC HENRY, D.Sc., F.A.S.B., Superintendent, Government Museum, Madras. *b.* 7th Dec. 1885. *m.* Laura Balling. *Educ:* Ackworth and Bootham Schools and Victoria Univ. of Manchester. Demonstrator in Zoology, Victoria Univ. of Manchester Asstt. Superintendent, Indian Museum, Calcutta; Superintendent, Government Museum, Madras. *Publications:* Various Zoological papers mostly in the Records and Memoirs of the Indian Museum and in the Bulletin of the Madras Government Museum. *Address:* Museum House, Egmore, Madras.

GRAY, ALEXANDER GEORGE, J.P. (1918); Manager, Bank of India, Ltd., Vice-President, Indian Institute of Bankers. *b.* 1884, *m.* Dulce Muriel Fanny Wild, 1922. *Educ.:* Macclesfield Grammar School. Parrs Bank, Ltd., Manchester and District; arrived India, 1905; entered service of the Bank of India, Ltd., 1908. *Address:* 88, Nepean Sea Road, Malabar Hill, Bombay.

GREEN, ALAN MICHAEL, M.A. (Oxon), C.I.E. (1933), I.C.S. Deputy High Commissioner for India, (1930); *b.* 11 April 1885. *m.* Joan, the only child of Mr. and Mrs. F. D. Elkin, (1919). *Educ.:* St. Paul's School, London, Lincoln College, Oxford. Joined I.C.S. in 1909. *Address:* India House, Aldwich, London, W. C. 2. Meads, Frithsden Copse, Berkhamsted, Herts.

GRIEVE, ROBERT GEORGE, Hon. Mods. Lit. Hum., C.I.E. (1930); Acting Director of Public Instruction, Madras. *b.* 18th October 1881. *Educ.:* Fettes Oxford. Indian Educational Service. *Address:* Old College, Nungambakkam, Madras.

GRIFFITH, LIEUT.-COLONEL SIR RALPH EDWIN HOTCHKIN, K.C.S.I., C.I.E., Governor North-West Frontier Province. *b.* 4 March 1882. *m.* Pauline, *d.* of Colonel A.P. Westlake, late 26th K. G. O. Light Cavalry. *Educ:* Blundells School and R.M.C., Sandhurst. *Address:* Government House, Peshawar.

GRIGG, SIR (PERCY) JAMES, K.C.B., Finance Member of Government of India since 1934. *b.* 16 Dec. 1890. *e. s.* of Frank Alfred Grigg. *m.* 1919 Gertrude Charlotte, *y. d.* of Rev. G. F. Hough. *Educ.:* Bournemouth School; St. John's College, Cambridge, Wrangler, Mathematical Tripos; appointed to Treasury, 1913; served R.G.A. 1915-18; Principal Private Secretary to successive Chancellors of the Exchequer, 1921-1930; Chairman, Board of Customs and Excise, Nov. 1930; Chairman, Board of Inland Revenue, 1930-34; Finance Member, Government of India, 1934. *Address:* Government of India, Simla and Delhi.

GULAB SINGH, REIS, SARDAR, EX. M.L.A., Managing Director, Punjab Zamindars' Bank. Ltd., Lyallpur, and Landlord. *b* March 1866, *m. d.* of Dr. Sardar Jawahir Singh Reis of Lyallpur. *Educ.:* Government Coll., Lahore. Headmaster, Govt. Sandeman High School, Quetta, for 10 years; Member, Lyallpur and Quetta Municipalities and Dist. Board, Lyallpur, and Pres. of several co-operative credit societies and associations and elected as member of Legislative Assembly, 1920, and re-elected in 1923 and re-elected in 1926 unopposed Member, Finance Committee, Government of India. Hon. Magte., Lyallpur, for 9 years. *Address:* Bhawana Bazar, Lyallpur, Punjab.

GULAMJILANI, BIJLIKHAN, SARDAR, NAWAB OF WAI. First Class Sardar of the Deccan and a Treaty Chief. *b.* 28 July 1888. *m.* sister of H. H. The Nawab Saheb Bahadur of Jaora. *Educ.:* Rajkumar College, Rajkot. Served in the Imperial Cadet Corps for two years, 1906-08; was Additional Member, Bombay Legis. Council; and Member, Legislative Assembly, 1921-1923; was elected Vice-President, Bombay Presidency Muslim League and is permanent President of Satara District Anjuman Islam, appointed Hon. A.D.C. to H. E. the Governor of Bombay in 1929. President of the State Council, Jaora State, 30th July,

1930, for three months after which resigned *Address :* The Palace, Wai, District Satara.

GULLILAND, COLIN CAMPBELL, Secretary and Clerk of the Course and starter Western India Turf Club Ltd. *b.* 2nd December 1892. *m.* Margaret Patricia Gulliland (nee Denehy). *Educ :* Oundle School. Joined F. W. Heilgers & Co., London, 1912 ; Calcutta, 1914-15 ; served with Indian Cavalry, 1915-1919 ; saw active service with 32nd Lancers, Iraq, 1916 and 1918-19 ; with Croft and Forbes, 1919-29. Partner, Croft and Forbes, Exchange Brokers, Bombay ; served as member of Committee, Chamber of Commerce, Bombay, 1929 ; joined W. I. T. C. as Asst. Secretary, Nov. 1929. *Address :* 5, Burnett Road, Poona.

GUPTA, SATISH CHANDRA, C. I. E. (1932), Bar-at-Law ; Secretary, Legislative Assembly Department. *b.* 16 September 1876. *m.* second *d.* of the late Mr. K. N. Roy, Statutory Civil Service. *Educ :* London. Assistant Secretary, Bengal Legislative Council, 1910-14; subsequently Dy. Secretary and Joint Secy., Legislative Department, Government of India. Appointed Secretary, Legislative Assembly Department, 1929. *Address :* 6, York Place, New Delhi.

GWALIOR, HIS HIGHNESS MAHARAJA MUKHTAR-UL-MULK Azim-Ul-Iqtidar, Rafi-ush-shan, Wala Shikoh, Mohatasham-i-Dauran, Umdat-ul-Umra, Maharajadhiraja-Hisamus-Saltanat JIWAJIRAO SCINDIA Alijah Bahadur Shrinath, Mansur-i-Zaman, Fidwi-i-Hazrat-i-Malik-i-Mauzzam-i-Rafi-ud-Darja-i-Inlgistan. *b.* 26th June 1916. Succeeded to the *gadi* on 5th June 1925. *Address :* Jai Bilas Palace, Gwalior.

HABIB-UL-LAH SAHIB BAHADUR, KHAN BAHADUR SIR MUHAMMAD, KT. (1932), K.C.S.I. (1927), K.C.I.E. (1924), C.I.E. (1920), Dewan of Travancore. *b.* Sept. 22. 1869. *m.* Sadathun Nisa Begum. *Educ.:* Zilla High School, Saidapet. Joined the Bar in 1888; in 1897 was presented Certificate of Honour on the occasion of Golden Jubilee of the late Imperial Majesty Queen Victoria; from 1901 devoted whole time to local self-government and held the position of Chairman of Municipal Council, Pres., Taluk Board and Pres., Dist. Board; Khan Bahadur, 1905; Member, Legislative Council, 1909-12, appointed Temporary Member, Madras Executive Council, 1919; was Commissioner of Madras Corporation, 1920. Gave evidence before Royal Commn. on Decentralisation and also before Public Services Commn., served as a co-opted member on Reforms Committee, Member, Royal Commission on the Superior Civil Services in India, Nov. 1923 March 1924, Member of Council of the Governor of Madras, 1920-1924. Member of the Viceroy's Council 1925-1930. Leader of the Indian Delegation to South Africa, 1926-27. Leader of the Indian Delegation to the League of Nations (1929). *Address :* Trivandrum.

HAIDER KARRAR JAFRI, SYED, Ex. Member, Legis. Assembly and Asstt. Manager, Court of Wards, Balrampur Raj. *b.* 8 Nov. 1879. Married. *Educ.:* Collegiate School, Balrampur, M.A.O. Coll., Aligarh, Agra College and Mistri's Accountancy Institution, Bombay; Member, Gonda Dist. Board for six years; Member, Municipal Board, Balrampur, for 20 years; Hon. Magte., Balrampur, for 20 years; Vice-Chairman, Balrampur Central Co-operative Bank; Member, Standing Committee, All-India Shia Conference; Trustee, Shia Coll., Lucknow; President and Trustee of the Balrampur Girls' School. *Address :* Balrampur, Dist. Gonda (U.P.).

HAIG, SIR HARRY GRAHAM, K.C.S.I., C.I.E. (1923), C.S.I. (1930); Governor Designate of the United Provinces. *b.* 13 April 1881. *m.* to Violet May Deas, *d.* of J. Deas, I.C.S. (retired) *Educ. :* Winchester and New Colleges, Oxford. Entered I.C.S. 1905; Under-Secretary to Govt., U.P., 1910-12 ; Indian Army Reserve of Officers, 1915-1919 ; Deputy Secretary to Govt. of India, Finance Dept., 1920; Secy., Fiscal Commission, 1921-22 ; attached Lee Commission 1923-24. Private Secretary to Viceroy, 1925 ; Secretary to Government of India, Home Dept., 1926-30 ; Home Member, Govt. of India, 1930-34. *Address :* Governor's Camp, (U.P.)

HAILEY, SIR WILLIAM MALCOLM, G.C.S.I., G.C.I.E., I.C.S., Governor of the United Provinces (1928), Knight of Grace of Order of St. John of Jerusalem, Hon. Fellow. Corpus Christi College, Oxford, D. Litt. (Lahore) *b.* 1872. *m.* 1896, Andreina, *d.* of Count Hannibale Balzani Italy. Lady of Grace of Order of St. John of Jerusalem; F.R.G.S. *Educ.:* Merchant Taylor's School; Corpus Christi College, Oxford (Scholar). First Class Mod. First Class Lit. Hum. Colonisation Officer, Jhelum Canal Colony, 1902 ; Sec., Punjab Govt., 1907 ; Dy. Sec., Govt. of India, 1908; Member, Durbar Committee, 1911; Ch. Commr., Delhi, 1912-19 ; Finance Member, Government of India, 1919-1922 ; Home Member, Government of India, 1922-1924. Governor of the Punjab, 1924-28. *Address :* Governor's Camp, (U. P.)

HAJI WAJIHUDDIN, KHAN BAHADUR (1926), M.L.A. Proprietor of Pioneer Arms Co., Meerut, *b.* 1880. During Great Balkan War (1910-12) was Treasurer, Meerut Division Red Crescent Fund; during Great War (1918) worked as Hon. Secretary, Meerut Cantonment War Loan Committee. Member of many educational institutions. Elected in 1916 to Meerut Municipal Board; re-elected in 1919 ; elected in 1920 to Legislative Assembly, re-elected in 1923; re-elected unopposed in 1930. Appointed in 1922 to bench of Hon. Magistrates; appointed 1927 Chairman, Cantonment Bench empowered "First Class" 1929. Elected in 1922, Hon. Secretary to the Central Haj Committee of India. Elected unopposed in 1927 to Cantonment Board; re-elected unopposed in 1928; elected Vice-President of Prohibition League of India in 1926; re-elected in 1928 President of Meerut Cantonment Residents' Association since 1926. *Address :* "Pioneer House," Meerut Cantonment.

HAKSAR, COL. SIR KAILAS NARAIN, Kt., 1932; C.I.E., Mashir-i-Khas Bahadur; Political Member, Gwalior Darbar since 1912; *b.* 20th February, 1878; *s.* of Pt. Har Narain Haksar; *g.s.* of Rai Bahadur Dharam Narain Haksar, C.I.E., one *s.* three *d.* *Educ.:* Victoria College, Gwalior; Allahabad University B.A., Hon. Professor of History and Philosophy, 1899-1902; Private Secretary to the Maharaja Scindia from 1903-12; Under-Secretary, Political Department, on deputation, 1905-1907; Capt. 4th Gwalior Imperial Service Infantry, 1902; Major 1907; Lt.-Col. 1910; Col. 1924; Senior Member Board of Revenue, 1910-13; Director, Princes Special Organisation on deputation, 1 Feb. 1928 to 15 Dec. 1928, and since 1st December 1929 upto April 1932; Nominated Member to the Indian Round Table Conference both Sessions; also served on the Federal Structure Committee and its Sub-Committees; Mr. Thomas Army Committee and Peel Committee; nominated to serve on the Federal Finance Committee of the Round Table Conference in India; served as Secretary-General of the Indian States Delegation to the Round Table Conference; also represented Government of His Highness of Jammu and Kashmir at the 2nd Round Table Conference: *Publications:* (with H. M. Bull) Madho Rao Scindia, 1925; (with K. M. Panikkar) Federal India, 1930; occasional articles on social and literary subjects in the Asiatic Review; *Address:* Gwalior, Central, India.

HALL, MAJOR RALPH ELLIS CARR, C.I.E., I.A., Mily. Accts. Dept., Field Controller, Poona, *b.* 1873. Joined army, 1894; Major, 1912. served Tirah 1897-98; European War, 1914-17, *Address:* Poona.

HAMILL, HARRY, B.A., Principal, Elphinstone College. *b.* 3 Aug. 1891. *m.* Hilda Annie Shipp. *Educ.:* Royal Academical Institution, Belfast, and Queen's University, Belfast. After graduation served in British and Indian Army. Appointed to the I.E.S., in 1919. *Address:* Elphinstone College, Bombay.

HAMMOND, WILLIAM HENRY, M.A., J.P., F.R.G.S., M.R.S.T., V.D., Principal, Anglo-Scottish Education Society. Lt.-Col. Commanding, Bombay Battalion, 1931 *b.* April 20, 1886, *m.* Dorothy Dymoke, *d.* of late H. Dymoke of Scriveloby Hall, Lincolnshire. *Educ:* Warwick School, Worcester Coll., Oxford; Trinity Coll., Dublin.

HAMPTON, HENRY VERNER, B.A. (Dub.) (First Class Hons. and Gold Medalist in Philosophy); Dip. Ed. M.A., J.P., Fellow of the Bombay University, Principal, Secondary Training College, Bombay. *b.* 1 May 1890. *m.* Stella, only *d.* of the late Sir George Townsend Fenwick, K.C.G.M. *Educ:* Trinity College, Dublin. Appointed to I.E.S., 1913; Prof., Gujarat College, Ahmedabad and Elphinstone College, Bombay, 1914-20; Vice-Principal, Karnatak College, Dharwar, 1920-23; Principal, Karnatak College, Dharwar, 1923-30; Principal, Secondary Training College since 1930. *Publication:* Editor, "Indian Education," 1919-23. *Address:* Secondary Training College, Cruickshank Road, Bombay.

HAR BILAS SARDA, DIVAN BAHADUR, 1932, F.R.S.L., M.R.A.S., F.S.S., Member, Legislative Assembly. *b.* 3 June 1867. *Educ.:* Ajmer Government College and Agra College. Was a teacher in Government College, Ajmer, was transferred to Judicial Department in 1892; apptd. Guardian to H.H. the Maharaja of Jaisalmer in 1894; reverted to British service in Ajmer Merwara in 1902; was Subordinate Judge, First Class, at Ajmer till 1919 and was Sub-Judge and Judge, Small Causes Court, Beawar, till 1921; Judge, Small Causes Court, Ajmer, 1921-23; officiated as Addl. Dist. and Sessions Judge and retired in Dec. 1923, and was Judge, Chief Court, Jodhpur. Elected Member, Leg. Assembly, from Ajmer-Merwara Constituency in 1924 and re-elected in 1927, and again in September 1930; is Dy. Leader, Nationalist Party in Legislative Assembly. Presided over Indian National Social Conference at Lahore, 1929 and All-India Vaisya Conference at Bareilly in 1930; was a member of the Primary Education Committee appointed by the Government of India and of the General Retrenchment Committee; Government of India and General Purposes Committee; has long been a member of the Standing Finance Committee of Government of India. Author of Child Marriage Restraint Act, popularly known as the "Sarda Act."; also Ajmer-Merwara Court Fees Amendment Act and Juvenile Smoking Prevention Act, both passed by the Legislative Assembly. *Publications:* Hindu Superiority; Ajmer Historical and Descriptive; Maharana Sanga; Maharana Kumbha; Maharaja Hammir of Ranthambhor; Prithviraj Vijaya; is Editor of the Dayanand Commemoration Volume and is Secretary of the Paropakarini Sabha of India. *Address:* Civil Lines, Ajmer, Rajputana.

HAR PRASADA, RAI BAHADUR, VAKIL, BIJNOR, U.P. *b.* March, 1878. *Educ.:* Agra College. Started practice, 1903; founded Udiyog Sahayak Co. in 1910 and was its Managing Director and Vice-Chairman for 12 years; Conducts Bijnor War League and was its Vice-President. Awarded Gold Watch for Public Meritorious Services in 1920; Awarded Medal in connection with Wembly Exhibition in 1925 Organised Aman Sabha and Daranagar Fair, 1922 and industrial exhibition at Nagina, 1923; started Govt. Dible Industrial School; elected member, British Empire Exhibition Committee, U.P.; appointed member, Standing Committee of Co-operators, 1925; Hon. Editor of the U. P. Vernacular Co-operative Journal, 1927 and 1930; Life Member, Dufferin Fund Association; Member, Provincial Committee of Co-operative Union Ltd., 1929; Jt. Secretary, Zemindars' Association, Bijnor; awarded sanad for services in connexion with Locust Operation, 1930. Awarded Sanad in 1932 for meritorious services in Civil Disobedience. *Publications:* Non-Co-operation Ka Kacha Chitha in Urdu in 1922; Brief sketch of the Life of Sir

Atul Chandra Chatterji, High Commissioner for India, published in the English Co-operative Journal; Brief sketch of the Life of Rai Bahadur Pandit Shyam Behari Misra, late Registrar, Co-operative Societies, U. P. Lucknow, published in the U.P. Vernacular Co-operative Journals. *Address:* Bijnor, U.P.

HARI KISHAN KAUL, RAJA PANDIT, M.A., C.S.I., C.I.E., Rai Bahadur. *b.* 1869 *s.* of Raja Pandit Suraj Kaul. C.I.E., *Educ.:* Govt. Coll., Lahore. Asstt. Commsr., 1890; Jun. Secy. to Financial Commsr., 1893-97; District Judge, Lahore, 1897-98; Deputy Commr., Jhang, 1898; Settlement Officer, Muzaffargarh, 1898-1903; S. O. Mianwali, 1903-8; Dy. Commsr., 1906; Dy. Commr., Muzaffargarh, 1908-09; Dy. Commsr. and Supdt., Census Operations, Punjab, 1910-12; Dy. Commsr., Montgomery, 1913; on special duty to report on Criminal Tribes, Dec. 1913-April 1914; Deputy Commissioner for Criminal Tribes, 1917-19; Dy. Commissioner, Jhelum, 1919; Commissioner, Rawal Pindi Division, 1919-20; Commissioner, Jhulunder Division, November 1920 to November 1923; Member, Royal Commission on Services, 1923-1924; Commissioner, Rawal Pindi Division, 1924; retired Nov. 1924; Member, Economic Inquiry Committee, 1925; Member, Indian Tariff Board (Cotton Textile Industry Enquiry), 1926-27; Dewan, Bharatpur State, April to October 1927. Prime Minister, Jammu and Kashmir State, 1931-32. *Address:* 29, Lawrence Road, Lahore.

HARISINGH, MAJOR-GENERAL, RAO BAHADUR THAKUR, OF SATTASAR, C.I.E., O.B.E., Army Minister, State Council and G.O.C., Bikaner State Forces. *b.* 1882. *Educ.:* Mayo College. *Address:* Sattasar House, Bikaner.

HARI SINGHJI, SHREEMAN RAO BAHADUR RAJA RAJ SHREE, SAHIB, C.I.E. (1928) Chief of Mahajan; Premier Noble of Bikaner State; Title of "Rao Bahadur" conferred on 12th December 1911. *b.* 16th October 1877. *m.* the daughter of the Thakur Sahib of Sathin in Jodhpur State in 1894. *Educ.* The Mayo College, and the Government College, Ajmer. Member of Council of the Bikaner State and President of the Walter Krit Rajputra Hitkarini Local Sabha, and President of the Sardars' Advisory Committee, Bikaner. *Address:* P. O. Mahajan, Bikaner State Railway.

HARRIS, DOUGLAS GORDON, Dip. Ing. (Zurich), C.S.I., C.I.E., M.I.E. (Ind.), Indian Public Works Department (retd.) (1925). *b.* 19 Oct. 1883. *m.* Alice, *d.* of Spencer Ackroyd of Bradford, Yorks. *Educ.:* Rugby School and Federal Polytechnic, Zurich, Switzerland. Asst. and Executive Engineer, P.W.D. 1907-14; Under-Secretary to Government, U.P., P.W.D., 1915; Under-Secretary to Government of India, P.W.D., 1916; Secretary to P. W. D. Reorganisation Committee, 1917; Under-Secretary to Government of India, P.W.D., 1918; Asstt. Inspector-General of Irrigation in India, 1920; Secretary to New Capital Inquiry Committee, 1922; Deputy Secretary to Government of India, Department of Industries and Labour, Public Works Branch, 1922; Consulting Engineer to Government of India, 1928-31; Member, Sind Financial Enquiry Committee, 1931; Member, Bombay Reorganisation Committee, 1932. *Publications:* Irrigation in India (Oxford University Press). *Address:* 1, Hayes Barton, Shanklin.

HARRISON, ARTHUR NEVILLE JOHN, Modern History Scholar, Lincoln College, Oxford (1900); B.A. (Oxon.), 2nd Class Finals, 1903. Chief Auditor, B. B. & C. I. Railway. *b.* 15th September 1881. *m.* Helen Zoe Foote, youngest *d.* of the late R. Bruce-Foote, F. R. C. S. *Educ.:* Cheltenham College, Lincoln College, Oxford. Joined Accounts Branch P. W. D., Madras, 1905, E. B. S. Railway, 1909-1914; Auditor, Jodhpur Bikaner Railway, 1914-1924; B. B. & C. I. Railway since 1924. Acting Agent, 1933. *Address:* General Offices, B. B. & C. I. Railway, Churchgate, Bombay.

HATWA, MAHARAJA BAHADUR GURU MAHADEV ASRAM PRASAD SAHI OF. *b.* 19 July 1893; *S.* Oct. 1896 to the *Gadi* after death of father Maharaja Bahadur Sir Kishen Pratap Sahi, K.C.I.E., of Hatwa. *Address:* Hathuwa P. O., District Saran, Behar and Orissa.

HAY, MAJOR-GENERAL CHARLES JOHN BRUCE, C.B. (1929); C.M.G. (1919); C.B.E. (1921); D.S.O. (1916); Officer of the Order of St. John of Jerusalem, F.R.G.S., F.R. Empire Society; Commander, Lucknow District. *b.* 18 May 1877 at Rous Lench Court, Worcestershire. *m.* Agatha, youngest *d.* of the Rev. James Mangin, DD.LL.D. *Educ.:* Wellington; College; Royal Military College, Sandhurst; Staff College, Camberley. On deputation to Canadian Militia, 1909-10; Extra A.D.C. to Lt. Governor of Bengal for Coronation Durbar 1911; D.A.A. and Q.M.G. India, 1912-14; on the General Staff in France, Belgium, Aden and Iraq, 1914-18 (Despatches 5 times; Brevet of Leiut.-Colonel C.N.G., D.S.O.); on the General Staff in the 3rd Afghan War 1919 (Despatches); on the General Staff in the Insurrection in Iraq (Despatches, C.B.E.); Commanding 19th Punjabis 1921-23; Colonel on the staff, General Staff, Southern Command, 1923-27; Commander, Xth (Jubbulpore) Infantry Brigade, 1927-29; Commander, Sind (Ind.) Brigade Area, 1929-31; Commander, Lucknow District, since 1931. *Address:* Flagstaff House, Lucknow, U. P.

HAYE, MIAN ABDUL, B.A., LL.B., M.B.E. (1919), M.L.A., Advocate, Lahore High Court. *b.* Oct. 1888. *Educ.:* at Lahore Forman Christian College. Passed LL.B., 1910; started practice at Ludhiana; elected Municipal Commissioner same year; elected Jr. Vice-President 1911 which office he held till 1921 when he was elected senior Vice-President. Is first non-official President of Ludhiana Municipal Council to which office he was elected in 1922. *Address:* President, Municipal Council, Ludhiana.

HAYLES, ALFRED ARTHUR, Editor and Managing Director, The Madras Mail. *b.* March 7, 1887 *m.* Sybil Anne Copeland,

1928. *Educ:* London and Paris. Free lance journalism, London, till 1912; joined staff of the Madras Times. 1912; became Asst. Editor, The Madras Mail, 1921. *Address:* Sunnyside, Royapettah Road, Madras.

HENDERSON, ROBERT HERRIOT, C.I.E., Tea Planter (retired), Supdt. of Tarrapur Company's Tea Gardens, Cachar, Assam; Chairman, Ind. Tea Assoc., Cachar and Sylhet. Represented tea-planting community on Imp. Leg. Council, 1901-2, when legislation regulating supply of indentured coolie labour was under consideration. Was Member, Legislative Council of E. Bengal and Assam, President, Manipur State Durbar, 1917-18. *Address:* Bengal Club, Calcutta.

HERAS, HENRY, S.J., M.A., Professor of Indian History, Director of the Indian Historical Research Institute, St. Xavier's College, Bombay University; Professor of History and Ancient Indian Culture, University of Bombay; Corresponding Member of the Historical Records Commission for the Bombay Centre. Member of the International Committee of Historical Sciences. *b.* September 11, 1888. *Educ:* Barcelona (Spain), Cleveland, Ohio (U.S.A.). Professor of History, Sacred Heart College (Barcelona); Principal, Our Saviour's College, Saragossa (Spain). *Publications:* History of the Manchu Dynasty of China (In Spanish), 3 Vols. The Conquest of the Fort of Asirgarh by Emperor Akbar (according to an eye-witness) (in Ind. Ant.) The City of Jinji at the end of the 16th Century (*Ibid*), The Portuguese Fort of Barcalor (*Ibid*). The Prison of European Sadasiva Raya (*Ibid*). Venkatapatiraya I and the Portuguese (Journal of the Mythic Society) The Statues of the Nayaks of Mudura in the Pudu Mantapam (*Ibid*). Early Relations between Vijayanagara and Portugal (*Ibid*). Asoka's Dharma and Religion (*Ibid*); Historical Carving at Vijayanagara (*Ibid*) Goa; Viragal of the time of Harihara II of Vijayanagara (*Ibid*). The story of Akbar's Christian Wife (Journal of Indian History); The Palace of Akbar at Fatehpur-Sikri (*Ibid*); The Great Civil War of Vijayanagara, (1614-1617) (*Ibid*); Seven Days at Vijayanagara (*Ibid*). Rama Raya, Regent of Vijayanagara (Indian Historical Quarterly); The Last Defeat of Meherakula (*Ibid*); Relations between Guptas Kadambas and Vakatakas (Journal of the Bihar and Orissa Research Society); The Royal Patrons of the University of Nalanda (*Ibid*). Rama Deva Raya II, an Unknown Emperor of Vijayanagara (*Ibid*). The Portuguese Alliance with the Muhammadan Kingdoms of the Deccan (Journal, B.B.R.A.S); A Note on the Excavations at Nalanda and its History (*Ibid*); Three Mughal Paintings on Akbar's Religious Discussions (*Ibid*); Two Controversial Points in the Reign of Samudra Gupta (Annals of the Bhandarkar Institute). The Decay of the Portuguese Power in India (Journal of the Bombay Historical Society); Three Catholic Padres at the Court of Ali Adil Shah I (*Ibid*); A Historical Tour in search of Kadamba Documents (*Ibid*); A Newly Discovered Image of Buddha near Goa (*Ibid*); Pre-Portuguese Remains in Portuguese India (*Ibid*); Some Unknown Dealings between Bijapur and Goa. (Proceedings of the Indian Historical Records Commission). A treaty between Aurangzeb and the Portuguese (*Ibid*); Jehangir and the Portuguese (*Ibid*); The Expansion wars of Venkatapa Nayaka of Ikeri (*Ibid*); A Paper Sanad of Basavappa Nayaka of Ikeri (*Ibid*); Krishna Deva Raya's Conquest of Rachol (Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society of Great Britain and Ireland); Triparvata (Journal of the Karnatak Historical Society); A Realistic School of Indian Sculpture in the 16th Century (Journal of the Univ. of Bombay). The Writing of History; Notes on Historical Mathodology for Indian Students (Madras, 1926). The Aravidu Dynasty of Vijayanagara, Vol. I, 1542-1614 (Madras 1927): Beginnings of Vijayanagara History (Bombay, 1929); The Pallava Geneology (Bombay, 1931); The Conversion Policy of the Jesuits in India (Bombay, 1933). *Address:* St. Xavier's College, Bombay.

HIDAYATALLAH, THE HON. SIR GHULAM HUSSAIN, K.C.S.I. (1933). *b.* Jan. 1878. *Educ.:* Shikarpur High School, D. J. Sind Coll. and Govt. Law School, Bombay; Pleader: Member and elected Vice-Presdt., Hyderabad Municipality; Presdt., District Leg. Council, Local Board, Hyderabad, and Member, Bombay for past 14 years. Minister of Govt. in charge of Local Self-Government, 1921. Member of the Executive Council since June 1928—May 1934. *Address:* The Secretariat, Bombay.

HIGHET, J. C., AGENT, North-Western Railway, India; *b.* 1884. *Educ:* Ayr Academy and Blairlodge; Royal Indian Engineering College, Cooper's Hill. Appointed Asst. Engineer, P.W.D. (Railways Branch), India, 1905; posted to Eastern Bengal Railway and employed on construction of Golakganj Gauhati extension, afterwards becoming sub-divisional officer, Saidpur; services lent to Kashmir Government and subsequently posted to the British section of Kashmir Railway survey, *via* Abbottabad; transferred to Oudh and Rohilkhund Rly. in 1910 as Personal Assistant to Manager; in 1914 was placed on special duty to investigate re-alignments and other works in the vicinity of New Delhi; Asst. Secretary (Stores), Indian Railway Board, 1915; Asst. Secretary, War Branch, 1916; Controller, Railway Materials, 1917; Secretary to Indian Stores Purchase Committee, 1919; Asst. Agent, N. W. Railway, 1921; and Deputy Agent subsequently; Secretary, Indian Railway Board, 1926; Director of Establishment of the Board, 1928; officiated as Agent, N. W. Railway from May to October 1931; appointed Agent, April 1932. Elected member of Institution of Civil Engineers, 1910. *Address:* Lahore.

HOBBS, HOWARD FREDERICK, D.S.O., M.C., J.P., Staff Officer, B.B.& C.I. Railway *b.* 1 January 1880. *Educ.:* Entered East India Merchants business, Germany, 1900-1904; Manchester 1904-6. Joined Grandage & Co., Calcutta, 1907; Manager, Forbes Forbes Campbell & Co., Bombay; served European

War, France and Belgium, 1914-19 (Despatches; D.S.O.; M.C.). Joined Queen's Westminster Rifles, 1914; Commissioned Welch Regt. December1914; later commanded 13th Battn. same Regt. (Lieut.-Colonel). *Address:* Byculla Club, Bombay.

HOLLINS, SAMUEL THOMAS, C.I.E. (1931); Inspector-General of Police, U.P. *b.* October 6, 1881. *m.* Ethel, youngest *d.* of T. Sheffield, Esq., Montenotte, Cork, Irish Free State. *Educ.:* Queen's University, Cork. Joined Indian Police, 1902, as Asst. Supdt. of Police; served in various districts as Asstt. and as Supdt. of Police; Asst. to D.I.G., C.I.D. and Personal Assistant toI.G.; Seconded to Tonk State, Rajputana, as I.G. Police, 1915-18; Judicial Member, Tonk State, 1921-1925; D.I.G. I. Range U.P. 1928-1930; D.I.G., C.I.D., U.P. 1930-31; appointed Inspector-General of Police, April 1931. Degree of Honour, Urdu; High Proficiency Hindi, Police Medal 1918. *Publications:* Tonk State Police Reorganisation Scheme; Tonk State Police Manual; Tonk State Criminaland Civil Court Manual; the Criminal Tribes of the U.P. *Address:* Lucknow, U.P.

HOOPER, REV. WILLIAM, D.D.; Missionary, C.M.S.; Translator, Mussoorie, since 1892; *b.* 1837. *Educ.:* Cheltenham Preparatory School; Bath Grammar School; Wadham College, Oxford; Hebrew Exhibition; Sanskrit Scholarship; 1st class in Lit. Hum.; B.A., 1859; M.A., 1861; D.D., 1887. Went to India, C.M.S., 1861; Canon of Lucknow, 1906-1919; Vicar of Mount Albert, New Zealand, 1889-90. *Publications:* The Hindustani Language, Notes on the Bible and many smaller works in English, Hindi and Urdu. *Address:* Mussoorie, India.

HOWELL, SIR EVELYN BERKELEY, K.C.I.E., C.S.I., Foreign Secretary to Government of India. *b.* Calcutta 1877. *m.* 1912, Laetitia Cecilia. *Educ:* Charterhouse, Emmanuel College, Cambridge; entered I.C.S., 1900. Political Assistant, N.W.F.P. 1906; Deputy Commissioner, 1907; Dist. Judge, 1907; served Zekka Khel Expedition 1908; Dy. Commissioner, Kohat, 1910; H.M.S. Consul, Muscat, 1916, Dy. Commissioner, Basrah Wilayet, 1917, Military Governor, Baghdad, 1918; Revenue Commissioner, Mesopotamia, 1918-20; Deputy Foreign Secretary, 1922; Offig. Foreign Secretary, 1923-24 and 1926-27; Resident in Waziristan 1924-28; Resident in Kashmir, 1927-29; President of the Frontier Defence Committee under the Government of India, 1924. *Publications:* Contributions to the N.W.F.Provinces Gazetteer and various articles. *Address:* Government of India, New Delhi and Simla.

HUDSON, SIR LESLIE SEWELL, KT., Member, Legislative Assembly from Sept. 1932. *b.* 25 Nov. 1872. *Educ.:* Christ's Hospital. Joined P. & O. S. N. Company, London, 1889, and came to their Bombay Office, 1894; subseuently stationed at Japan, China and Australia, returning to Bombay, 1915. Joined Messrs. Mackinnon Mackenzie & Co., October 1916. Deputy Chairman, Bombay Chamber of Commerce, 1923-24; President, 1924-25, 1927-28; Member, Bombay Legislative Council, 1923-26, 1927-28; Member, Legislative Assembly, 1932, 1933, and 1934. *Address:* P. O. Box 122, Bombay.

HUFFAM, COLONEL WILLIAM TYERS CHRISTOPHER O.B.E., M.C., V.D., J.P., A.M. Inst. Mech. Engineer, Local Representative, India, Sir W.G. Armstrong, Whitworth and Co., Ltd., Managing Director, Craven Brothers (India) Ltd., *b.* 1880. Pupilship with Greenwood and Batley, Ltd. (Leeds) with Canadian Pacific Railway, 1904-1906, with Babcock and Wilcox, Ltd., Calcutta and Bombay, 1907-1914; served with 1st Bn., West Yorkshire Regt., 1914-1916; Commanded ditto 1916 (France); D.A.Q.M.G., XIVth Army Corps, France (1916); Ditto 46th (North Midland) Division, France, 1917; A.Q.M.G., XVth Army Corps, France, 1918; A. A. & Q. M. G. Tanks Corps, Army of Occupation, 1919; Brevet, O. B. E., M. C., Despatches (four times) 1914 Star, Croix de Guerre (Belge). Deputy Chief Controller, Government of India Surplus Stores, 1920-22. President, Society of Yorkshiremen in Bombay, 1929-30 and 1932; Honorary A. D. C. to the Viceroy; Hon. Presidency Magistrate. *Address:* Byculla Club, Bombay.

HUSAIN, SYED ABBAS, Principal Librarian of the State Library, Hyderabad. *b.* 1884, *Educ:* Nizam's College, Hyderabad Deccan, Delegate to the Oriental Conference at Calcutta 1922, Delegate to the All Indian Libraries Conference at Madras, 1923. *Publications:* A Supplemental Catalogue of the Arabic and Persian Manuscripts and Books in the State Library. *Address:* The State Library, Hyderabad, Deccan.

HUSSAIN, SIR AHMED, NAWAB AMIN JUNG BAHADUR, M.A., B.L., LL.D., C.S.I. (1911); Nawab (1917); K.C.I.E., (1922) Peshi Minister, *i.e.*, Minister-in-Waiting on H.E.H. the Nizam since 1915 and Chief Secretary to H.E.H.'s Government. *b.* 11 Aug. 1863. *m.* Fatima Lady Amin Jung, 1907. Has 6*s.* 3*d.* *Educ.:* Christian College and Presidency College, Madras, Governor's Scholar; High Court Vakil (1890), Advocate (1928), Deputy Collr. and Magistrate, 1890-92; Asstt. Secretary to the Nizam, 1893; Personal Secretary to Nizam, 1895; Chief Secretary to Nizam's Govt., 1905. *Publications:* "Notes on Islam", articles in Periodicals. *Address:* Amin Munzil, Saidabad, Hyderabad, Deccan.

HYDARI, SIR AKBAR, NAWAB HYDAR NAWAB JUNG BAHADUR, Finance Minister, Hyderabad. *b.* 8 Nov. 1869. *m.* Amena Najmuddin Tyabji (Kaisar-i-Hind Gold Medal). *Cr.* Knight (1928) *Educ.:* St. Xavier's College, Bombay; Joined Indian Finance Dept., 1888; Asstt. Acctt. General, U. P., 1890; Dy. Acctt. General, Bombay, 1897; Dy. Acctt. General, Madras, 1900; Examiner, Govt. Press Accounts, 1901; Comptroller, India Treasuries, 1903, C. P., 1904; lent as Acctt. General, Hyderabad State, 1905; Financial Secretary, 1907; Secretary to Government, Home Dept., (Judicial Police, Education, etc.),

1911; Ag. Director-General of Commerce and Industries, 1919; Accountant-General, Bombay, 1920; Finance and Railway Member, Hyderabad Executive Council, 1921; Official Director, Shahabad Cement Co., Ltd., 1922; Official Director, Singareni Collieries Co., Ltd., 1922; President, N. S. Railway Board, 1930 and Mining Boards, 1925: Chairman, Inter University Board, 1925; First President, Hyderabad Educational Conference in 1915. President, All-India Mahomedan Educational Conference, Calcutta (1917); delivered Punjab University Convocation Address, 1925. Fellow of the Bombay, Dacca, Aligarh Muslim and Hyderabad Usmania Universities and ex-Fellow, Madras University. Conceived and organised Osmania University, Hyderabad; organised State Archæological Department, especially interested in Ajanta Frescoes and Indian Paintings, also Urdu type. Head of Hyderabad Delegation to Round Table Conference. *Address:* Hyderabad, Deccan.

IMAM, SIR SYED ALI, K.C.I.E. (1914), C.S.I. (1911). *b.* Neora (Patna), 11 Feb. 1869. *s.* of Nawab Syed Imad Imam, Shamsululama; *m.* 1891; five *s.* four *d.* *m.* 1916 Mary Rose who *d.* 1916, *d.* of Alfred Saupin, of Chandranagore. Called to Bar, Middle Temple, 1890; Standing Counsel, Calcutta High Court; President, 1st Session of the All-India Moslem League held at Amritsar, 1908; Mem., Moslem League Depn. to England, 1909; Member of Governor's Legislative Council, Bengal, 1910; Fellow of Calcutta University, 1908-12; Law Member of Governor-General's Council, 1910-16; Puisne Judge of Patna High Court, 1917; Member, Executive Council of Bihar and Orissa, 1918; President, Executive Council of the Government of the Nizam of Hyderabad, 1919; First Indian Representative to sit at the first meeting of the League of Nations, Nov. 1920. *Address:* Marian Munzil, Patna also Bella Vista, Hyderabad (Deccan).

INDORE, MAHARAJA OF, H. H. MAHARAJADHIRAJA RAJ RAJESHWAR SAWAI SHRI TUKOJI RAO HOLKAR, BAHADUR. G.C.I.E., *b.* 26th November 1890. *Educ.*: Mayo Chiefs' College, Ajmere; Imperial Cadet Corps. Visited Europe, 1910; attended Coronation, 1911; again visited Europe, 1913 and 1921: abdicated 27th February 1926. Heir: Prince Yeshwantrao Holkar, *b.* 1908. *Address*: Indore, Central India.

ISHWARDAS LUKHMIDAS, J.P., Yarn Merchant; *b.* 1872. *Educ.*: St. Xavier's School. For many years connected with Messrs. David Sassoon & Co., Member of the Municipal Corporation; Member, Managing Committee of the Society of the Hon. Presidency Magistrates of Bombay and is on the directorate of several well-known companies including the Port Canning and Land Improvement Company, the Sassoon Spinning and Weaving Company, Ltd., the Sassoon and Alliance Silk Mill Co., Ltd., and the Union Mills; trustee of Sir Hurkisondas Narottam General Hospital; and Treasurer for Pechey Phipson Sanitarium for Women and Children; President of the Managing Council, Sir Harkisondas Narotamdas General Hospital, Member of the Managing Committee of the Lady Northcote Hindu Orphanage, and Member of the Board of David Sassoon Industrial and Reformatory Institute. President, Managing Committee of the Society of Hon. Presidency Magistrates of Bombay; Director, Bundi Portland Cement, Ltd., and Punjab Portland Cement, Ltd.; Member, Managing Committee, Goculdas Tejpal Hospital Nursing Association; Member, Managing Committee of the Helpless Beggars and Vice-President of his own community. Sheriff of Bombay, 1924. Member of the Auditors' Council and Hon. Treasurer of the Bombay Vigilance Association. Director, Lonavla, Khandala Electric Supply Co., Ltd., Director, Panvel Taluka Electric Co. Ltd. and Nasik-Deolali Electric Supply Co., Ltd. Member of the Managing Committee, H. E. the Governor's Hospital Fund. *Address:* Garden View, Hughes Road, Bombay.

ISAR, HASAN KHAN, THE HON'BLE KHAN BAHADUR, DABIRUL-MULK, SIR MAULVI MOHAMMAD, KT., C.I.E., *b.* Shahjahanpur, 1865. *m.* Lady Israr, daughter of Malak Mohammad Azmat-ullah-Khan, Rais of Shahjahanpur 1886. *Educ.*: Shahjahanpur and Bareilly Amirul-Umara, Home Member and President, Judicial Council, Bhopal, Retired 1927; Nominated Member, Council of State, 1931. *Address:* Jalikhothi, Shahjahanpur.

ISWAR SARAN, MUNSHI, B.A. (Allahabad), Advocate, Allahabad High Court, *b.* 26 Aug. 1874, *m.* Srimati Mukhrani Devi. *Educ.*: Church Mission High School and Jubilee High School, Gorakhpur, U. P. and Muir Central College, Allahabad, Member, first and third Legislative Assembly; was a member of the Court of Allahabad University, is a member of the Court of the Benares Hindu University; President, Kayastha-Pathshala, Allahabad, 1925-29; was Joint Secretary of Crosthwaite Girls' College, Allahabad; Hon. Secretary, MacDonnell Hindu Boarding House, Allahabad; Hon. Secretary, U. P. Industrial Conference, Political and Social Conferences, some time Member, All-India Congress Committee; President, U. P. Political and Social Conferences; Hon. Secretary, Reception Committee, Indian National Congress, 1910; Elected a member of the Court of Allahabad University for 3 years 1931; Elected member of the Executive Council of the Allahabad University, 1931. President of the Allahabad Swadeshi League and of the Allahabad servant of the Untouchables Society; went to Europe four times and delivered speeches and wrote in the press on India. *Address:* 6., Edmondstone Road, Allahabad, U. P.

IZZAT NISHAN, KHUDA BAKHASH KHAN TIWANA. Nawab, Malik; Dist. Judge, Dera Ghazi Khan. *b.* 1866 *Educ.*: Government High School, Shahp.; private training through Col. Corbyn, Deputy Commissioner. Appointed an Hon. Magistrate, 1881 Extra

Asst. Commsr., 1894; British Agent in Cabul, 1902-06. *Address:* Khwajabad, District Shahpore, Punjab.

JACKSON, GILBERT HOLINSHEAD BLOMFIELD, M.A. (Oxon)., I.C.S., Puisne Judge, Madras High Court. *b.* 26th Jan. 1875. *m.* to Mrs. Jackson. *Educ:* Marlborough College, Merton College. Indian Civil Service. *Address:* High Court, Madras.

JADHAV, BHASKARRAO VITHOJIRAO, M.A., LL.B., M.L.A. *b.* May 1867. *m.* Bhagirathibai, a lady from the Vichare family of Ratnagiri District. *Educ:* Wilson College, Elphinstone College, and Government Law School. Served in Kolhapur State and retired as Revenue Member of the State Council. Started the Maratha Educational Conference in 1907 and revived the Satya Shodhak movement in 1911, and has been in the Non-Brahmin movement in the Presidency from its inception. Represented the claims of the Maratha and allied Communities before the joint Parliamentary Committee in England in 1919 and secured seven reserved seats for them; was nominated member of the Legislative Council in 1922 and 1923 and represented Satara in the last two elections Minister of Education, 1924-26 and Minister of Agriculture, 1928-1930. Leader of the Non-Brahmin Party in the Bombay Presidency; President of the Satyashodhak Samaj, 1920-30. Elected Member, Legislative Assembly, to represent Central Division; Delegate to Round Table Conf., 1930-31; Associate Member of the Reorganisation Committee, Bombay. Chairman, Board of Directors of the Warden Insurance Co., Ahmedabad. *Address:* Shahupuri, Kolhapur.

JAFRI, DR. S. N. A., B.A., Bar-at-Law, M.R.A.S. (London); Gold Medalist and Life Member of the International Historical Society of France; Deputy Director of Public Information, Government of India, Home Department. *b.* 1887. Graduated with distinction from Allahabad University in 1906 A.D. Called to the Bar from the Hon'ble Society of Gray's Inn, London, in 1929. Sometime Research Scholar in Economics at the London School of Economics. LL.D. of Kansas, U.S.A. Specialised in the art of public speaking and in Indian Finance at London. Member of U.P. Civil Service. Worked as Census Officer in U.P. Was on special duty as Recruiting Officer during the War; Land Acquisition Officer; Survey Officer of Nazul buildings and Lands; Income-Tax Officer; Nazul Officer and Election Officer; Worked as Provincial Publicity Officer to U.P. Government. *Publications:* "History and Status of Landlords and tenants in the U.P." "An Introduction to the assessment of Income-Tax," etc. *Address:* Home Department, Government of India, Simla and New Delhi.

JAGATNARAYAN, PANDIT, Advocate, Chief Court of Oudh, and Vice-Chancellor of the Lucknow University. *b.* Dec. 1868. *m.* Srimati Kamalapati, *d.* of P. Sham Narayan Saheb Raina. *Educ:* Canning Coll., Lucknow; non-official Chairman, Lucknow Municipality; Chairman, Reception Committee, 31st Indian National Congress; Member, Hunter Committee; was Minister, U. P. Govt., for Local Self-Government and Public Health. *Address:* Golagani, Lucknow.

JAMES, FREDERICK ERNEST, M.A., O.B.E. (1918), Chevalier de l'ordre de Leopold (1920); *b.* 1891. *m.* Eleanor May Thackrah (1919). *Educ:* Leeds and London University. Army, 1914-15, Belgian Red Cross, Y.M.C.A., Abbeville Amiens Tank Corps, 1916-19; General Secry., Belgium and Occupied Germany, 1919-20; General Secretary, Calcutta, 1920; Member, Bengal Legis. Council, and Whip of European Group, 1924-28; visited Persia *re.* Welfare British Employees, A. P. O. C. 1924; President, Calcutta Rotary Club, 1925-26; visited Java *re.* establishment of Y.M.C.A. 1927; Political Secretary, U.P.A.S.I., 1929; Member, Madras Legis. Council; Councillor, Madras Corporation; Member, Senate Madras University; Madras Retrenchment Committee, 1931; Madras Franchise Committee and P. W. D. Reorganisation Committee, 1932; Member, Legislative Assembly. Hon. Commissioner for Rotary Clubs in India, Burma, Ceylon, Java, Straits and Siam. *Address:* Madras Club, Madras.

JAMES, MAJOR-GENERAL Sir, (WILLIAM) BERNARD, KT., 1925; C.B. (1918); C.I.E., (1912); M.V.O., (1911) *s.s.* of the Late William James 42nd Royal Highlanders, The Black Watch, and of Otterburn Tower, Northernberland. *b.* 8 Feb. 1865. *m.* Elizabeth Minto, *e. d.*, of late William Minto of Tingri Estate, Assam. two *s. Educ:* U. S. College and Sandhurst, 1st Commission in 1886, Derbyshire Regiment, 1888, 2nd Lancers Intelligence Branch War Office, 1900-01; South African War, 1902; various staff appointments in India; A. Q. M. G., Coronation Durbar, 1911; D. A. & Q. M. G. Corps, France, 1914-15; Brig.-General, General Staff, France, 1915-16; (Despatches) Brevet-Colonel. Temp. Q.M.G., India, 1916-17; Major-General, Administration, Southern Command, 1917-19. Commanding Bombay District, 1919-22; Director of Remounts, India, 1922-26. Founder and thrice President of the National Horse Breeding and Show Society of India, 1923 and Editor, "Horse Breeding." *Address:* C/o Messrs. Grindlay & Co. Ltd., Bombay.

JAMIAT RAI, DIWAN RAI BAHADUR, C.I.E, DIWAN BAHADUR, Kaisar-i-Hind Gold Medal. 1930. *b.* 1861, *m.* 1891. *Educ.:* Bhown, Kokat, and Gujarat Ent. Govt. Service, 1880, served in 1880, Political Office with Kuram F. F., 1880; accompanied Afghan Boundary Commission, 1885-1886; special duty boundary settlement of Laghari Barkhan, 1897; Asst. to the Superintendent of Gazetteers of Baluchistan, 1902-1907; services acknowledged by Govt. of India, on special duty in connection with revision of Establishments, 1910; Asst. to Supdt. of Census Operations, Baluchistan, 1910-11; Ex. Asst. Commsr., 1902; Settlement Officer, Baluchistan, 1912; Provincial Superintendent of Census for Baluchistan, 1920-22; Patron, Hindu Panchayat; Vice-President.

Dufferin Fund Committee; Member, Prov. Council Boy Scouts; and also Provision Ex. Committee Red Cross Society. Grammar School Committee. V. P. McMahon Museum Committee. One of the founders and patrons of Browne Gymkhana and of Sandeman Library and Vice-Chairman of Quetta Municipality. *Publications:* Quetta Municipal Manual; History of Freemasonry in Quetta; Reports on the settlement of Duki and Bakkhan; Notes on (1) Domiciled Hindus, (2) Hindus of Kandahar and Ghani, (3) Purbia menial castes and sweepers, (4) Afghan Pawindhas. (5) Achakzai Pathans, (6) Shinwar, (7) Shorarud valley and (8) Revenue rates and conditions (9) Nutts—a wandering tribe, (10) Kharan State, (11) Hindus of Dhadar, (12) Cottage Industries of Baluchistan (13) Administration of justice in rural areas of Baluchistan, (14) Notes on the study of the Brahui Language, (15) Manual (in Urdu) of Pushtu conversation. (16) Translation into English of Balochi Text Book; and (17) Translation into Urdu of Bengali Girih-dharan, (18) Manual of Customary Law for Baluchistan, *Address:* Quetta.

JAMMU AND KASHMIR, Col. H. H. THE SHREE MAHARAJA HARISINGHJI BAHADUR, INDAR MAHINDAR Sipar-i-Saltanat-i-Inglishia, G.C.S.I. (1933), G.C.I.E. (1929), K.C.I.E. (1918), K.C.V.O. (1922), Hony. A.D.C. to H.I.M. the King Emperor (1931); son of the late Gen. Raja Amar Singhji, K.C.S.I. Salute 21 guns; *b.* 1895; *s.* in 1925 his uncle Lt.-Genl. H. H. Shree Maharaja Pratapsinghji Bahadur, Sipar-i-Saltanat-i-Inglishia, G.C.S.I. G.C.I.E., G.B.E., LL.D. *Educ:* at Mayo College Ajmere and the Imperial Cadet Corps, Dehra Dun. *Heir Apparent:* Shree Yuvaraj Karansinghji, *b.* 9th March 1931 at Cannes (S. France). *Address:* Jammu Tawi and Srinagar-Kashmir.

JAMSHED NUSSERWANJI, Merchant. *b.* 7th January 1886. *Educ.* at Karachi. Member of Municipality, 1914; President of Municipality, 1922-33; Asst. Provincial Commissioner of Scouts in Sind; and Chairman, Buyers and Shippers Chamber; Member, Karachi Port Trust, Chairman, Sind Central Co-operative Bank, Ltd. *Publication:* Karachi Municipality as at present and its future, and Reconstruction of Civil Life. *Address:* Bonus Road, Karachi.

JANAKSINGH, MAJOR-GENERAL RAI BAHADUR, B.A., C.I.E., Bahadur. *b.* 1877. *Educ:* Joined Kashmir Service in 1901 serving in various capacities both in Civil and Military Deptts. In the Civil Branch as Naib Tehsildar, Tehsildar, Dist. Magte. and Sessions Judge and finally as Revenue Minister. In the Military Branch as Dy. Asst. Quarter-Master General, Brigade-Major, O. C. the 2/2 Kashmir Rifles and 3rd Kashmir Rifles. Got Afghan War Medal 2nd Class order of British India, 1919; Military Secretary to Commander's-in-Chief, Jammu and Kashmir State Forces, and Army and Revenue Minister, Jammu and Kashmir Government and now Army and Public Works Minister. Retired from State Service, May 1932. *Address:* P. O. Khera, *via* Palanpur.

JARMANI DASS, SIRDAR, O.B.E., Minister-in-Waiting and Household Minister, Kapurthala State. *b.* 4 September 1893, Sultanpur, Kapurthala State. *Educ:* at the Punjab, Oxford, and Sorbonne (France) Universities. Attended the League of Nations at Geneva, 1926, 1927 and 1929 as a Member of Indian Delegation; adviser to the Princes' Delegation at the first Round Table Conference in 1930 and a Delegate to the second Round Table Conference, 1931. Retired from Kapurthala State service in 1933; joined His Highness of Patiala's Government in 1933 in charge of portfolios for Forests and Agriculture. Holds First Class Order of Nishan-I-Ifitikhar of Kapurthala State. Legion d'Honneur (France), Star of Military Merit of Spain, Star of Merit of Cuba, Order of Sun and Lion (Persia); Order of the Nile (Egypt), Order of (Morocco); Order of Abyssinia and First Class Order of Chili and Order of Bhawalpur State. *Address:* Patiala.

JATKAR, BHIMRAO HANMANTRAO, B.A., LL.B., Pleader. *b.* 24 April 1880. *m.* to Annapurnaba Jatkar. *Educ.:* at Basim A. V. School, Amraoti High School, Fergusson College, Poona, and Govt. Law School, Bombay. Joined Yeotmal Bar in 1906; a Congressman working as one of the Joint Secretaries of the District Association, Yeotmal, since its inception in 1915; non-official elected Chairman, Yeotmal Municipality, since 1919; President of the Co-operative Central Bank Ltd., Yeotmal; Deputy President, Berar Co-operative Institute Ltd., and Vice-President, District Association, Yeotmal. *Address:* Yeotmal (Berar).

JAVLE, MORESHWAR CHINTAMAN, DR., J.P., and Hon. Presidency Magistrate since 1912. *b.* 12 Oct. 1880. *m.* Miss Mogre. *Educ:* Elphinstone and Aryan Education Society's High Schools; studied in Aryan Medical School of Bombay and was a casual student of Grant Medical College, Bombay. Private medical practitioner for over 30 years. Elected Councillor, Bombay Municipal Corporation from G Ward in 1910; re-elected at subsequent general elections; Chairman, Standing Committee of the Corporation 1922-23; Chairman, Schools Committee, 1922; Chairman, Medical Relief and Public Health Committee 1929-30; Chairman of the Improvements Committee, 1929-30; Mayor of Bombay, April 1933-1934. *Address:* Mayor Building, Opposite B. B. & C. I. Railway Station, Dadar, Bombay 14.

JAYAKAR, MUKUND RAMRAO, M.A., LL.B, Bar-at-Law, Member, Legislative Assembly. *Educ.:* at Bombay University. Started a charitable public school called Aryan Education Society's High School in Bombay, worked there four years; practised as a barrister in Bombay High Court; took to public life in 1916 and since 1921 completely in public life; elected to Bombay Legis. Council in 1923 by the Bombay University Constituency; and was leader of the Swaraj Party in Bombay Council until his resignation after the meeting of the Congress in 1925. Entered Legislative Assembly as a representative of Bombay City in 1926, continued a member thereof till 1930. Deputy

Leader of the Nationalist Party there from 1927 to 1930 March. Leader of the Opposition in 1930 Simla session, was a delegate to the Indian Round Table Conference in London and member of Federal Structure Committee. *Publications:* Edited a book on Vedanta Philosophy in 1924. *Address:* Winter Road, Malabar Hill, Bombay.

JAYANTI RAMAYYA PANTULU, B.A., B.L. *b.* Aug. 1861. *Educ.:* at Rajahmundry and Madras. Served in Rev. Deptt. in Madras Presidency and retd. as 1st Grade Depy. Collr., 1917; acted as Presidency Magistrate, Madras, for three years. Ex-Member, Legislative Assembly. *Publications:* A defence of literary Telugu and several articles on literature, history and archæology. Also Telugu translations of the Sanskrit drama *Uttararama-Charitam* and Amaruka Kaoyam. Editor of the Suryavaya Telugu Lexicon being published by the Telugu Academy. *Address:* Muktisvaram, East Godavari Dist.

JEELANI, KHAN SAHEB DR. HAJI SYED ABDUL KHADER SAHEB, Ex-Member, Legislative Assembly and retired Medical Officer and Superintendent of District Jail. *b.* July 1867; *m. d.* of Subadar Major Yacoob Khan Saheb Sirdar Bahadur. *Educ.:* at Saint Thomas Mount, Madras. Was Member, Cantonment Committee, for 14 years; member, district board for 12 years of which for 3 years was Vice-President: and Hon. Magte. for Madras for seven years. *Address:* Saint Thomas Mount, Madras.

JEFFERY, COLONEL WALTER HUGH, C.I.E. (1914); C.S.I. (1924); General Staff, Army Headquarters, *b.* 15 Dec. 1878. *m.* Cicely Charlotte Cowdell. *Educ.:* at Blundells, Tiverton and Plymouth College *Address:* Simla.

JEFFREYS, LIEUT.-GENERAL SIR GEORGE DARELL, K.C.B. (1932), K.C.V.O. (1924), C.M.G. (1916), J.P. (1906), D. L. (1920), G.O.C. in Chief, Southern Command, India. *b.* 8 March 1878. *m.* to Dorothy, *d.* of J. P. Heseltine of Walhampton, Hants, and widow of Lionel, Viscount Cantelupe (Viscountess Cantelupe). *Educ.:* Eton and R. M. C., Sandhurst. Served with Grenadier Guards in Nile Expedition, 1898 and in South African War, 1899-1902 and in Great War, 1914-18; Commandant, Guards Depot, 1911-14; Commanded 2nd Bn. Grenadier Guards, 1915; Commanded successively 58th, 57th and 1st Guards Brigades, 1916-17; Commanded 19th Division, 1917-19. Promoted Bt-Lieut. Colonel, 1915; Bt-Colonel, 1917; Major-General, 1919; C.M.G., 1916; C. B., 1918; also Commander, Legion of Honour and Croix de Guerre (France); Commander, Order of the Crown and Croix de Guerre, Belgium; Commander, Order of St. Stanislaus (Russia). Severely wounded; despatches 9 times. Commanded Light Division, Army of the Rhine, 1919; Commanded London District, 1920-24; Commanded Wessex area and Wessex Division, 1926-1930; Hampshire County Council, 1926-1932; Appointed G.O.C. in Chief Southern Command, India, March 1932. *Address:* Command House, Poona.

JEHANGIR, SIR COWASJI, 1st Baronet; nephew and adopted son of late Sir Cowasji Jehangir Readymoney, C.S.I. *b.* 8th June 1853. *m.* 1876, Dhunbai, *d.* of the late Ardeshir Hormusjee Wadia; one *s.* 2 *d.* *Educ.:* Proprietary School; Elphinstone College and University of Bombay. Banker, millowner and landed proprietor; J.P. Created Knight, 1895, created Baronet, 1908; well-known for his philanthropy. Delegate of the Parsee Matrimonial Court; and Trustee and member of the Parsees Panchayet. Appointed Sheriff of Bombay in 1919; has assumed the name of Cowasji Jehangir. *Address:* Readymoney House, Malabar Hill, Bombay.

JEHANGIR, COWASJI, SIR (Junior) M.A. (Cambridge), K.C.I.E. (1927), C.I.E. (1920), O.B.E., M.L.A. *b.* Feb. 1879; *m.* to Hirabai, Kaisar-i-Hind (Gold Medal) M.B.E. *d.* of M.H.A. Hormusji of Lowji Castle. *Educ.:* at St. Xavier's College, Bombay, and St. John's College, Cambridge. Member of the Bombay Corporation from 1904-1921; Chairman of the Standing Committee, 1914-15; Member of the Bombay Improvement Trust; President, Bombay Municipal Corporation, 1919-20; Honorary Secretary, War Loan Committee, 1917-1918; Member of the Legisative Council. Acting Member of the Executive Council, Government of Bombay, in charge of the Revenue Department (6th Dec. 1921-15th July 1922); Member of the Executive Council, General Department (23rd June 1923-23rd June 1928). Elected Member, Legislative Assembly for the City of Bombay, 1930, Delegate to the Round Table Conference, 1930, 1931 and 1932; Delegate, London Monetary and Economic Conference, 1933. Partner in the Firm of Messrs. Cowasjee Jehangir & Co., Ld. *Address:* Nepean Sea Road, Malabar Hill, Bombay.

JEYPORE, RAJAH OF, SRI SRI SRI VIKRAMA DEO VARMA, *s.* of late Maharaja Sri Sri Sri Krishnachandra Deo and late Sri Sri Sri Rekhadevi Mahadevi. *b.* 28 June 1869. *m.* Sri Sri Sri Heeradevi Pattamaharani of Patna State. *Educ.:* Privately. Succeeded to the gadi on 21 Feb. 1931; first landed zamindar in the Madras Presidency owning about 14,000 square miles. *Publications:* Author of several works in Sanskrit, Oriya and Telugu. *Address:* Fort, Jeypore, Vizagapatam District.

JHALA, RAJ RANA SHRI MANSINHJI SURATSINHJI, C.I.E. (1918); Dewan, Dhrangadhra State and some time Member, State Cabinet at Jaipur, Rajputana. *Educ.:* Dhrangadhra and Rajkot. Was first Guardian to H. H. Maharaja Saheb of Dhrangadhra when he was Heir-Apparent and accompanied him to England; was afterwards for a few years in Government service and left it as Dy. Superintendent of Police to join service in his parental State, where he was for a year Personal Assistant to H. H. Maharaja Saheb and then his Dewan. Member of the State Council, Jaipur, from Dec. 1922 to March 1923. *Address:* Lal Bungalow, Dhrangadhra.

JIND, H. H. FARZAND-I-DILBAND RASIKH-UL ITIKAD DAULAT-I-INGLISHIA, RAJA-I-RAJGAN

MAHARAJA SIR RANBIR SINGH RAJENDRA BAHADUR, COLONEL, G.C.I.E., K.C.S.I. *b.* 1879; *s.* 1887. *Address:* Sangrur, Jind State, Punjab.

JINNAH, MAHOMED ALI, Bar.-at-Law. *b.* 25th Dec. 1876. *m. d.* of Sir Dinshaw Petit. (*d*). *Educ.* Karachi and in England. Enrolled as Advocate, Bombay High Court, 1906; Pte. Secretary to Dadabhoy Naoroji, 1906; Member, Imperial Legis. Council, 1910; President, Muslim League (special session) 1920. Attended Round Table Conference, 1930. President, Muslim League, 1934. *Address:* Malabar Hill, Bombay.

JOHN, SIR EDWIN, KT. (1922), C.B.E., 1921, Kt. of the Order of St. Gregory the Great, (Civil Order) 1901. Grand Commander, St. Sylvester the Great (1920); Mafi Dar. *b.* 3 August 1856. *m.* 1879, Mary Sykes, Southport Lancs; one *d. Educ:* Stonyhurst *Address:* Gwalior, C.I.

JOHNSON, THE HON. JOHN NESBITT GORDON, C.I.E. (1928); I.C.S., Chief Commissioner, Delhi, *b.* 25 February 1885. *Educ:* Rossall School; and Queen's College, Oxford (Senior Scholar). Entered I.C.S. 1909; Under Secretary to Government, United Provinces 1915-16; Indian Army Reserve of Officers, attached 1/3 Gurkhas, 1918-19; Registrar, Allahabad High Court, 1919-24; Deputy Commissioner, Delhi, 1924; Offg. Deputy Secretary to the Government of India, Industries and Labour Department, 1925; again Deputy Commissioner, Delhi, 1925; officiated as Chief Commissioner, Delhi, March-September 1928, and April-October 1930; appointed Chief Commissioner, Delhi, March 1932. *Address:* Chief Commissioner's House, Delhi.

JOHNSTON, SIR FREDERICK WILLIAM, K.C.I.E., C.S.I., Agent to the Governor-General and Chief Commissioner in Baluchistan; *b.* 2 Nov. 1872. *m.* 1905 Gertrude Helen, *d.* of the late Lt.-Col. J. Young, one *s. Educ.:* Kelvinside Acad., Glasgow; Trinity Hall, Cambridge (B.A., 1894). Joined the Punjab Commission as Asst. Commsr., 1896; went to N.-W. Fron., 1899; and was employed there till end of 1911, Govt. of India, Finance Dept., 1911-15; Ministry, of Munitions, England, 1915-17. *Address:* The Residency, Bushire, Persian Gulf.

JONES, CHARLES EVAN WILLIAM, B.A., M.A. (Oxon.), Honours History (1902); Director of Public Instruction and Secretary to Govt., Education Department, Central Provinces. *b.* 9th July 1879. *Educ:* Landovery College and Brasenose College, Oxford. Government Educational Service, Egypt (1902-1904); Asst. Master, Bromsgrove School (1904-1906); Indian Educational Service, 1906; Director, Public Instruction, N. W. F. Province (1917-1921); and Director of Public Instruction, Central Provinces since 1921. *Address:* Nagpur.

JOSHI, SIR MOROPANT VISHVANATH, KT., K.C.I.E., B.A., LL.B., *b.* 1861. *Educ.:* Deccan Coll., Poona, and Elphinstone Coll., Bombay. Practised as Advocate in Judicial Commr.'s Court in Berar from 1884-1920. Home Member, C. P. Govt., 1920-25, President, All-India Liberal Federation 1925; Chairman, Age of Consent Committee, 1928-29; Advocate, Judicial Commissioner's Court, C. P. *Address:* Amraoti, Berar.

JOSHI, NARAYAN MALHAR, B.A., M.L.A., J. P. Member of the Servants of India Soc. *b.* June 1879. *Educ.:* Poona New English School and Deccan Coll. Taught in private schools and Govt. High Schools for 8 years. Joined Servants of India Soc., 1909. Sec., Bombay Social Service League, since 1911, and Sec., Bombay Presy. Social Reform Assoc., 1917-1929; Sec., W. India Nat. Liberal Assoc., 1919-1929. Was sent to Mesopotamia by Govt. of India as representative of the Indian Press, 1917, and in 1920 to Washington and in 1921, 1922, 1925 and in 1929 to Geneva as delegate of the working classes in India to International Labour Confce., Deputy Member of the Governing body of the I. L. O., since 1922. Kaisar-i-Hind Silver Medal (1919). Was awarded, but declined C. I. E. in 1921. Member of the Bombay Municipal Corpn. since 1919, up to end of March 1923. Nominated by Govt., a Member of the Legislative Assembly in 1921 and again in 1924, 1927 and 1931 to represent labour interests. Appointed a Member of the Royal Commission on Indian Labour as Labour representative. Attended Round Table Confce.; 1930, 1931 and 1932 and was for sometime member of the Consultative Committee. Attended the meetings of the Joint Parliamentary Committee as Indian delegate. *Address:* Servants of India Society, Sandhurst Road, Bombay 4.

KAJIJI, ABDEALI MAHOMEDALI. B.A., LL.B. (Cantab.), Bar.-at-Law; late Judge, High Court, Bombay. *b.* 12 February 1871. *Educ.:* St. Mary's Institution, Byculla; St. Xavier's Coll., Bombay, Downing Coll., Cambridge, and Lincoln's Inn. Ord. Fellow, Syndic and Dean in Law of Bombay Univ.; President, Anjuman-i-Islam, Bombay Islam Club and the Bombay Shareholders' Association and Vice-President, Islam Gymkhana. *Address:* Dilkoosh, Grant Road, Bombay.

KALE, VAMAN GOVIND. Professor, Fergusson College. *b.* 1876, *Educ.:* New English School and Fergusson Coll., Poona. Joined the Deccan Education Socy. of Poona, as a life member in 1907. Fellow of Bombay Univ. for five years since 1919. Prof. of History and Economics, Fergusson Coll., Member, Council of State, 1921-23, and member, Indian Tariff Board, 1923-25, Secretary, D. E. Society, Poona, from 1925 to 1928; Vice-President, Bombay Provincial Co-operative Institute. etc. Liberal in Politics, has addressed numerous public meetings; has published many articles on economics and political and social reform, and the following works: "Indian Industrial and Economic Problems," "Indian Administration," Indian Economics," "Dawn of Modern Finance in India," "Gokhale and Economic Reforms," "India's War Finance," "Currency Reform in India," "Constitutional Reforms in India,"

Economics of Protection in India," "Economics in India," "Problems of World Economy, "India's Finance since 1921," etc. *Address :* "Durgadhivasa," Poona No. 4.

KAMAT, BALKRISHNA SITARAM, B.A., Merchant. *b.* 21 March, 1871. *Educ.:* Deccan Coll. *m.* Miss Yamunabai R. M. Gawaskar of Cochin. Member, Bombay Legis. Council, 1913-16, 1916-20; Member, Legislative Assembly, 1921-23 (Liberal); Member, Kenya Deputation to England, 1923 ; Member of various educational bodies ; has taken part in work for social and agricultural reform, lately Member, Royal Commission on Indian Agriculture; Member, Provincial Banking Enquiry Committee ; Member, Bombay Leg. Council, 1930-33 ; Member, Bombay Retrenchment Committee. *Address :* Ganeshkhind Road, Poona, 5.

KAMBLI, SIDDAPPA TOTAPPA, B.A., LL.B., DIWAN BAHADUR, Minister of Education to Bombay Government. *b.* September 1882. *Educ:* at Deccan College. Practised as pleader from 1906 to 1930 in Dharwar Courts ; Non-Official President of Hubli Municipal Borough from 1922 to 1930; President, Dharwar Dist. Local Board in 1929 and 1930 ; Member of Bombay Council since 1921 ; Deputy President, Bombay Council, 1927-30 ; orgainsed first non-Brahmin Conference in Hubli in 1920 ; was member, Railway Advisory Committee, M. S. M. Railway, for about two years ; President over 1st Karnatak Unification Conce. held at Belgaum; President over Co-operative Conference held at Shiggaon in Dharwar Dist. in 1927 ; President, All-India Veerashaiva Conference at Bangalore in 1927. Was President, Dharwar Non-Brahmin League ; was Member, Lingayat Education Association, Dharwar, and Indian Women's Aid Society, Hubli. *Address:* 18, Queen's Garden, Poona.

KANDATHIL, MOST REV. MAR. AUGUSTINE, D.D., Archbishop, Metropolitan of Ernakulam. Was Titular Bishop of Arad and Co-adjutor with right of succession to the first Vicar Apostolic of Ernakulam, since 1911 ; *b.* Chemp, Vaikam, Travancore, 25 Aug. 1874. *Educ.:* Papal Seminary, Kandy, Ceylon. Priest, 1901. Parish Priest for some time ; Rector of Prep. Sem., Ernakulam, and Private Sec. to the first Vicar Apostolic of Ernakulam to end of 1911. Consecrated Bishop, December 3, 1911. *s.* Rt. Rev. Dr. A. Pareparambil as Second Vicar-Apostolic, 9 Decr. 1919; Installed on 18 Decr. 1919; was made Archbishop Metropolitan, 21st Dec. 1923 ; (Suffragan sees being Changanacherry, Trichur and Kottayam); Installation 16 Nov. 1924. *Address :* Archbishop's House, Ernakulam, Cochin State.

KANHAIYA LAL, THE HON. MR. JUSTICE RAI BAHADUR, M.A., LL.B., Judge, High Court, Allahabad, *b.* 17 July 1866. *m.* Shrimati Devi, *d.* of Vyas Gokuldasji of Agra. *Educ.:* The Muir Central College, Allahabad ; joined the U. P. Civil Service on 22 April 1891 as Munsiff, acted as Subordinate Judge in 1907 ; appointed Asst. Sessions Judge with the powers of Additional District Judge in Feb. 1908 ; acted as District and Sessions Judge in 1910 and again in 1911 ; appointed Additional Judicial Commissioner, Oudh, July 1912; acted as Judge of Allahabad High Court in 1920 and subsequent years for different periods. Promoted Judicial Commissioner of Oudh in 1922. Appointed Judge of Allahabad High Court again in 1923. Retired July 1926 ; Vice-President, Age of Consent Committee, 1928-29 ; Member, Hindu Religious Endowments Committee, 1928-30 ; Member. Board of Indian Medicine, U.P., since 1925 ; Honorary Treasurer, Allahabad University since 1927. *Publications :* Elementary History of India ; Dharma Shiksha or a treatise on Moral culture in the vernacular, and A Note on the Reorganisation of the Judicial Staff. *Address :* No. 9, Elgin Road, Allahabad.

KANIA, HARILAL JEKISONDAS, B.A., LL.B. (The Hon. Mr. Justice) Judge, High Court, Bombay. *b.* 3rd Nov. 1890. *m.* eldest *d.* of Sir Chunilal V. Mehta, K.C.I.E., ex-Member of the Executive Council of the Governor of Bombay. About eighteen years' practice at the Bombay Bar as an advocate on the original side of the High Court. Acting Judge, High Court, Bombay, 1930, 1931 and 1932. *Address :* 102, Ridge Road, Malabar Hill, Bombay.

KANIKA, RAJA OF, THE HON'BLE RAJA SIR RAJENDRA NARAYAN BHANJA DEO, Kt., (1933) ; O.B.E. (1918) ; Member and Vice-President of the Executive Council of the Governor of Bihar and Orissa. *b.* 24 March 1881. *m. d.* of late Raja Ladukishore Manhata, Ruling Chief of Nayagarh State, Orissa, in 1899. *Educ:* Ravenshaw Collegiate School and Ravenshaw College, Cuttack. Assumed management of Kanika Raj from Court of Wards, 1902 ; Nominated Member Bengal Advisory Fishery Board, 1908. Elected representative of the Landholders of Orissa and Chota Nagpur to the Bengal Legislative Council, 1909. Conferred with the personal title of Raja, 1910. Elected representative of Orissa landholders to Bihar and Orissa Legislative Council, 1912, and again from the same constituency in 1916. Elected additional Member to Viceroy and Governor-General of India's Legislative Council from Bihar and Orissa Landholders' Constituency, 1916. Co-opted Member as representative of Bihar and Orissa province to the Parliamentary Committee (Southborough) sat on the division of functions between the Central and Provincial Governments and between the Executive Council and Ministers in provincial Governments, 1918. Fellow of Patna University, 1917 to 1919. Title of Raja as hereditary distinction conferred in 1919. Elected Member of the Patna University Senate for 1919 to 1922. Elected Member from Orissa Landholders' Constituency to Bihar and Orissa Legislative Council, 1921. Elected Member from Bihar, Orissa and Chota Nagpur Landholders' Constituency to the Indian Legislative Assembly, 1922. Elected Member from Orissa Landholders' Constituency to Bihar and Orissa Legislative Council, 1923 and again from the same constituency, 1926. Nomina-

ted Member of the Patna University Senat- from 1927 to 1929. Member of the Come mittee elected by Bihar and Orissa Legislative Council to co-opt with the Simon Commission, 1928. Appointed Member of the Executive Council of the Governor of Bihar and Orissa, January 1929 and Vice-President of the said Executive Council, December 1931. Ex-officio Member of Patna University Senate, 1929 to 1932, and nominated Member since November 24, 1932. *Address:* Raj-Kanika, Cuttack, Orissa, and Patna and Ranchi, Bihar and Orissa.

KANITKAR, KESHAV RAMCHANDRA, M.A., B.Sc., *b.* 22 Aug. 1876. *Educ:* New English School at Wai and Poona and Fergusson College, Poona. Worked as Life Member and Professor of Physics in the D. E. Society's institutions, 1903-32; was in charge of the Boarding House, New English School in 1905: in charge of Fergusson Coll. Hostels, 1906-14; in charge of Navin Marathi Shala, 1914-21; has been on the Bombay University Senate for the last 17 years, was on the Syndicate 1921-29, and on the School Leaving Examination Board for 6 years and Chairman, Poona District School Board, for six years: represented western part of Poona on the Poona City Municipality for nearly 7 years and worked on the Visweshwaraya Technical Education Committee, 1920. Secretary, Physical Training Committee, appointed by the Government, 1928; Principal, Fergusson College, Poona, 1921-1929, with a short break in 1924; was given King's Commission in 1928 as a Senior Grade Officer in the Bombay University Training Corps. Working as a Life Member of the Modern Education Society. Prof. of Physics in the Nowrosji Wadia College, Poona. Elected Dean of the Faculty of Science, Univ. of Bombay, for 1933-34. *Address:* Ganesh Wadi, Ferguson College Road, Poona 4.

KARANDIKAR, RAGHUNATH PANDURANG, Advocate, also admitted original Side, High Court, Bombay, Professor, Law College, Poona, and Member, Council of State. *b.* 21 Aug. 1857 in Khadilkar family, adopted into Karandikars, 1865. *m.* Sakutai *d.* of Rao Saheb Gogte of Pandharpur (1872) *Educ.:* at Satara and Poona. Sub-Judge (1884); Member, Bhor Forest Committee (1885); Member elected Bombay Legislative Council, 1911; attended His Imperial Majesty's Coronation at Delhi, 1912; member of all Congresses and Committees, 1886-1929; opened first Indian Conference at Ilkley, Yorkshire, 1919; Member, elected (1925) Council of State: President, Satara Dist. Swaraj Party. President, 1st Maharashtra Lawyers' Conference, Poona, 1928; President, Prov. Postal and R. M. S. Conference Sessions, 1928. Chairman, Board of Directors, Western India Life Insurance Co., 1926-1932. Visited London in 1908 and in 1918 as the late Mr. Tilak's Legal adviser; also in 1929. Professor, Constitutional Law, Law College, Kolhapur. *Publication:* Note on Land Revenue Code and Note on Agricultural Associations in 1905. *Address:* Shanwar Peth, Satara City.

KARANJIA, BEHRAM NAOROSJI, Merchant *b.* Sept. 1876. *Educ.:* Elphinstone High School and Sir Jamshedji Jeejeebhoy Parsi Benevolent Institution of Bombay. Was President of Japan and Shanghai Silk Merchants' Association; was Hon. Secretary of the War Loan Committee for A Ward of Bombay; was Hon. Secretary, Our Day Fund; Hon. Secretary of "People's Fair" in 1921. Awarded Kaiser-i-Hind Medal and a Certificate of Merit in 1922. Is Chairman of Versova Beach Sanitary Committee. Gave evidence before the Cotton Tariff Committee; also gave evidence before the Tariff Board of Inquiry re: Gold Thread Industry and Central Banking Inquiry Committee. Is a Member of the Society for the Protection of Children in Western India; also a Trustee of various charitable institutions and has been the Director of some Joint Stock Companies. President, Indian Merchants' Chamber, 1933. *Address:* Messrs. Gobhai Karanjia, Limited, Bombay 2.

KARAULI, H. H. MAHARAJA DHIRAJ BHOM PAL DEO BAHADUR, YADUKUL CHANDRA BHAL. *b.* 18 June 1866. *s.* 21 August 1927. *Address:* Karauli, Rajputana.

KASHMIR, MAHARAJA OF, see Jammu and Kashmir, Maharaja of.

KASTURBHAI LALBHAI, SHETH, Mill-owner; *b.* 22 Dec. 1894. *m.* Srimati Sardaben, *d.* of Mr. Chimanlal Vadilal Zaveri of Ahmedabad. *Educ.:* at Gujerat College, Ahmedabad, Hon. Secretary, Ahmedabad Famine Relief Committee, 1918-19; elected Vice-President, Ahmedabad Millowners' Association, 1923-26; elected member, Legislative Assembly as a representative of the Millowners' Association (1923–26), Nominated as a delegate to the 12th International Labour Conference at Geneva, 1929. *Address:* Pankoro's Naka, Ahmedabad.

KAY, SIR JOSEPH ASPDEN, KT. (1927), J.P., Managing Director, W. H. Brady & Co., Ltd., Member, Council of Imperial Agricultural Research. *b.* 20th January 1884. *m.* 1928, Mildred, second *d.* of late J. S. and R. A. Burnett of Rowsley, Derbyshire. *Educ.* at Bolton, Lancashire. Came to India to present firm, 1907; Managing Director and Chairman of Board of the several companies under their control; Chairman, Bombay Millowners' Association, 1921 and 1922; Employers' Delegate to International Labour Conference, 1923; Officer in Bombay Light Horse; Vice-President, Chamber of Commerce, 1925; Vice-President, Indian Central Cotton Committee, 1925-26-31-32; President, Chamber of Commerce, 1926; Chairman, Back Bay Enquiry Committee, 1926. Chairman, Prohibition (Finance) Committee (Bombay), 1926. *Address:* Wilderness Cottage, Nepean Sea Road, Bombay.

KAZI SYED, HIFAZAT ALI, B.A., LL.B. *b.* 1892. *Educ.* Jubbulpore, Aligarh and Allahabad. Elected President, Municipal Committee, Khandwa, 1920. Minister for Local Self-Government, Public Works, Public Health, etc., Central Provinces. *Address:* Imlipora, Khandwa.

KEANE, SIR MICHAEL, K.C.S.I., 1932; C.S.I., 1929; C.I.E., Governor of Assam. *b.* 1874; *m.* 1911; one *s.* two *d. Educ:* University College. Dublin, Indian Civil Service, 1898; Under Secretary to Government, U.P., 1906-08; Settlement Officer, Rajputana, 1910-14; Secretary to Government, U. P., 1917-19; Chief Secretary, 1919-21; President, Legislative Council, United Provinces, 1921-25; Member, Public Service Commission, 1928; Commissioner, Meerut, and Member of the Legislative Assembly, 1929; Member, Board of Revenue, U.P., 1930-31; Governor of Assam, 1932. Recreation: Golf, tennis, fishing. *Address:* Government House, Shillong.

KELKAR, NARSINHA CHINTAMAN, B.A., LL.B. (1894); ex-M.L.A., Editor, *Kesari*, Poona. *b.* 24 Aug. 1872. *m.* Durgabai, *d.* of Moropant Pendse. *Educ.:* Miraj, Poona, Bombay Dist. Court Pleader till 1895; editor, *Mahratta*, Poona, from 1897 to 1919; editor, *Kesari* from 1897 to 1899 and again from 1910 to 1931; Municipal Councillor from 1898 to 1924; President, Poona City Municipality in 1918 and again from 1922 to 1924; President, Bombay Provincial Conference, 1920; Delegate and member of Congress. Home Rule League deputation to England in 1919; elected member of the Legislative Assembly in 1923 and 1926. *Publications:* Books in Marathi: 6 dramas, 1 historical treatise, 1 treatise on Wit and Humour, Biographies of Bal Gangadhar Tilak and Garibaldi, History of Ireland, A treatise on Science of Politics. In English; Case for Indian Home Rule, Landmarks of Lokmanya's life; "A Passing Phase of Politics." Pleasures and Privileges of the Pen." *Address:* Tilak Road, Sadashiv Peth, Poona City.

KELKER, VINAYEK MORESHWAR, Diwan Bahadur (1933), M.A., Treasurer, Nagpur University, 1931. *b.* 11 Oct. 1862. *m.* Mrs. Lakshmibai Kelker. *Educ.*; Burhanpur Zila School; Free Church Institution, Nagpur, Jubbulpore College; Muir Central College, Allahabad. Entered Government Service as Schoolmaster. Head Clerk, Clerk of Court, Extra Asst. Commissioner from 1889; retired as Dist. and Sessions Judge, Akola, December 1916. *Address*: Craddock Town, Nagpur.

KEYES, BRIGADIER-GENERAL SIR TERENCE HUMPHREY, K.C.I.E. (1933), C.S.I. (1926), C.M.G. (1919), C.I.E. (1917). *b.* 28 May 1877, *m.* Edith Beatrice (Kaisar-i-Hind Medal, First Class) *d.* of Lt.-General A. C. McMahon, R.S. *Educ:* Haileybury, Coll. and R.M.C. Entered Army 1897; Major 1915; Temp. Lieut.-Col. 1918; Bt. Lt.-Colonel 1918; Lt.-Colonel, 1923; granted honorary rank of Brigader-General on retirement from the Indian Army, May 1932; served Tirah 1897-98 (wounded, despatches, medal 2 clasps); on famine duty in Central Provinces, 1900; Vice-Consul, Seistan and Kain, 1903; Consul, Turbat-i-Haidari, 1906; served in Baluchistan, 1908; Pol. Agent, Bahrein, 1914; served in Mesopotamia, 1915; in charge Mekran Mission, 1916 (C.I.E.) attached to Russian Army in Rumania and Carpathians (1917); special duty in Russia, 1917-1918, Brig-General, General Staff, South Russia, 1919; Deputy High Commissioner and officiating High Commissioner, South Russia, 1919-1920; served in Baluchistan, 1921-28 (C.S.I.); British Envoy at the Court of Nepal, 1928; Resident in Gwalior, 1928-29; Agent to the Governor-General in States of Western India, 1929. Resident, Hyderabad, 1930; retired 1933; Guardian to H. H. The Maharaja Scindia of Gwalior; President, Indian National Horse Breeding Society; is Hon. Colonel, Golconda Lancers, F.R.G.S., and F.Z.S. *Address:* Gwalior, C. I.

KHAJA MOHAMAD NOOR, THE HON. KHAN BAHADUR, B.A., B.L., C.B.E., Puisne Judge, Patna High Court (1930); Vice-Chancellor, Patna University (1933). *b.* 1878. *m.* 1898. *Educ:* Gaya Zillah School, Patna College, Doveton Coll., St. Xavier's Colleges Calcutta; Ripon Coll., Calcutta. Practised as lawyer from 1904 to 1922. President, Legis. Council, Bihar and Orissa, from 1922-1930. *Address:* Patna and Gaya (Bihar and Orissa).

KHALIFA SHUJAUDDIN, M.A. (Punjab), B.A., LL.B. (Cambridge), LL.D. (Dublin); Barrister-at-Law (Lincoln's Inn). *b.* 27 Septr, 1887. *Educ.*: Central Model School, Lahore, Islamia and Government Colleges, Lahore, Jesus College and Fitzwilliam Hall, Cambridge, Trinity College, Dublin. Hon. Pr of of English Literature, Islamia Coll., Lahore, 1906-1908; Lecturer, University Law Coll., Lahore, 1917-1919; Member, Punjab Text Book Committee, 1919-1925; Fellow, Punjab Univ. since 1917; Member of the Syndicate of the Univ. since 1921; Member, Academic Council, since 1923; Hon. Secretary, Islamia College, Lahore; Hon. Secry., Punjab Muslim Educational Conference, Lahore, since 1922; Hon. Secretary, Punjab Muslim League, since 1919; Member of Council, All-India Muslim League; Member, Executive Board, All-India Muslim Conference; Municipal Commissioner, Lahore, 1927-1931. Preisdent, N. W. Railway Mnslim Employees' Association. *Address:* 5th Temple Road, Lahore.

KHAN, SHAFAAT AHMAD, B.A., First Class Honours in History, 1914; Litt. D., 1918; University Professor of Modern Indian History, Allhabad University, since 1921. *b.* February 1893. *m.* Fahmida, *y. d.* of the late Justice Shah Din, of the Punjab High Court, *Educ:* Government High School, Moradabad; Universities of Cambridge and Dublin. Member, United Provinces Legislative Council from Moradabad, U.P., 1924-30. Gave evidence before the Reforms Enquiry Committee, 1924; the Economic Enquiry Committee in 1925, and other Committees in United Provinces. President of the Provincial Muhammadan Educational Conference, held at Allahabad in 1925 and 1929; founder of the English weekly, the "*Star*," Allahabad; Muslim delegate to Round Table Conferences, 1930-32; Delegate to Joint Select Committee on Constitutional Reforms, 1933; President, All-India Muslim Conference, 1933; Honorary Secretary to Muslim Delegation to Round Table Conference; President, Calcutta Muslim Youth League, May 1931; President, All-Bengal Muslim Conference, Dacca, July 1931; President, Bengal Muslim Educational Con-

ference, 1930; President, Punjab Muslim Educational Conference, and Ajmer-Merwara Muslim Educational Conference, 1929. Member of Federal Struchere Sub-Committee, and numerous other Sub-Committees of the three Round Table Conferences and joint Select Committee; Member, Viceroy's Consultation Committee, R. T. C., 1932. *Publications:* Founder and Editor till 1925 of the Journal of Indian History; published Anglo-Portuguese Negotiations relating to Bombay, 1667—1763, in 1923; East India Trade in the seventeenth Century, 1924; Sources for the History of British India in the seventeenth Century, 1926. John Marshall in India 1668-1672; What are the Rights for Muslim Minority in India? (1928); Organiser and joint author of the Memorandum of the Muslims on United Provinces to the Indian Statutory Commission (July 1928). Contribution of numerous articles to historical journal and to the "*Star*," Allahabad. *Address:* 25, Stanley Road, Allahabad.

KHAPARDE, GANESH SHRIKRISHNA, B.A. (1877), LL.B. (1884). Advocate and Member of Council of State. *b.* 1955, *m.* Laxmi Bai. *Educ.*: in Berar and Bombay. Extra Asstt. Commissioner in Berar from 1885 to 1889; returned to the Bar, Vice-Chairman of the Local Municipality and Chairman of the District Board for nearly 17 years. Member of Viceroy's Legislative Council; Member of the Council of State; re-elected in 1925. *Address:* Amraoti, Berar, C. P.

KHOSLA, KANSHI RAM, Journalist, Managing Proprietor, Khosla Brothers; Managing Director, Khosla Newspapers, Ltd. Proprietors of the "Daily Herald", Lahore. *b.* April 1882. *Educ:* at F. C. College, Lahore. Joined Commercial Bank of India Ltd. as apprentice; Manager, Peoples Bank, 1904; Punjab Co-operative Bank, 1905. Started own firm of Khosla Bros., 1905; started Imperial Publishing Company, 1911 and Industrial and Exchange Bank in 1920 which went into liquidation in 1924 after the failure of the Alliance Bank of Simla; Member, Executive body of the Indian Chamber of Commerce; lately Member, N. R. Advisory Committee, Lahore, for 4 years. *Publications:* Khosla Directory from 1906-16 and 1925-28, "Imperial Coronation Durbar," "India and the War," "Who's Who in Indian Legislature and R. T. C."; "Indian States and Estates." *Address:* 99, Railway Road, Lahore.

KHWAJA NAZIMMUDDIN, THE HON. MR., M.A. (Cambridge), C.I.E., Minister for Education, Government of Bengal, from 1929. *b.* 19 July 1894. *m.* Shahar Banoo Begum. *Educ:* M. A. O. College, Aligarh; Dunstable Grammar School, England; and Trinity Hall, Cambridge. Chairman, Dacca Municipality, from 1922-29; Member, Executive Council, Dacca University, 1923-29. *Address:* 25-1, Ballygunge Circular Road, Calcutta.

KIBE, MADHAVRAO VINAYAK, Sardar (hereditary), Rao Bahadur (1912), Divan-i-Khas Bahadur (1920), M.A. (1901); Aitmod-ud-Dowla (1930); Vazir-ud-dowla, Retired Deputy Prime Minister, Holkar State, Indore. *b.* 1877. *m.* Kamalabai Kibe. *Educ:* Daly College, Indore; Muir Central College, Allahabad. Hon. Attached to Agent to the Governor-General in Central India; Minister, Dewas State (J.B.). *Publications:* articles in well-known magazines in Hindi, Marathi and English on Economics, History and Antiquities. *Address:* Saraswatiniketan Camp, Indore, Central India.

KIKABHAI PREMCHAND, SIR, KT. (1931); Financier; April 1, 1883. *m.* Lady Lily *Educ.*: at Bombay. Member, Legislative Assembly from January 1927 to September 1930; Member of the Indian Central Committee which co-operated with the Indian Statutory Committee. Sheriff of Bombay for 1932. *Address:* Premodyan, Byculla; or 63, Apollo Street, Bombay.

KIRPALANI, HIRANAND KHUSHIRAM, I.C.S. M. A. (Bom.), B.A. (Oxon.), Bar-at-Law (Lincoln's Inn), Municipal Commissioner City of Bombay 1931-1934. *b.* 28 Jan. 1888. *m.* to Guli H. Gidvani. *Educ.*: N. H. Academy, Hyderabad (Sind), D. J. Sind College, Karachi and Merton Coll., Oxford. Asstt. Collr. and Magte., Ahmedabad, Broach and Surat, 1912-1918. Municipal Commsr., Surat, 1918 to 1920. Taluqdari Settlement Officer, Guzerat, 1921. Dy. Municipal Commissioner, Bombay, 1921; Collr. and Dist. Magte., Kaira, 1923-24; Dy. Secretary to Government, Rev. Deptt., 1924-26, Ag. Municipal Commissioner for the City of Bombay, 1926. Collector of Kolaba, 1928, Deputy Secretary, Indian Central Committee, 1929. Collector of Panch Mahals and Political Agent, Rewa Kantha, 1930-31. *Address:* Carmichael Road, Bombay.

KISHENGARH, H. H. UMDAI RAJBAI BULAND MAKAN MAHARAJA ADHIRAJ MAHARAJA YAGYANARAIN SINGH BAHADUR. *b.* Jan. 1896. *m.* sister of the Raja Bahadur of Maksoodangarh. *Educ:* Mayo College, Ajmer, where he passed the Diploma Examination *Address:* Kishengarh, Rajputana.

KISHUN PERSHAD, RAJA-I-RAJAYAN MAHARAJA BAHADUR, YAMINUS-SALTANATH SIR, G.C.I.E. (1910), K.C.I.E., *cr.* 1903. Hereditary Paishkar and President of the State Executive Council, Hyderabad State. *b.* 28 Jan. 1864. *Educ:* Nizam's College, Paishkar and Military Minister, 1893-1901, Prime Minister, 1901-1912. President of Executive Council since Nov. 1926 under the present constitution. *Publications:* Copious in Urdu and Persian prose and poetry. Descended from the great Hyderabad Statesman Maharaja Chandoo Lal 4*s.* Heir: Raja Khaja Pershad. *Address:* City Palace, Hyderabad.

KOLHAPUR, LT.-COL. HIS HIGHNESS SIR SHRI RAJARAM CHHATRAPATI, MAHARAJA OF, since 1922, G.C.S.I. (1931); G.C.I.E. (1924). *b.* 30 July 1897; *e.s.* of Col. Sir Shahu Chhatrapati Maharaja of Kolhapur (d. 1922); direct descendant of Shivaji the Great, the Founder of the Maratha Empire.

m. 1918 H. H. Shrimati Tarabai Saheb, *g. d.* of H. H. Sir Sayajirao Maharaj Gaekwar, Ruler of Baroda. *m.* again to Her Highness Shri Vijayamala Maharani Saheb in June 1925. *Educ.:* Privately in Kolhapur; Hendon School; studied agriculture at Ewing Christian College, Allahabad. Hon. Lieut.-Colonel in the Indian Army, April 1927. *Address:* Kolhapur.

KOLLENGODE, RAJA SIR V. VASUDEVA RAJA VALIA NAMBIDI OF, Kt. (1925), C.I.E. (1915) F.M.U. (1921); Landholder. *b.* Oct. 1873. *m.* to C. Kalyani Amma, *d.* of Mr. K. Rama Menon, Chief Justice of Travancore. *Educ.:* Rajah's High School, Kollengode, and Victoria College, Palghat, Senior member and manager of the aristocratic family of Venganad in Malabar, twice nominated as member of Madras Legislative Council, afterwards elected Member, Madras Legislative Council, representing landholders; Member, Council of State (1922). Temp. Member, Madras Executive Council, from Nov. 1923 to April 1924. Elected Member of the Legislative Assembly representing Landholders of the Madras Presidency from Sept. 1930 and Leader and President, Landholders' Group in Legislative Assembly; also elected member of the Governing body of the Red Cross Society, Delhi, also Member of the Anuamalai University since 1929. *Address:* Kollengode, Malabar Dist.

KOTAH, H. H. LIEUT.-COLONEL, MAHI MAHENDRA MAHARAO SIR UMED SINGHJI BAHADUR, MAHARAO OF, G.C.S.I., G.C.I.E., G.B.E., *b.* 1873. *s.* 1889. *Address:* Kotah, Rajputana.

KOTHAVALA, PHEROZE DHANJISHAH, B.A., LL.B., Dewan, Rajpipla State. *b.* 19 April 1886. *m.* Tehmi, *d.* of late Mr. K. R. Kama of Ootacamund. *Educ.:* Rajpipla High School; Elphinstone College, Bombay, and Government Law College, Bombay. Practised on the Appellate Side, Bombay High Court from 1912 to 1915. Appointed Private Secretary to H. H. the Maharaja of Rajpipla, 1916; Naib Dewan, Rajpipla, 1927; Dewan, Nov. 1930. *Address:* Rajpipla (Rewa Kantha Agency).

KOTLA, HON'BLE RAJA BAHADUR KUSHAL PAL SINGH OF, M.A. (Cal.); LL.B. (All.), M.L.C., Minister for Education and Industries, U. P. Government. *b.* 15 Dec. 1872. Succeeded to Kotla estate, 1905; Member, U. P. Legis. Council since 1909; Member, Imperial Legis. Council, 1913-16; Member, Legis. Assembly, 1921-23; Special Magte. Chairman, Agra Dist. Board; Trustee and Mem. of Managing Committee of Agra Coll.; Member of Governing Body of Cawnpore Agricultural College; Member of the Senate of Agra University. *Address:* Naini Tal, Lucknow.

KRISHNAMACHARIAR, RAJA BAHADUR G., B.A., B.L., Dewan Bahadur (1918); Raja Bahadur (1925); Retired President to H. E. H. the Nizam's Judicial Committee, Landholder and Advocate, Madras and Hyderabad High Courts, and Member, Legislative Assembly. *Educ.:* Trichinopoly and Madras. Enrolled as Vakil, Madras High Court, March 1890; practised as Vakil in Hyderabad and Secunderabad till 1913; appointed Advocate-General, then Secretary to Government, Legislative Dept., Legal Adviser to H. E. H. the Nizam's Government and President, Judicial Committee in 1913; was the joint author along with the late Hormuzjee and Sir Ali Imam of the Constitution of Hyderabad under which the Government is at present working retired in 1924. *Address:* Hyderabad House, Srirangam. Osmania Royal Avenue, Hyderabad, Deccan.

KRISHNAMACHARYA, RAO BAHADUR SIR VANGAL THIRUVENKATA, Kt. (1933) B. A., B.L., C.I.E. (1926), Dewan of Baroda. *b.* 1881. *m.* Sri Rangammal. *Educ:* Presidency Coll., Madras and Law Coll., Madras. Entered Madras Civil Service by a competitive examination in 1903; served in several districts; 1908-1911, Chief Revenue Officer, Cochin State; also Offg. Dewan for some time; 1913-1919 served in Madras as Asstt. Secry., Board of Revenue, Under-Secretary to Government Special Officer for Southborough Committee, etc.; 1919-1922 Trustee, Vizianagaram Estate; 1923, Collector of Ramnad; April 1924 to Feb. 1927 Secretary to the Government of Madras in Law, Education and other Departments. Joined as Dewan of Baroda, February 1927, services being lent to the Baroda Government; acted as a delegate to the First Indian Round Table Conference in London; Member of the Sub-Committee No. II (Provincial Constitution) of Conference; also a member of the Sub-Committee No. VIII (Services); acted as a delegate to the Second Indian Round Table Conference in London; Member of the Federal Structure Committee and of the Federal Finance Sub-Committee. Acted as a delegate to the Third Round Table Conference; member of the Federal Finance Sub Committee of the third R.T.C.; attended as a delegate to the Joint Parliamentary Committee; Member of the Reserve Bank Committee. *Address:* Dilaram, Baroda, India.

KRISHNASWAMI AIYANGAR, SAKKOTTAI, M.A. (Madras, 1899); M.R.A.S. (190 F.R. Inst. S. (1904); Hon. Ph.D., Calcutta University (1921); Rao Bahadur (1928); F.A.S.B. (1931).; Title "Rajasevasakta" conferred by H. H. the Maharaja of Mysore (1932); Editor, Journal of India History. *b.* 15 April 1871. *Educ:* St. Joseph's College, Bungalore, and Central College, Bangalore. Emeritus Professor, Madras and Mysore Universities. Fellow of the Madras University, 1912. Fellow of the Mysore University, 1919. Professor, Central College, Bangalore; Professor of Indian History and Archaeology, University of Madras, since November 1914. Founder and Hony. Vice-President, Mythic Society, Bangalore; Branch Secretary, Joint Secretary, and Editor of the Journal, 1908-1916; Secretary and Editor, Journal, South Indian Association, Madras, 1917-18; Secretary of the Madras Economic Association, 1915-19; Joint Editor, Indian Antiquary, 1923; President, Faculty of Arts, Madras University; Chairman, Boards of Studies in History and Dravidian Languages, Madras University,

Member of the Board of Examiners, Madras University 1905-20; Examiner for M.A., Ph.D., and Premchand Roychand Studentship, Calcutta University; Reader, Calcutta University, 1919. Examiner for Allahabad, Aligarh, Benares and Mysore Universities. Elected Hony. Correspondent of the Archaeological Survey of India, 1921; General Secretary, Indian Oriental Conference, 1926-1933; Member, Indian Historical Records Commission, 1930; President, Bombay Historical Congress, 1931, *Publications*, Ancient India; A Little Known Chapter of Vijayanagar History; Beginnings of South Indian History; Early History of Vaishnavism, South India and Her Muhammadan Invaders; Some Contributions of South India to Indian Culture; History of India from Original Sources; A Short Hisotry of Hindu India; Manimekhalai in its Historical Setting; and Evolution of Administrative Institutions in South India. *Address*: "Sripadam", 143, Brodies Road, Mylapore, Madras. (*s*)

KRISHNASWAMI AIYAR, SIR ALLADI, Kt. (1932); Advocate-General, Madras. *b.* May 1883. *m.* Venkalakshamma. *Educ.*: Madras Christian College, Law College, Madras. Apprentice-at-law under the late Justice P. R. Sundaram Iyer; standing counsel to most of the big Rajas and Zamindars of the Madras Presidency; appointed Advocate-General in 1929; Member of the Legislative Council; awarded Kaiser-i-Hind Silver Medal in recognition of his philanthropic work, 1926; Dewan Bahadur in 1930; Knighted 1932; was member of the Syndicate of the Madras University for several years; Member of the Senate of the Madras University; takes interest in all public, social and religious movements; has subscribed large amounts to charitable institutions; has endowed large sums of money in the Madras, Andhra and Annamalai universities; helped several poor students; member of the Cosmopolitan Club, Madras; delivered the Convocation address of the Andhra University in 1930; member of the Expert Committees appointed by the Government of India to amend the Law relating to Partnership and the law relating to the sale of goods. *Address:* Ekamra Nivas, Luz Church Road, Mylapore, Madras.

KUTCH, H. H. MAHARAJA (MAHARAO) DHIRAJ MIRZAN MAHARAO SHRI KHENGARJI SAWAI BAHADUR OF, G.C.S.I., G.C.I.E. *b.* 23rd August 1866. *m.* 1884. Represented India Imperial Conference, 1921; received Freedom City of London, 1921. Undertook to give £3,000 monthly for support of Indian Regiment during European War, 1915; represented India, League of Nations, 1921; received Freedom of the City of Bath, 1921. *Address*: The Palace, Bhuj, Kutch.

LAKHMIDAS ROWJEE TAIRSEE, B.A., Landlord and Merchant. *m.* Ladkabai L. R. Tairsee. *Educ.*: St. Xavier's College Bombay. Member, Bombay Municipal Corporation; Member, Standing Committee, Bombay Municipality; representative of the Indian Merchants' Chamber on the Board of the Bombay Port Trust, and President, P. J. Hindu Gymkhana and President, Bhatia Mitra Mandal. *Publications*: "Frenzied Finance." Speeches and Writings of B. G. Horniman. "Priests, Parasites and Plagues." *Address*: 29-31-33, Bora Bazar Street, Fort, and 259, Walkeshwar Road, Malabar Hill, Bombay, and Panchvati, Nasik City.

LAKHTAR, CHIEF OF, THAKORE SAHEB BALVIRSINHJI KARANSINGHJI, *b.* 11 Jan. 1881. Succeeded father 8 Aug. 1924. *Address*: Lakhtar, Kathiawar Agency, Bombay.

LAKSHMI NARAYAN LAL, RAI SAHIB, son of Munshi Dyal Narayan Lal, Pleader and Zemindar. *b.* 1870. *m.* to Srimati Navarani Kunwer. *Educ.* at Aurangabad, Gaya and Patna. Passed pleadership examination in 1890 and since practising as a pleader at Aurangabad and Gava. ex-Hon. Organiser of Co-operative Societies; ex-Director and Chairman of the Central Bank, Aurangabad; Chairman, Advisory Committee, Central Bank, Aurangabad; ex-Chairman of the Divisional Co-operative Federation, Patna; ex-Councillor of the Co-operative Federation, Bihar and Orissa; a nominated member of the first Legislative Assembly, and Member, National Convention; ex-Vice-President, Provincial Hindu Sabha, Bihar and Orissa and ex-President, Propaganda Committee Kayestha Sabha, Bihar and Orissa. *Publications*: Glories of Indian Medicine, Sahyog, Samudrajatra, Twelve Main Points of Co-operation, Updesh Manjari and Charkha Mahatmya Hindu-Musalman Ekta, Sri Gitaratnawali, Sri Gandhi Gita and Artodhar Arti. *Address*: Aurangabad, Dist. Gaya, Bihar and Orissa.

LAL, PIYARE, Bar-at-Law, Member, Legislative Assembly. *b.* Jan. 1860. *Educ.*: Muir Central College, Allahabad. Called to the Bar in 1886; Law-Professor, Meerut College, 1894-96, practised up to 1896; was Minister of Sailana State, 1896-1900; Chief Justice and latterly Judicial Member, Council of State, Indore, from 1900 to 1906; travelled round the world in 1913. Chairman, Reception Committee of the U. P. Political Conference, 1914; Special Magistrate, First Class, from 1915-1926; President, Cantonments Conference, 1923, at Rawalpindi. *Address*: Meerut.

LALA RAM SARN DAS, THE HON. RAI BAHADUR, C.I.E., Kaisar-i-Hind Gold Medal (1914), Member, Council of State; Millowner, Landlord, Zemindar and Contractor. *b.* 30 Nov. 1876. *Educ.*: Government College, Lahore. Was Member, Punjab, Legislative Council; Member elected of the Council of State since its inception representing Punjab Non-Mahomedan constituency and one of its chairmen; President, Sanatan Dharma College, Managing Committee; President, Sanatan Dharm Pratinidhi Sabha, Punjab; Chairman, Central Bank of India Ltd. Advisory Committee for Punjab Branches; Vice-President, Northern India Chamber of Commerce, President, Northern India Chamber of Commerce; Director, Trans-Continental Airways Ltd., British India Corporation, Cawnpore; Delegate to the Committee on Reserve Bank of India held in London 1933. *Address*: 1, Egerton Road, Lahore.

LALKAKA, JEHANGIR ARDESHIR, Dy. Director of Sir J.J. School of Art, Bombay, since 1931. *b.* 3 March 1884. Grandson of Khan Bahadur Sir Nowrojee Pestonji, Vakil, C.I.E., of Ahmedabad. *m.* Miss Tehmi Jamsetji Kharas of Bandra. *Educ*: Ahmedabad High School; Elphinstone Coll., Bombay; Sir J. J. School of Art, Bombay and St. John's Wood and Westminster Schools of Art, London. Painted life size memorial portrait of Sir Pherozeshah M. Mehta for Municipal Corpn., Bombay, unveiled by H. E. Sir George Lloyd; Sir D. E. Wacha's portrait in the Bombay Univ., Dr. Dadabhoy Nowroji's portrait and Principal A. L. Covernton's portrait for Elphinstone Coll., Sir Nowrojee Pestonjee Vakil's portrait for Nowrojee Hall, Ahmedabad; and H.H. the Nawab of Rampur's life size portrait for Durbar Hall, Rampur. H.E. Sir Leslie Wilson's portrait as District Grand Master for the Masonic Hall, Bombay; Member of the Government of Bombay Board of Examiners for Art Examinations, 1917-1933. Chosen by the Govt. of India to copy Royal portraits in England, 1930, for the Viceroy's House, New Delhi. Appointed by Government of Bombay Dy. Director, Sir J. J. School of Art, Bombay, 1931. *Address:* School of Art Bungalow, Bombay.

LALUBHAI SAMALDAS, SIR, KT. (1926), J.P., C.I.E.(1914). *b.* October 1863. *m.* Satyavati, *d.* of Bhimrao Bolanath Divatia of Ahmedabad. *Educ.*: Bhavnagar High School and Elphinstone College. Under-Secretary to His Highness the Maharaja of Bhavnagar, and Revenue Commissioner, Bhavnagar. Resigned service in 1899 and entered business at Bombay as Guaranteed Broker to Gysi Klynanjung. Helped in starting the Bombay Central Co-operative Bank, Bank of Baroda, Indian Cement Company, Scindia Steam Navigation Company, Ltd. Director in Commercial firms and banks. Nominated to the Bombay Legislative Council in 1910, 1913 and 1916. President of the All-India Industrial Conference at Karachi in 1913; Member, Maclagan Committee on Co-operation 1914-1915; President, Mysore Co-operative Conference 1915; Chairman, Mysore Co-operative Committee, 1921-23; Member, Senate of Bombay University, Hon. Treasurer, Adams Wylie Hospital, 1918-22 and of Seva Sadan; President, Indian Merchants' Chamber and Bureau, 1917-18; Elected to Council of State, 1920; Member, Indian Mercantile Marine Committee, 1923-24; President, Indian Economic Conference at Benares, 1925. Ag. Member, Bombay Executive Council, 1925. President of Madras, Bihar and Orissa and United Provinces Co-operative Conference in 1926, 1928 and 1929; President, Bombay Swadeshi League, 1932-33. *Address:* Andheri, *via* B. B. & C. I. Railway.

LAMBERT, HENRY, M.A. (Cantab.); Principal, Patna College. *b.* 22 Feb. 1881. *m.* Violet Crawford, *d.* of Lt. Col. D.G. Crawford, I.M.S. (retired). *Educ*: Perse School; Trinity Coll., Cambridge. Asst. Master, Felsted School, for nearly three years; Indian Educational Service; Inspector of Schools in Bengal, Bihar and Orissa; Principal, Ravenshaw Coll., Cuttack; Principal, Patna Coll. Offg. D. P. I. Bihar and Orissa. *Address:* Patna, E. I. Railway.

LAMOND, WILLIAM, Managing Governor, Imperial Bank of India. *b.* 21 July 1887. *m.* Ethel Speechly. *Educ:* Harris Academy, Dundee. Four years with Royal Bank of Scotland; joined Bank of Bombay in December 1907. *Address:* 3, Theatre Road, Calcutta.

LANGLEY, GEORGE HARRY, M.A., Vice-Chancellor, Dacca University, since January 1, 1926; *b.* 14 July 1881; *s.* of Leveson and Matilda Emma Langley; *m.* 1913, Evelin Mary Biggart, Armagh. *Educ*: The University, Reading; Scholar in Logic and Psychology, London University, 1906, M.A. in Philosophy with special mark of distinction. University of London 1909; Indian Educational Service, 1913; Professor, Presidency College, Calcutta, 1913; Professor of Philosophy, Dacca College, 1913; Professor of Philosophy and Provost of Dacca Hall University of Dacca, 1921-25; Acting Vice-Chancellor, Dacca University, July to September 1925. President, Indian Philosophical Congress, 9131; Chairman, Intermediate University Board, 1933-34. *Publications:* Articles in Mind; Proceedings of Aristotelian Society; Hibbert Journal; Philosophy: Monist; Quest: Dacca University Bulletin; Indian Philosophical Review; Indian Journal of Philosophy, etc. *Address:* Ramna, Dacca, E. Bengal.

LATIMER, COURTENAY, B.A. (Oxon), C.I.E. (1920); C.S.I. (1931); Agent to the Governor-General in the States of Western India. *b.* September 22, 1880. *m.* Isabel Primrose, *d.* of late Sir Robert Aikman. *Educ*: St. Paul's School and Christ Church, Oxford. Entered I.C.S. 1904; joined Political Dept. 1908; Revenue Commissioner, N. W. F. P., 1929; Resident in Kashmir 1931. A.G.G. in the States of Western India 1932. *Publications:* Census of India 1911. Vol. XIII North-West Frontier Province. *Address:* Rajkot. Kathiawar.

LATÍFÍ, ALMÁ, C.I.E. 1932; O.B.E., 1919; M.A., LL.M. Cantab; LL.D. Dublin; Barr.; I.C.S.; *b.* 12 Nov. 1879; *e.s.* of late C. A. Latif, Bombay; *m.* Nasíma, *d.* of late Justice Badruddin Tyabji, Bombay; two *s.* two *d.* *Educ:* St. Xavier's school and Coll., Bombay, passing first in Inter. examination Bombay University 1897, also London, Paris, Heidelberg, Cairo; joined 1898, St. John's Coll. Cambridge (scholar and Macmahon Law student); 1st Class Honours in 1st year examination for Oriental Langs Tripos and in both parts of Law Tripos; 2nd cl. Honours in modern Langs. Tripos; headed poll for Committee, Camb. Union Society, also stroked L.M.B.C. 2nd boat in Lent races, 1901; Senior Whewell scholarship (Camb.) and Barstow scholarship (Inns of Court) in international law and allied subjects, 1902; 1st cl. Degree of Honour of Government India for eminent proficiency in Arabic, 1908; joined as Asstt. Commr. in Punjab Jan. 1903; since held administrative, judicial, secretariat and political offices; Dist. Judge, Amritsar 1908; inquired into

Punjab industries 1909-10; duty with Press Camp, Delhi Coronation Durbar 1911 (*medal*); Dist. Judge, Delhi 1911-12; Director of Public Instruction, Hyderabad State 1913-16; Dy. Commr. Hissar 1918-21; Recruiting badge and mention in Gaz. of India for valuable war services, 1919; sec. transfd. depts. also member Legis. Council, Punjab 1921-24; Dy. Commr. Karnàl 1924-27; Commr. and Pol. Agent, Ambàla; also member, Council of State from Nov. 1927; Delegate, International Law Conf., The Hague, March 1930; substitute delegate and adviser, International Labour Conf., Geneva, June 1930; Delegate, Inter-Parliamentary Conf. London, July 1930; duty with 1st Indian Round Table Conference, London, Sep. 1930; Commr. Multàn, March 1931; duty with 2nd Indian Round Table Conference, London, Aug. 1931; Sec. Consultative Committee (I. R. T. C.) Delhi, Jan. 1932; duty with 3rd Indian Round Table Conference, London, October 1932; Financial Commissioner, Revenue, April—July 1934; Commissioner, Lahore from July 1934 *Publications:* Effects of War on Property; being studies in International Law and Policy, 1908; Industrial Punjab, 1911; The All-India Alphabet; a step towards Federation, 1934; various addresses, articles, reports. *Address:* Secretariat, Lahore; Athenaeum, Pall Mall, Landon.

LATTHE, DIWAN BAHADUR ANNA BABAJI, M.A., LL.B. (Bombay). *b.* 1878. *m.* to Jyotsnabai Kadre of Kolhapur. *Educ.* Deccan College, Poona; Prof. of English, Rajaram College, Kolhapur, 1907-1911; Educational Inspector, Kolhapur, till 1914; President, Southern Mahratta Jain Association and Karnatak Non-Brahman League; Edited "*Deccan Ryot* (1918-20)" Member of the Indian Legislative Assembly, 1921-23; Member of the University Reform Committee, 1924. Diwan of Kolhapur 1926-30. Diwan Bahadurship Conferred in 1930. Attended Indian Round Table Conference in London as Adviser to the States' Delegation. Chairman, Central Co-operative Bank, Belgaum District, 1932. *Publications:* "Introduction to Jainism" (English); "Growth of British Empire in India" (Marathi); "Memoirs of Shahu Chhatrapati"; "Shri Shahu Chhactrapatiche Charitra" in Marathi (1925); Problems of Indian States (English) 1930; "The Federal Constitutions of the World" (Marathi) 1931. *Address:* Belgaum.

LEFTWICH, CHARLES GERRANS, C.B.E. (1919). Indian Trades Agent, East Africa, *b.* 31 July 1872. *m.* Evadne Fawcus of Alnmouth, Northumberland. *Educ.* Christ's Hospital and St. John's College, Cantab. Entered I.C.S. 1896. Served in C. P. *Address:* Mombassa.

LEGGE, FRANCIS CECIL, C.B.E., V. D. (1919), Director of Wagon Interchange, Indian Railway Conference Assocn. *b.* 14 September 1873. *Educ:* Sherborne School. *Address:* Bengal Club, Calcutta.

LELY, WILLIAM GERALD, B.A. (Cantab.), 1st Class (2nd Division) Classical Tripos (1908); Partner, Messrs. Wallace & Co., Bombay. *b.* 15 July 1886. *m.* Dorothy Ruth, *d.* of late W. F. Hurndall. *Educ.:* Fettes College, Edinburgh; Emmanuel College, Cambridge. Joined The Bombay Burmah Trading Corporation, Ltd., Rangoon, as Assist. in November 1910; appointed Manager June 1920; Joined Walace & Co., Bombay, as a partner in August 1926; Member, Bombay Legislative Council. in 1928, 1931 and 1933-34 President Bombay Chamber of Commerce. 1933-34; Trustee of Port of Bombay, 1933, and 1934. *Address:* Wallace & Co., 9, Wallace Street, Fort, Bombay.

LE RUYET, Rt. Rev. Mgr. PIUS, O. M. CAP. R. C. BISHOP OF AJMER. Lorient (France). *b.* 28 November 1870. *Educ:* Entered Noviciate of Friars Minor Capuchins, Province of Paris, at Le Mans, 4 Oct. 1888. Joined Mission of Rajputana, November 1894. Ordained priest 21 July 1895. Chaplain at Ajmer, Rector of St. Anselm's High School (1904-1931). Appointed Bishop 9 June 1931. Consecrated 28 Oct. 1931. *Address:* Bishop's House, Ajmer.

LEY, ARTHUR HERBERT, B.A., C.S.I. (1926), C.I.E. (1918), C.B.E. (1924), Member, Public Services Commission, India. *b.* 7 Nov. 1879. *Educ:* Winchester College and New College, Oxford. Entered I.C.S. 1903. Under-Secretary, Government of Bengal, 1908; Under-Secretary, Govt. of India, 1909-12; Director-General of Commercial Intelligence, 1914-16; Dy. Secretary, Commerce Department, 1915-18; Secretary, Commerce Department, 1919; Chief Controller, Surplus Stores, 1921-23; Secretary, Department of Industries, 1923-1926. *Address:* Delhi and Simla.

LIAQAT HAYAT KHAN, NAWAB, SIR, O.B.E., KT., Aitmadudaula Viqarulmulk, Tazimi Sardar; Prime Minister of Patiala State. *b.* 1st February 1887. *m. d.* of Mian Nizammuddin, late Prime Minister of Ponch State. *Educ:* Privately. *Address:* Patiala.

LINDSAY, SIR DARCY, KT. (1925), C.B.E., 1919, Kaisar-i-Hind Gold Medal (1911). *b.* Nov. 1865. Late Secretary, Calcutta Branch, Royal Insurance Co. *Address:* 26, Dalhousie Square, Calcutta.

LINDSAY, HARRY ALEXANDER FANSHAWE, C.I.E. C.B.E., I.C.S., Indian Trade Commissioner, London. *b.* 11 March 1881. *m.* Kathleen Louise Huntington. *Educ.* St. Paul's School, London; Worcester College, Oxford. Arrived in India 1905 and served in Bengal as Asst. Collr. and Mgte.; Under-Secretary to Government, Revenue and General Departments, March 1910; transferred to Bihar, 1912; Under-Secretary to Government, Rev. Department, 1912; Under-Secretary to Govt. of India, Commerce and Industry Department, 1912; Director, Commercial Intelligence Department, 1916; C.B.E., 1919; Offg. Secretary to Government of India, Department of Commerce, 1921; Indian Trade Commissioner, from 1st February 1923, C.I.E. in 1926. *Address:* Bengal Club, Calcutta, and Oriental Club, London.

LLOYD, ALAN HUBERT, B.A. (Cantab.), C.I.E., I.C.S., Member, Central Board of Revenue. *b.* August 30, 1883. *m.* Violet Mary, *d.* of the late J. C. Orrock. *Educ.:* King William's

College, Isle of Man, Gonville & Caius College, Cambridge. Appointed to Indian Civil Service, Burma, 1907 : Member, Central Board of Revenue since 1923. Officiated as Finance Member, Governor-General's Executive Council, June-August, 1933. *Address :* Delhi and Simla.

LLOYD, Lt.-Col. Charles Geoffrey, C.I.E. (1919), M.C., Indian Army. *b.* 12 March 1884. *m.* Nora Evelyn (nee) Jameson. *Educ.:* Repton and Cambridge. Commissioned Essex Regiment, 1904; Indian Army Service Corps, 1912; service in Great War, France; Gallipoli; Mesopotamia; North and Kurdistan. *Publications :* Warlike Snips and Snaps; Matrimonial Weals and Woes; Babu Piche Lal in Europe; Higgledey-Piggledey (all above under pen-name of Babu Piche Lal, B.A.); From an Indian State. *Address :* The Bath Club, 34, Dover Street, London, W. 1.

LOHARU, The Hon. Nawab Sir Amir-ud-Din Ahmed Khan Bahadur, K.C.I.E., Member Council of State, and Persian and Urdu Poet. *b.* 1860, *S.* 1884. Ruling Chief of Moghal tribe. Abdicated in favour of his Heir-Apparent and Successor in 1920 voluntarily retaining titles and 9 guns salute as personal distinctions. For two years Mem. of Imp. Leg. Council and for two years Mem. of Punjab Council, again a member of Council of State for 3 years, Superintendent and Adviser to the Malerkotla State in the Punjab for 12 years. Attached to Pol. Dept. in Mesopotamia. After death of his son the Ruling Nawab he was Nawab Regent during the minority of his grandson the Nawab of Loharu, which terminated in November 1931 on the assumption of full ruling powers by H.H. Lieutenant Nawab Mirza Aminuddin Ahmad Khan Bahadur Fakhrud-daula, the present ruler of Loharu State. *Address :* Loharu, Punjab.

LORT-WILLIAMS, Hon. Mr. Justice John Rolleston, K.C. (1922), Puisne Judge, High Court, Calcutta. *b.* 14 September 1881. *m.* 1923, Dorothy Margery Mary, *o. c.* of late Edward Russel, The Hermitage, Hampstead. *Educ:* Merchant Taylors; London University; Tancred student, 1922, Barrister, Lincoln's Inn, 1904, Member, Inner and Middle Temple; Recorder of West Bromwich 1923 and of Walsall 1924-28. President, Hardwicke Society, 1911; Contested (U) Pembrokeshire, 1906 and 1908; Stockport, December 1910; (Co. U.) M. P. Rotherhithe 1918-1922; (U) 1923. Member of the Oxford Circuit. Served six years in Middlessex Imperial Yeomanry. Member of the L. C. C. (Limehouse). 1907-10; Vice-Chairman of Housing Committee; Appointed, Judge, Calcutta High Court, 1927 *Address :* High Court, Calcutta.

LOTHIAN, ARTHUR CUNNINGHAM, M.A. (1st Hons. Mathematics), B.Sc. (special distinction), I.C.S., C.I.E., (1st Jan. 1934); Officer of Indian Political Department; Resident in Jaipur and the Western States of Rajputana. *b.* 27th June 1887. *m.* Mary Helen Macgregor. *Educ.* University of Aberdeen; Christ Church, Oxford. Entered I.C.S. 1910; Assistant Magistrate Bengal 1911-15; Served subsequently as Political Officer in Central India, Kashmir, Hyderabad Mysore, Rajputana, Baroda, and the Orissa and Central Provinces States. Deputy Secretary to the Government of India, Foreign and Political Department, 1926-27, and on special duty with the Government of India 1931-32; Resident at Jaipur 1929-31; also Political Agent, Eastern Rajputana States 1929; President Council of State, Jaipur 1929; Resident in Mewar and Political Agent, Southern Rajputana States, 1930-31; Resident at Baroda 1932-33; Prime Minister Alwar, President Council of State, Bharatpur, and Political Agent, Eastern Rajputana States 1933. *Address :* The Residency, Jaipur.

LOW, Francis, Editor. *The Times of India*, *b.* 19 November 1893. *m.* Margaret Helen Adams. *Educ:* Robert Gordon's College, Aberdeen. Joined staff *Aberdeen Free Press*, 1911. Served in War with Mesopotamian Expeditionary Force. Special Service Officer, Intelligence, G. H. Q. 1919. Gazetted out with rank of Captain, 1920. Chief Reporter, *Aberdeen Free Press*, 1920. Sub-Editor, *The Times of India*, 1922; Asst. Editor, 1927-1932. *Address:* 57-C, Warden Road, Bombay.

LOYD, Rt. Rev. P. H. *see* Nasik, Bishop of.

LYALL, Frank Frederick, C.I.E., I.C.E. (retd.) General Manager, Kasim Bazaar Raj, *b.* 12 June 1872. *Educ.:* Edinburgh Academy Balliol Coll., Oxford. Ent. I.C.S. 1891; *m.* Miss I. K. Markham (1906); Ministry of Munitions, London, 1915-1918; Committee 1919; retired 1926. *Address :* 17, Alipore Park, Calcutta.

LYLE, Thomas McElderry, B.E., A.R.C.Sc. I., C. I. E. (1928), I. S. E., Superintending Engineer, Irrigation Works, U. P. *b.* 24 May 1886. *m.* Mary Stewart Forsyth, 1922. *Educ.* St. Andrew's College, Dublin, Royal College of Science, Ireland, Queen's College, Belfast and Royal University of Ireland (Graduated 1908, First Place with First Class Honours). Assistant on Main Drainage Construction under London County Council 1908-09; apptd. Asst. Engineer in P.W.D. (Irrigation), U.P. India in 1909; employed on various large construction works, including Gangao Dam on Ken River in C.I.; in charge of construction of Ghaghar Canal Reservoir and Karamnasa Feeder cut and headworks; Executive Engineer in charge of Design and Construction of Sarda Canal Barrage and head portion of Sarda Canal including the Jagbura Syphon (the largest syphon in the world) and other cross drainage works 1921-29. War service in Waziristan, in South Persia and in the 3rd Afghan War. Mentioned in Despatches by G.O.C., Bushire Field Force in 1918-19 (South Persia). *Address :* Superintending Engineer, Irrigation Branch, Lucknow, U.P.

McCarrison, Major-General Sir Robert, Kt. (1933); I.M.S., M.D., D.Sc., Hon. LL.D., F.R.C.P. (London), Hon. Physician to H. M. the King; Hon. Fellow College of Physicians (Philadelphia) Laureate of the Academy of Medicine, Paris; Kaiser-i-Hind of Physicians (Philadelphia); Kaiser-i-Hind (1st Class), 1911; C.I.E. (1923); Director

Nutritional Research, Indian Research Fund Association, Pasteur Institute, Coonoor *b.* 15 March 1878; *m.* Helen Stella 3rd *d.* of the late J. L. Johnston, I.C.S. Judicial Commissioner, Sind. *Educ.* Queen's College, Belfast. Graduated M.B. B.Ch., B.A.O. (1st Class Hons. and Exhibition) (1900); M.D. (Hons.) 1910; M.R.C.P. (Lond.) 1909; D.Sc. (Belfast) 1911; F.R.C.P. (Lond.) 1914; Entered I.M.S., 1901; Milroy Lecturer, College of Physicians, London, 1913; Mellon Lecturer, University of Pittsburgh, U.S.A., 1921; Mary Scott Newbold Lecturer, C. P. Philadelphia, 1921; Hanna Lecturer, Cleveland, Ohio, U.S.A., 1921; Mayo Foundation Lecturer, Rochester, Min. U.S.A. 1921; Arnott Memorial Gold Medalist, Irish Medical Schools and Graduates Association 1921; Prix Amussat Academy of Medicine Paris (1914); Stewart Prize for Research, British Medical Association (1918), Silver Medalist, Royal Society of Arts, 1925; Brevet Lt.-Colonel (1918) "for distinguished Service in the Field;" Brevet Colonel 1928. *Publications:* "Endemic Goitre" London 1913; "The Thyroid Gland in Health and Disease," London, 1917; "Studies in Deficiency Disease," London, 1921; "The Simple Goitres," London, 1928; "Food," Madras, 1928. Memoirs and numerous scientific papers on the physiology and pathology of the thyroid and parathyroid glands and on disorders of Nutrition in Proc. Royal Soc., Proc. Royal Soc., Med., Indian Journal Medical Research, etc. *Address:* Pasteur Institute, Coonoor, South India.

MACKENZIE, ARTHUR HENDERSON, C.S.I. (1933), M.A., B.Sc., A.R.C.Sc., C.I.E. (1928); Director of Public Instruction, United Provinces. *b.* February 9, 1880. *m.* Zora Gibson Harwood. *Educ.* Royal Academy Inverness, Aberdeen Univ., Royal Coll. of Science, London. Principal, Secondary School, Newton Abbot, 1907-08; Inspector of Schools, United Provinces, 1908-09; Principal Government Training College, Allahabad, 1909-1920; Chief Inspector of Vernacular Education, United Provinces, 1920-21; Director of Public Instruction, United Provinces, from 1921; Officiating Educational Commissioner with the Government of India, 1930. *Address:* Allahabad, U.P.

MACMAHON, MAJOR-GENERAL HUGH FRANCIS EDWARD, C.B. (1931); C.B.E. (1925); M.C., P.S.C. D.A. and Q.M.G. Northern Command Headquarters Rawalpindi, *b.* 13th Oct. 1880. *m.* Agnes Hearn, elder *d.* of A. E. Cumming, Esq., *Educ:* Pocklington, Bedford, R.M.C. Sandhurst. Gazetted Indian Staff Corps, 1900; joined S. & T. C., 1904; Instructor, Staff College, Quetta, 1919-23; A.A. and Q.M.G., Waziristan District 1923-1927; D.D.M. and Q., A.H.Q., 1928; D.D.S. & T. A.H.Q., 1929; D.S.T., A.H.Q., 1929; D. A. and Q.M.G. Northern Command, 1933; A.D.C. to H. M. the King, 1929; Col., 1922; Major-General, 1930. Served in Waziristan Campaign, 1900-02; the Great War 1914-1918; despatches 5 times, M. C. and Bt. of Lt. Colonel; Kurdistan, 1919; Waziristan, 1923-24; Despatches, C.B.E. *Address:* Rawalpindi.

MACMULLEN, GENERAL SIR CYRIL NORMAN K.C.B., C.M.G., C.I.E., D.S.O., General Officer Commanding Eastern Command, 1931. *b.* 1877. Served N.W. Frontier, 1897-98 (medal and clasp); Tibet expedition, 1903-4 (medal); European War, 1914-19 (despatches, C.M.G., D.S.O., Brevet Lt.-Col., Legion of Honour, Order of Crown of Belgium, Croix de Guerre); Afghan War, 1919; Army Headquarters, India, 1924-27; G. O. C. Rawalpindi District, 1927-1932. *Address:* Naini Tal (Summer); Bareilly (Winter).

MACNEE, EUSTACE ALBERIC, M.A. (Cantab.); V.D. (1921); Director of Public Instruction. Central Provinces. *b.* 11 Nov. 1885. *m.* Irene Mary (Porter). *Educ.* St. Paul's School, London, and Clare College, Cambridge. Appointed to Indian Educational Service, 25th October 1908. *Publications:* Exercises in English Grammar and Idiom; Editor of "Instruction in Indian Secondary Schools" (2nd edition). Principal, Spence Training College, Jubbulpore. *Address:* Nagpur.

MACONACHIE, SIR RICHARD ROY, K.B.E., C.I.E., B.A., I.C.S., H. M.'s Minister at Kabul since 1930. *b.* 3 September 1885. *Educ.:* Tonbridge and Univ. College, Oxford; arrived in India Nov. 1909 and served in the Punjab as asstt. commr.; asst. commissioner, Peshawar, 1914; personal assistant to Chief Commander, N. W. F. Province, May 1914; assistant commissioner, Bannu, February 1915; ditto Dera Ismail Khan, October 1916; Under Secretary to Government of India, Foreign and Political Department, March 1917; on military service from October 1917 to October 1919. First Assistant to Agent to Governor-General in Rajputana, November 1919; Offg. Deputy Secretary to Government of India, Foreign and Political Department, November 1921; Counsellor, H. M.'s Legation at Kabul, February 1922; Offg. Deputy Secretary to Government of India, Foreign and Political Department, December 1925; C.I.E. (1926); Deputy Commissioner, Hazara, April 1926; on special duty in Foreign and Political Department, 1927; Political Agent, Kurram, 1928; H. M.'s Minister at Kabul, March 1930; K.B.E. (1931) *Address:* Kabul.

MACPHERSON, THE HON. SIR (THOMAS STEWART, M. A. (Edin.); C.I.E. (1922); Kt. (1933); Barrister-at-Law; Judge, High Court, Patna and (Hon.) Vice-Chancellor, Patna University. *b.* 21 Aug. 1876. *m.* Helen Cameron, M.A., eldest *d.* of the Rev. A. B. Cameron, D. D. Edinburgh. *Educ:* George Watson's College, Edinburgh; Edinburgh University and Trinity College, Oxford Entered Indian Civil Service, Bengal, in 1899 and served in Bihar and Orissa from 1912; Dist. Magte, and Collr., Settlement Officer District and Sessions Judge; Superintendent, and Remembrancer of Legal Affairs; Secretary to the Legislative Council; Registrar, Patna High Court; and Judge, Patna High Court; Vice-Chancellor, Patna University since 1930. *Publications:* Ranchi District Gazetteer, jointly; Settlement Report of Porahat. *Address:* Patna, India.

MACTAGGART, COLONEL CHARLES, C.S.I., 1919: C.I.E.; Inspector-General of Civil Hospitals, U.P. *b.* 1861. *Educ.:* Camp-

belltown Gram. Sch. Glasgow Univ., Ent. I.M.S., 1886; Insp.-Gen. of Prisons, 1902; Mem., Indian Factory Labour Commission, 1907-08; Mem. of U. P. Leg. Council, 1909. *Address:* Lucknow.

MCKENZIE, THE REV. JOHN, M.A. (Aberdeen), 1904 D.D. (Aberdeen), 1934; Senior Cunningham Fellow, New College, Edinburgh, 1908; Principal, Wilson College, *b.* 13 June 1883. *m.* Agnes Ferguson Dinnes. *Educ.:* Aberdeen University, New College, Edinburgh; Tubingen University. Ordained 1908; Appointed Professor in Wilson College, 1908; Appointed Principal, 1921; Fellow of the University of Bombay, President, Bombay Christian Council, 1924-26; President, Bombay Anthropological Society, 1927-29. Vice-Chancellor, Bombay University, 1931-33. *Publications:* Hindu Ethics (Oxford Univ. Press). Edited Worship, Witness and Work by R. S. Simpson, D.D. (James Clarke); Edited The Christian Task in India (Macmillan). *Address:* Wilson College House, Bombay.

MADAN, JANARDAN ATMARAM, B.A., C.I.E. I.C.S., Officiating Secretary to Government, Revenue Department, Bombay, since March 1934. *b.* 12 February 1885. *m.* Champubai, *d.* of late H. P. Pitale, J.P. *Educ:* Bombay, Oxford and Cambridge. Assistant Collector, 1909, and Asst. Settlement Officer; Collector and Registrar, Co-operative Societies, Bombay, 1920; Joint Secretary, Royal Commission on Agriculture, 1926-28; Chairman, Banking Inquiry Committee, Bombay, 1929; Director of Labour Intelligence and Commissioner, Workmen's Compensation, Bombay, 1930; Collector of Belgaum; appointed *Offg.* Secretary, Revenue Department, March 1934. *Address:* Secretariat, Bombay.

MADGAVKAR, SIR GOVIND DINANATH, Kt., B.A., I.C.S., *b.* 21 May 1871. *m.* Miss Bhadrabai Pandit. *Educ:* St. Xavier's High School, St. Xavier's College, Elphinstone College, and Balliol. Passed the I.C.S. in 1892; served in Burma for 3 years; became Dist. and Sessions Judge in 1905; Additional Judicial Commissioner (Karachi), 1920; Judge, High Court, 1925-31. *Address:* 17, Mathew Road, Bombay, 4.

MADHAVA RAO, V. P., C.I.E. (1899) *b.* Feb. 1850. *Educ:* Government College, Kumbakonam (B.A. 1869, Fellow 1899). For 35 years in the service of Mysore State in important capacities being Member of Council of Regency, 1898-1902; Inspector-General of Police, the first Indian to be entrusted with that responsible charge, 1892; Plague Commissioner, 1898. Member, Executive Council and Rev. Commsr., 1902-1904; Dewan of Travancore, 1904-1906; Dewan of Mysore, 1906-1909; toured all over India to gain first hand information on the condition of India; Presided at Tanjore Dist. Confce., Dewan of Baroda, 1914-16; President, 23rd Madras Provincial Confce. at Cuddalore, 1917; has also presided over a number of conferences (political, social, industrial, etc.); went to England on deputation by the Indian National Congress; tendered evidence before Parliamentary Joint Committee; President, First Karnatak Confce., Dharwar, 1920; now lives in retirement; awarded Kaiser-i-Hind Gold Medal in the first year of its inception, 1900. *Address:* "Patan Bhavan," Bangalore.

MADHAVLAL, SIR CHINUBHAI, Bt., *see* Ranchhodlal.

MADRAS, BISHOP OF, since 1923, Rt. Rev. Edward Harry Manisfield Waller, M.A. (Cantab.); *b.* 8 Dec. 1871. *Educ.:* Highgate School, Corpus Christi College, Cam. Ordained. *d.* 1894; *p.* 1895 Lon.; Principal, St. Paul's Divinity Sch., Allahabad, 1903. Principal, Jay Narayan's High School, Benares, 1907 Ag. Secy, C.M.S., U.P., 1908-09. Sec. C.M.S., Indian Group 1913; Canon of Lucknow, 1910-15; Bishop of Tinnevelly, 1915-22. *Publications:* "Revelation" in Bishop's Commentaries for India and The Divinity of Jesus Christ, Translated to Madras 1 Jan. 1923. *Address:* The Diocesan Office, Cathedral, P.O. Madras.

MAHABOOB ALI KHAN, MAHOMED AKBAR-KHAN, M.L.C., First Class Sardar (1921). Cotton Commission Agent, Hubli. *b.* 1878. *Educ.:* at Hubli. Started business in cotton in 1896, extended same from time to time, created a cotton market at Savanur by establishing Ginning and Pressing factories there; also started ginning factories at Ranebennur and Guttal convenient places for marketing cotton in the interior; is an advocate of improved methods and machinery for agriculture and himself a cultivator on a large scale, cultivating about 300 acres of land on improved lines and demonstrating its benefits to the other ryots of his place and neighbourhood; is President, Hubli Anjuman-i-Islam, working for the educational, social and material uplift of Mahomedans; was Vice-President of the Hubli Municipality for some years and was elected the President of that Municipality in 1931. Was again elected President of the Hubli Municipality in 1932 for another triennium. *Publications:* Kanarese translation of Mr. G. F. Keatinge's "Rural Economy in the Bombay Deccan;" Kanarese translation of "Britain in India, Have we Benefited?" *Address:* Opposite Native General Library, Hubli, Dist. Dharwar.

MAHAJANI, GANESH SAKHARAM, M.A. (Cantab.); Ph.D. (Cantab.); B.A. (Bom.); Smith's Prizeman (1926); Principal and Professor of Mathematics, Fergusson College, Poona. *b.* 27 Nov. 1898. *m.* Indumati Paranjpye, *d.* of Mr. H. P. Paranjpye and niece of Dr. R. P. Paranjpye. *Educ:* High School, Satara Fergusson College, Poona, St. John's College, Cambridge. First in Intermediate (Second Sanskrit Scholar) and the B. A. Examination, Duke of Edinburgh Fellow. Went to England as Government of India Scholar; returned to India in 1927; appointed Principal, Fergusson College, 1929; obtained King's Commission, U.T.C. Lieut. *Publications:* "Lessons in Elementary Analysis" for Honours Courses of Indian Universities, and some mathematical publications especially contribution to Theory of Ferromagnetic Crystals (published in the Transactions of the Royal Society, London). *Address:* Fergusson College, Poona 4.

MAHALANOBIS, S.C., B.Sc. (Edin.), F.R.S.E., I. E. S.; (retired) Prof. of Physiology, Carmichael Medical College, Calcutta, Presidency Coll., Calcutta, 1900-27. Fellow, and Professor Calcutta University, President, Board of Higher Studies in Physiology, Member, Governing Body, Science College, Calcutta University. *b.* Calcutta, 1867; *m.* 1902 fourth *d.* of Keshub Chunder Sen and sister of H. H. the Maharani of Cooch-Behar. *Educ.:* Edinburgh Univ. *Publications:* Muscle Fat in Salmon; Life History of Salmon; New form of Myograph: Teachers' Manual; Text Book of Science. *Address:* 45, New Park Street, Calcutta.

MAHDI HUSAIN, KHAN WAHUD-UD-DAULA, AZOD-UL-MULK, NAWAB MIRZA KHAN BAHADUR, C.I.E.; *b.* 1834. *Educ.:* India; Arabia. Travelled extensively in Arabia, Persia, Afghanistan, Baluchistan, and Europe; visited Mecca, Medina, Kaymiani, *Address:* Tirminigaz, Lucknow.

MAHMOOD SCHAMNAD, SAHEB BAHADUR; KHAN BAHADUR (1930), M.L.C., Landholder, Member, Legislative Council, Madras (elected) and Elected Member, S. Kanara District Board Elected Member, S. K. Dist. Educational Council. *b.* 7 March 1870. *m.* 1896 to Mrs. Maryam Schamnad. *Educ.:* St. Aloysius' College and Govt. College, Mangalore and Christian College, Madras. Served on the South Kanara Dist. Board for about 15 years; Hon. Magistrate for 10 years, since 1913: Pioneer of Moplah education in S. Canara. Started the Azizia Muslim Educational Association in South Kanara in 1907 and Madras Moplah Amelioration Committee in 1922. Elected Member of the First and Second Legislative Assembly and 3rd and 4th Legislative Council. Government awarded a Coronation Medal and a Certificate in recognition of his services on Local Boards and his special interest in Moplah education; Presided at the 3rd Annual Confce. of all Kerala Muslim Aikya Sangham in 1925. Leader of the Govt. Deputation to the Andamans to investigate into the Moplah Colonization Scheme in 1925; Presided at the first district Muslim Educational Confce., S. Kanara in 1926. Member, Mahomedan Religious Endowment Committee, Kasaragod. Vice-President, Madras Presidency Moslem League; Member, Staff Selection Board, Madras, 1928; Member, Senate Madras University, 1930. President, Taluk Board, Kasaragod. *Publication:* The Moplah Willsh Act, 1928 (Madras). *Address:* Sea View, Kasaragod, S. Kanara.

MAHOMEDALI, KHAN BAHADUR, NAWAB SYED, I.S.O.; Ent. Govt. Service, 1873; Insp.-Gen. of Registration, Bengal; retired, 1913; a distinguished Urdu scholar and dramatist; wrote The Nawabi-Darbar, and Adventures of Notorious Detective in English. *Address:* 4, Ballygunge, Calcutta.

MAJITHIA, THE HON. SARDAR BAHADUR SIR SUNDAR SINGH, Kt. (1926) C.I.E. (1920); Ex. Revenue Member, Government of Punjab; *b.* 17th Feb. 1872; *m.* grand-daughter of Sardar Sir Attar Singh, K.C.I.E., Chief of Bahadur (Patiala State). *Educ.:* Punjab Chiefs College and Government College, Lahore. Worked as Hon. Secretary of the Khalsa Coll., Amritsar for 11 years and Hon. Secretary, Chief Khalsa Diwan, a representative body of the Sikhs from its inception in 1902 to the close of 1920. *Address:* "Majithia House," Albert Road, Amritsar (Punjab).

MAJUMDAR DWIJA DAS, M.Sc., Assistant Controller of Stationery, Government of India Offg. Deputy Controller of Stationery and Stamps, in October, 1927, and Offg. Manager, Central Publication Branch March, 1930. *b.* 2nd Feb. 1890. *m.* Abhamayee, *d.* of late Promatna Nath Ghosh, Zemindar of Bhagalpur. *Educ.:* Krishnagar Collegiate School, Krishnagar College, and Presidency College, Calcutta. Entered Bengal Junior Civil Service, 1915; Bengal Survey Office as Asstt. to the Officer in Charge, Bengal Traverse Party, 1917; Asstt. Controller of Printing, Stationery and Stamps, Govt. of India, 1924, Acted as Hon. Secretary, Bengal Junior Civil Service from 1921 to 1926. *Address:* 20/2 B, Ray Street, Elgin Road, Calcutta.

MALAVIYA, PANDIT KRISHNA KANT, Editor of *Abhyudaya. Educ.:* at Allahabad. *Publications:* Sansar Sankat, Sohaghrat Manoramas' Patra, Matritva or Motherhood and Baby Care and many others in Hindi. Member, All-India Congress Committee; Vice-President, District and Town Congress Committee, Allahabad; Twice elected to the Legislative Assembly; Ex-Secretary of the Independent Congress Party and All-India Hindi Sahitya Sammailan. *Address:* Abhyudaya, Allahabad.

MALAVIYA PANDIT MADAN MOHAN, *b.* Allahabad, 25 Dec. 1861. *m.* 1884; four sons and three daughters *Educ:* Sanskrit at the Dharma Jnanopadesh Pathshala, Govt. High School, Muir Central Coll., Allahabad; B.A. (Calcutta), Schoolmaster, 1885-87; edited the Indian Union, 1885-1887; the Hindustan, 1887-1889; The Abhyudaya, 1907-1909; LL.B., Allahabad University, 1892; Vakil, High Court, Allahabad, 1892; Member, Prov. Leg. Council, 1902-12; President of Indian National Congress, 1909 and 1918; Member, Imp. Leg. Council, 1910-1919; Member, Indian Industrial Commission, 1916-18; President, Sewa Samiti, Prayag; Chief Scout, Sewa Samiti Scouts' Association; Vice-Chancellor, Benares Hindu University since 1919; President, Hindu Mahasabha, 1923-24. President, Sanatana Dharma Mahasabha, Member, Legislative Assembly since 1924. Resigned 1930. *Address:* Benares Hindu University.

MALER KOTLA, HON. KHAN, SIR ZULFIGAR ALI KHAN, K.C.S.I., C.S.I.; estate holder in Maler Kotla State; Ch. Minister of Patiala State, since 1911; Elected member of the Council of State from 1921 to 1925; at present elected member in the Legislative Assembly representing East Central Punjab Muslims. *Publications:* has written many books including Lives of "Maharaja Ranjit Singh" and "Sher Shah, Emperor of India; also "The Poetry of Iqbal." *b.* 1875; *Educ:* Chiefs' Coll., Lahore; Cambridge; Paris. *Address:* Lahore.

MALIK, SIR FIROZKHAN NOON, M.A. (Oxon.) Minister, Punjab Government. *b.* 7 May 1893. *Educ.:* Chiefs' College, Lahore and Wadham College, Oxford. Bar-at-law, Inner Temple, London. Advocate of the Lahore High Court and Member of the Punjab Legislative Council from 1921. Appointed Minister for Local Self-Government, January 1927 and Education Minister from October 1930. *Address:* Nurpur Noon, Dist Shahpur, Punjab.

MALIK MOHAMMED UMAR HAYAT KHAN (TIWANA), COLONEL, THE HON. NAWAB, SIR, K.C.I.E., C.B.E., M.V.O.; Member of Council of State, 1921; *b.* 1875. *Educ.:* Chiefs' Coll., Lahore. One of largest landholders in Punjab. Attached to H. M. the Amir, 1907; Deputy Herald, Delhi Durbar, 1911; Member of Imperial Council, 1910-1921. *Address:* Kalra, Shahpur.

MALLIK, DEVENDRA NATH, B.A. (Cantab.), Sc.D. (Dub.), F.R.S.E., I.E.S. (Retd.); Principal, Carmichael College, Rangpur, Bengal, since 1926. *b.* Bengal 1866. *Educ.:* St. Xavier's Coll., Calcutta; University Coll., London; Peterhouse Cambridge. *Publications:* Numerous works on Mathematics and Physics. *Address:* Rangpur, Bengal.

MANIPUR, H. H. MAHARAJA CHURA CHAND SINGH, C.B.E.; *b.* 1885; *m.* March 17, 1905. *Educ.:* Mayo College, Ajmer. *s.* 1891. State has area of 8,456 sq. miles, and a population of 445,606. Salute 11 guns. *Address:* Imphal, Manipur State, Assam.

MANOHAR LAL, M.A. (Punjab); B.A. (Double First Class Honours), Cambridge, Philosophy and Economics, Bar-at-Law; Minister of Education, Punjab Government, 1927-1930 *b.* 31 Dec. 1879. *Educ:* Punjab University, and St. John's College, Cambridge. McMahon Law student, St. John's Cambridge, Brotherton Sanskrit scholar, Cambridge, Cobden Prize, Cambridge, Whewell scholar in international Law, 1904-1905; Principal, Randhir College, Kapurthala, 1906-1909; Minto Professor of Economics, Calcutta University, 1909-1912; Advocate, High Court, Lahore. *Publications:* Articles' on economic subjects. *Address:* Fane Road, Lahore.

MANSINGH, SARDAR, B.A., LL.B. Advocate, High Court, Lahore. Vice-President, The Chief Khalsa Diwan. (1923-1925); *b.* 1887. *Educ.:* Khalsa College, Amritsar, won Gold Medal for writing Punjabi poetry is a larger of more than 20 years' standing worked as the Senior Counsel and in charge of the Law Department of Shiromani Gurdwara Prabandhak Committee, Lahore (1926-1929); edited Khalsa Young Men's Magazine from 1905 to 1909. Member, Legislative Assembly (1921-23). Secretary, Reception Committee, XVII Sikh Educational Conference, Lahore, held in 1926: Hon. Secretary, Khalsa High School; Offg. Judge, High Court, Patiala, 1930-May 1932. Now Practising as an Advocate at High Court, Lahore. *Publications:* Translated Kalidasa's Vikramorvasi from Sanskrit into Punjabi poetry and prose, has written religious tracts. *Address:* 26, Temple Road, Lahore.

MANSINGHJI, *see* JHALA.

MARSHALL, SIR JOHN HUBERT, Kt., *cr.* 1915, C.I.E., 1910; Litt. D., Ph. D., F.S.A. Hon. A.R.I.B.A., Commander of the Order of Leopold. Vice-President of the India Society; Director-General of Archæology in India from 1902 to 1931; now officer on Special Duty; *b.* Chester, 19th March 1876; *m.* 1902 Florence, *y. d.* of Sir Henry Longhurst, C.V.O. *Educ:* Dulwich and King's College, Cambridge (Scholar and Hon. fellow) Craven Travelling Student. *Address:* Simla.

MASANI, RUSTOM PESTONJI, M.A., J.P., Managing Director, Persia Industrial and Trading Co., Ltd. *b.* 23 Sept. 1876. *m.* 9 Decr. 1902, Manijeh P. Wadia, *Educ:* New H. S. and Elphinstone Coll.; Fellow, Elphinstone College, 1897 and 1898; Jt. Proprietor. and Editor of *Gup Sup* (1898); Editor of English columns of *Kaisar-i-Hind* (1891-1900); Editor, *Indian Spectator* (1901-02); Fellow of the Bombay University and of the Institute of Bankers; Trustee, N. M. Wadia Charities; President, Anthropological Society, Bombay; Vice-President, Bombay Vigilance Association; Jt. Hon. Secry., Society for the Protection of Children in W. India; also of the K. R. Kama Memorial Institute and the Parsi Girls' Schools Association and Trustee; Secretary, Bombay Food Prices Committee (1914-17). Municipal Secretary, 1907-1919. Dy. Municipal Commissioner (1919-25). Municipal Commissioner, 1922. Manager, Central Bank of India, Ltd., 1926-1928. Secretary, Bombay Provincial Banking Enquiry Committee, 1929-1930; Joint Secretary, Indian Central Banking Enquiry; Committee, 1930-1931. Director, Oriental Government Seurity Life Assurance Co. *Publications:* English, Child Protection, Folklore of Wells: The Law and Procedure of the Municipal Corporation, Bombay: The Conference of the Birds, a Sufi. Allegory; Evolution of Local Self-Govt. in Bombay. Gujarati: *Dolatno Upayog* (Use of Wealth); *Gharni tatha nishalhi Kelavni* (Home and School education), *Tansukh mala* (Health series), and novels named *Abyssiniano Hobshi; Bodhlu; Chandra Chal. Address:* Versova (*via* Andheri Station).

MASOOD, SIR SYED ROSS, NAWAB MASOOD JUNG BAHADUR, Kt. (1933) Vice-Chancellor, Aligarh Muslim University from 1929. *b.* 1889. *Educ.:* M.A.O. College, Aligarh, and New College, Oxford. Bar-at-Law; Imperial Education Service; Headmaster, Patna School, 1913. Senior Prof. of History, Ravenshaw College, Cuttack, 1916; Formerly Fellow of the University of Calcutta; Fellow of the Madras University; Member. Council of the Osmania University; Member, Court of the Muslim University, Aligarh. *Publications:* "Japan and its Educational System." Director of Public Instruction, Hyderabad, Deccan, 1916-1928. *Address:* Aligarh, U.P.

MASTER, ALFRED, B.A. (Oxon.), C.I.E. (1931) I.C.S., formerly Collector of Bombay and Bombay Suburban District. (On leave). *b.* 12th Feb. 1883. *m.* Dorthy Amy Thorne. *Educ.:* Epsom Coll., Brasenouse Coll., Oxford; Asstt. Collr., 1906; Municipal Commissioner,

Ahmedabad, 1917; Major I.A.R.O., 1918; Secretary to Government of Bombay, General Department, 1925; Collector 1926; President of Civil and Military Examination Committee, 1930. *Publications:* Articles in Numismatic, Supplement of Bengal, R.A.S. on Indian Numismatics and in Journal of Bombay B.R.A.S. on Gujarati Phonetics; articles in Local Self-Government Journal on Local Administration. *Address:* Secretariat, Bombay.

MATHER, RICHARD. B.Met., M.I.E. (India) Chief Technical Adviser, Tata Iron and Steel Co. *b.* 19 Sept. 1886. *Educ.:* Royal Grammar School, Sheffield, Univ. of Sheffield, Mappin Medallist 1906; Metallurgist. Ormsby Iron Works, Middlesborough, 1907-1911, Dy. Dir. Metallurgical Research, War Office, Woolwich, 1911-1919 and 1926. Member of Govt. Commission to investigate German and Luxemburg Steel Industry, 1919; Metallurgical Inspector to Govt. of India, 1920-25. Technical Adviser, Indian Tariff Board, 1923-24, and 1926 Member of Iron and Steel Institute. Inst. of Metals, Faraday Society, Technical Inspection Institute. *Publication:* Papers for technical societies. *Address:* Bombay.

MATHESON, LIEUT. GENERAL SIR TORQUHIL GEORGE, K.C.B. (1921); C.M.G. (1919); General Officer Commanding-in-Chief Western Command, India. *b.* 4 Feb. 1871. *m.* The Lady Elizabeth Keppel, A.R.R.C., only *d.* of the 8th Earle of Albemarle. *Educ.:* Eton, 4th Battalion Bedfordshire Regiment, (Herts Institution), 1890-1894; Coldstream Guards, 1894-1919; Bn. Adjutant 1897-1902; Regimental Adjutant and Brigade Major Vol. Bde. 1903-1905; attached General Staff as Bde. Major, 1907-1911; Great War 1915-1919; served in Waziristan, 1920-24; commanded 54th (East Anglian) Div. T. A. and East Anglian area 1927-1930; appointed G.O.C. in Chief, Western Command, India, 1931; promoted Brevet Lieut.-General 1930. *Address:* Flagstaff House, Quetta.

MATTHAI, JOHN, B.A., B.L. (Madras); B. Litt. (Oxon.); D.Sc. (London); President, Indian Tariff Board, *b.* 10 Jan. 1886. *m.* Achamma John 1921. *Educ.:* Madras Christian College; London School of Economics; Balliol College, Oxford. High Court Vakil, Madras, 1910-14; Officer on special duty, Co-operative Department, Madras, 1918-20; Professor of Economics, Presidency College, Madras, 1920-25; Professor of Indian Economics, University of Madras, 1922-25; Member, Madras Legislative Council, 1922-25; Member, Indian Tariff Board, 1925-31; President, Tariff Board, Simla, 1931. *Publications:* Village Government in British India; Agricultural Co-operation in India; Excise and Liquor Control. *Address:* Tariff Board, 1, Council House Street, Calcutta.

MAULA BAKHSH, NAWAB MAULA BAKHSH KHAN BAHADUR, C.I.E. of Batala, Punjab, India, *b.* 7 May 1862; *m.* 2nd daughter of Haji Mirza Abbas Khan, C.M.G., C.I.E., British Agent, Khurasan, Persia; Three *s*, five *d.* Joined Punjab Postal Dept. and having volunteered for service as Field Postmaster proceeded to Kandahar Frontier, 1880, Manager, Dead Letter Office, and Postal Stock Depot, Karachi, 1881; joined Imperial Circle, Public Works Dept., Simla, 1882. Services placed at disposal of Foreign and Political Dept., 1887, on special duty, North-Eastern Persia, 1887-1888; Attache, Hashtadan Perso-Afghan Boundary Commission, 1888-89; Attache to Agent to Governor-General and H. B. M.'s Consul-General, Meshed, 1890. Asst. Agent Govr. Genl., Khurasan and Seistan, 1894; British Vice-Consul, Khurasan and Seistan, 1896-98; on Special Political duty in Kain, Seistan and Baluchistan, 1898; on special duty in Intelligence Branch, Quarter-Master-General's Dept., Simla, for revising Gazetteer of Persia, 1898-1899; Asst. Dist. Supdt. of Police in charge, Nushki District, Baluchistan, 1900; Extra Asstt. Commissioner and Magistrate, Punjab, 1900-1; Personal Assistant to Chief Commissioner, Baluchistan, 1901-2; Attache, Seistan Boundary Commission, 1902-4, Oriental Secretary, Kabul Political Mission, 1904-05; Attache, Foreign and Political Dept. Government of India, 1905-19, Chief Indian Political Officer with H. M. Amir Habibullah Khan of Afghanistan during H. M.'s Indian tour, 1906-7; Political Officer, North West Afghan Frontier Field Force, 1919; Secretary, Indo-Afghan Peace Conference, Rawalpindi, 1919. Home Minister, Jammu and Kashmir State, 1919-22; Member, Jammu and Kashmir State Council, 1922-23; Chief Minister, Bahawalpur State, 1925-28. *Address:* Woodlands, Simla, E; Iram, Srinagar, Kashmir; Iffatabad, Lyallpur Dist.

MAUNG KUN, B.A., Bar-at-Law and Member, Burma Legislative Council, *b.* 27 August 1891. *m.* Ma Aye. *Educ.:* Government High School, Bassein, Burma, The Rangoon College, Rangoon, and Gray's Inn., London, Assistant Registrar, Chief Court of Lower Burma at Rangoon from 1918-1920 when resigned and started practice at the Bar. *Address:* Bassein, Burma.

MAUNG TOK KYI, B.A., *b.* 1884. *Educ.:* Rangoon College. Member of the Subordinate Civil Service, Burma, from 1908 to 1920; resigned Govt. service and joined editorial staff of *The Sun* in 1920; became Managing Director, 1921; elected to the Municipal Corporation, Rangoon, 1922; elected Member, Leg. Assembly, 1923 and elected to Rangoon University Council, 1924. Founded Burma Swaraj Party and elected its leader, 1925. Re-elected Member, Legislative Assembly, 1926. Founded "The Kesara", a weekly Burmese paper in 1929. Resigned the Directorship of the Sun Press Ltd., Rangoon, held from 1920 to 1929 with a short break. Resigned from Legislative Assembly, 1930. *Address:* 7, Strand Road, Moulmein.

MAWNG, SIR SAO, K.C.I.E., K.S.M., SAWBWA OF YAWNGHWE, Member of Federal Council of Shan Chiefs. *Address:* Yawnghwe, Shan States, Burma.

MAXWELL, REGINALD MAITLAND, C.S.I. (1933), M.A. (Oxon.), C.I.E. (1923), I.C.S., Secretary to Government of Bombay, Home Dept., *b.* 24 Aug. 1882. *m.* Mary Lyle, *d.*

of the Rev. Henry Haigh, D. D. *Educ.*: Marlborough and Corpus Christi College, Oxford. Entered the I.C.S. 1906; Collector of Salt Revenue, 1916; Dy. Commissioner of Salt and Excise, 1917-1919; acted as Private Secretary to the Governor of Bombay, 1920-21; Secretary, Retrenchment Committee, 1921-23; Collector and District Magistrate from 1924; acted as Secretary to Government of Bombay, General Department, 1928; Special duty as Revenue Officer, Bardoli Revision Settlement Inquiry. 1928-1929; Private Secretary to the Governor of Bombay, 1929. Secretary to Government of Bombay, Home Department, 1931. *Address*: Secretariat, Bombay.

MD. ABDUR RAHMAN, SIR, Kt. (1934), B.A. (1907); LL.B. (1910); Khan Bahadur (1929); Advocate and Vice-Chancellor, Delhi University, Delhi. *b.* 5 Oct. 1888. *Educ*: St. Stephen's College, Delhi; Law College, Lahore. Elected Member in the Municipal Committee of Delhi from 1922-1930. Elected Senior Vice-President, 1924-27. Elected and appointed Vice-Chancellor in November 1930; re-elected in 1932. *Address*: 26, Ferozeshah Road, New Delhi.

MEHRBAN, NOWSHERWAN ASPANDIAR, B.A., Fellow of the Royal Statistical Society; Investigator, Labour Office and Asst. Registrar of Trade Unions, Bombay Presidency. *b.* 2nd June 1890. *m.* Jerbanoo *d.* of Dr. Hormusjee D. Pesikaka. *Educ.*: Boys' High School, Allahabad, St. Xavier's High School, Bombay and Elphinstone College, Bombay, Gaikwar Scholar, Elphinstone College. Secretary to Sir Dorab Tata, 1912; Secretary, R. G. Baldock Ltd., 1917; Secy., Indian Traders Pty. Ltd., 1919; Secy., Messrs. Australian & Eastern Co., Pty., Ltd., 1921; appointed Investigator, Labour Office, Government of Bombay 1923, and Asst. Registrar of Trade Unions, Bombay Presidency, 1927; Officiated as Senior Investigator, Labour Office in 1923 and 1929-30 and as Registrar of Trade Unions, Bombay Presidency in April-May 1930. Secretary, Bombay Strike Inquiry Committee (Fawcett Committee) from October 1928 to April 1929. Technical Adviser to Government Delegates and Secretary to Indian Delegation, 15th Session, International Labour Conference, Geneva, 1931. On deputation to the British Ministry of Labour and the International Labour Office whilst on leave out of India, 1931. *Publications*: Compiled section on "Labour" for the Indian Year Book, 1930. *Address*: Mount Vilas, Bandra Hill, Bandra.

MEHTA, KHAN BAHADUR SIR BEZONJI DADABHOY, KT. *Address*: Nagpur.

MEHTA, SIR CHUNILAL VIJBHUCANDAS, Kt., K.C.S.I. (1928), M.A., LL.B., Provincial Scout Commissioner. *b.* 12 Jan. 1881. *m.* to Tarabai Chandulal Kankodiwala. *Educ*: St. Xavier's College, Bombay; Captain, Hindu XI; elected to the Bombay Municipal Corporation in 1907; Chairman, Standing Committee, 1912; President of the Corporation, 1916. Elected to the Bombay Legislative Council by the Corporation in 1916; elected to the City Improvement Trust, 1918; Chairman of the Indian Merchants' Chamber, 1918. Elected to the Bombay Port Trust, 1920; Millowner and Chairman Bombay Provincial Co-operative Bank, Ltd., Director, The Bombay Steam Navigation Co., Ltd., The New India Assurance Co., Ltd., The Bombay Suburban Electric Supply, Ltd., The Bundi Portland Cement Co., Ltd., The Bank of India Ltd., Tata Iron and Steel Co., and several other joint stock companies. Minister, Bombay Government, 1921-23. Member of the Executive Council of the Bombay Government, 1923-28. President, Indian Merchants' Chamber (1931). *Address*: 42, Ridge Road, Malabar Hill, Bombay.

MEHTA, DHANJIBHAI HORMASJI, L.M. & S., C.I.E. (1932), Kaisar-i-Hind Gold Medal (1920); Donat of St. John Silver Medal (1917); Raj Ratna Silver Medal, Baroda (1916). Associate Serving Brother's Badge at the hands of His Majesty during the Centenary Celebrations of St. John Ambulance Association, 1931. Retired Sanitary Commissioner, Baroda. *b.* 4 February 1864. *m.* to a cousin. *Educ.*: Sir Cowasji Jehangir Naosari Zarthosti Madressa and the Grant Medical College, Bombay. Joined Baroda Med. Service, 1887; did Inoculation work with Prof. Haffkine; gave evidence on the value of inoculation before 1st Plague Commission. Did Cholera inoculations with Major Lamb. Has popularised St. John Ambulance work and Red Cross Work all over Gujarat, Sind, Kathiawad, Central India, Central Provinces, Punjab, N.W.F. Province, Rajputana, Khandesh, Deccan and Thana District by giving over 900 lectures earned for the Red Cross over Rs. 1,33,900 by enrolling 3,170 Members, and published 48 books on Ambulance, Nursing, Hygiene, Midwifery Red Cross, etc., Contributed Rs. 20,000 for erection of Parsi Ambulance Division. Headquarters Building, Bombay. *Address*: Malesar, Navsari.

MEHTA, FATEH LAL, *s.* of late Rai Pannalal, C.I.E. Member of the Mehadraj Sabha (Highest Judicial Court). *b.* 1868. *Publication*: "Handbook of Mewar and Guide to its Principal Objects of Interest." *Address*: Rai, Pannalal Mansion, Udaipur, Rajputana.

MEHTA, THE HON. SIR HORMUSJI MANECKJI, KT. (1933); Member, Council of State, Merchant and Millowner. *b.* 1 April 1871. *m.* to Gulbai, *d.* of late Mr. H. R. Umrigar. *Educ*: at Bombay. Started life as assistant in Bombay Mint in 1888: subsequently joined China Mill, Ltd. and started business on his own account in 1896; bought Victoria Mills in 1904; Jubilee Mills in 1914; Raja Gokaldas Mills in 1916; Gaekwar Mills in 1929. Established Zenith Life Assurance Co. in 1912 and British India General Insurance Co., Ltd. in 1919. Established Poona Electric Supply Co., Ltd., in 1916; Navsari E. I. Co., Ltd. in 1922 and Nasik Deolali Electric Supply Co., Ltd., in 1930; T. R. Pratt Bombay Ltd. and M. T. Ltd. in 1919; Uganda Commercial Co., Ltd., in 1922 in East Africa. Nadiad Electric Supply Co., Ltd., in 1931. *Address*: Carmichael Road, Cumballa Hill, Bombay.

MEHTA, JAMNADAS M., M.A., LL.B., Bar-at-Law. *b.* 3 August 1884. *m.* Manibai, *d.* of Ratanji Ladhuji. *Educ.*: Jamnagar, Junagad, Bombay, London. Member, Bombay Municipal Corporation; Member, Legislative Assembly, 1923-1929. President, Accounts Staff Union, G. I. P. Rly.; President, All-India Railwaymen's Federation, Bom. Tramwaysmen's Union, Bombay, Port Trust Employees' Union, All-India Salaried Employees' Federation and Indian Trade Union Unity Conference. President B. B. & C. I. Railway Employees' Union and Bombay Taxi Drivers' Union; President, Maharashtra Provincial Congress Committee, 1921-23; President, Bombay Provincial Congress Committee, 1929-1930; President, Thana District Congress Committee, 1921-1932; and Member, All-India Congress Committee, 1921-1931. Member of the Working Committee of the Indian National Congress, 1926; Chairman, Asian Assurance Co., Ltd. *Address:* Ridge Road, Malabar Hill, Bombay.

MEHTA, JAYSUKHLAL KRISHNALAL, M.A. Secretary, Indian Merchants' Chamber, Bombay. *b.* 1884. *m.* to Mrs. Kumudagauri. *Educ:* Wadhwan High School and Gujarat and Elphinstone Colleges. Appointed Secretary, Indian Merchants' Chamber, 1907, Services borrowed by the Indian Munitions Board from Chamber and appointed Assistant Controller from September 1917 to November 1918; was nominated Adviser to the Representative of Employers for the third and 14th Sessions of the International Labour Conference, Geneva, in 1921 and 1930 after the Conference he toured about Europe and England both time for seeing the Chambers of Commerce and other commercial organisations there on behalf of the Indian Merchants' Chamber; Secretary of the Federation of Indian Chambers of Commerce from 1927-29. Vice-President of the Bombay Suburban District Congress Committee from 1921-25 and President of the Bombay Suburban District Congress Committee from 1925-29. Chairman of the Santa Cruz Notified Area Committee 1927-1932. *Address:* "Krishna Kutir", Santa Cruz, B. B. & C. I. and "The Recluse," 31, Murzban Road, Fort, Bombay.

MEHTA, DR. JIVRAJ NARAYAN, L.M.&S. (Bom.), M.D. (Lond.), M.R.C.P. (Lond.), F.C.P.S. (Bom.) former Dean, Gordhandas Sunderdas Medical Coll. and King Edward Memorial Hospital, Bombay. *b.* 29 Aug. 1887. *m.* Miss Hansa Manubhai Mehta. *Educ.:* High School education at Amreli, Baroda State, Grant Medical Coll., Bombay, and London Hospital. Formerly Asst. Director, Hale Clinical Laboratory, London Hospital, London, and Chief Medical Officer, Baroda State. *Address:* K. E. M. Hospital, Parel, Bombay.

MEHTA, SIR MANUBHAI NANSHANKAR, KT. (1922); C.S.I. (1919); M.A., LL.B.; Prime Minister and Chief Councillor, Bikaner State. *b.* 22 July 1868; *Educ.:* Elphinstone College, Bombay. *m.* first Harshad Kumari and on her death again Dhanvanta, 4 *s.* and 7 *d.* Professor of Logic and Philosophy and Law Lecturer, Baroda College, 1891-99. Priv. Sec. to Gackwar, 1899-1906; Rev. Minister and First Counsellor, 1914-16, Diwan of Baroda, 1916-27, Member of the Indian Round Table Conferences 1930, 1931 and 1932; Member, Consultative Committee 1932; Indian States' Delegate to the Joint Parliamentary Committee on Indian Reforms, 1933. *Publications:* The Hind Rajasthan or Annals of Native States of India; Principles of Law of Evidence (in Gujarati, 3 Volumes). *Address:* Bikaner.

MEHTA, ROOSTUMJEE DHUNJEEBHOY, J.P., C.I.E.; Merchant; Port Commissioner, 1888-91; Chairman, Local Board, Alipur, 1886-1917; Chairman, Manicktolla Municipality; Sheriff of Calcutta, 1893; Consul for Persia at Calcutta, 1899-1904; Presidency Magistrate. *Publications:* The Exchange Imbroglio; Indian Railway Economics; Indian Railway Policy, Indian Railway Management. *Address:* 9, Rainey Park, Ballygunge, Calcutta.

MEHTA, VAIKUNTH LALUBHAI, B.A., Managing Director, Bombay Provincial Co-operative Bank, Ltd. *b.* 23 Oct. 1891. *m.* Mangla, *d.* of Prataprai Vajeshanker of Bhavnagar. *Educ.* New High School, Bombay, Elphinstone College, Bombay. Winner of Ellis Scholarship for highest number of marks in English at the B.A. Examination. Worked with Central Famine Relief Committee and Servants of India Society for famine relief work, 1911-12: Hon. Manager. Bombay Central (Provincial) Co-operative Bank, Ltd., Bombay (1912-15) as Manager from 1915-1922, and Managing Director since 1922. Editor, Social Service Quarterly, since 1915; Bombay Co-operative Quarterly, 1916-30; Secretary, Social Service League, Bombay; Member Executive Committee, Bombay Provincial Co-operative Institute, Bombay; Member, Bombay Provincial Banking Inquiry Committee, 1929. Joint Hon. Secretary, Bombay Swadeshi League, 1932; Member, Bombay Provincial Board, Servants of the Untouchable Society. *Publications:* The Co-operative Movement (*The Times of India Press*), 1915; The Co-operative Movement in India (Servants of India Society pamphlet in collaboration with Mr. V. Venkata Subbaiya), (Arya Bhusan Press), 1918. Studies in Co-operative Finance (Servants of India Society pamphlet), 1927. *Address.* Murzbanabad, Andheri (B.B. & C.I. Railway.)

MERCHANT, FRAMROZ RUSTOMJI, F.S.A.A., J.P., Asst. Commissioner of Income Tax, Bombay City. *b.* 12 Nov. 1888. *Educ:* Bombay and London. Formerly, Professional Accountant and Auditor; Lecturer in Accounting, Sydenham Coll. of Commerce and Economics; Offg. Secretary and Chief Accountant, City of Bombay Improvement Trust; Examiner in Accounting to the Univ. of Bombay. *Publications:* "Elements of Book-keeping"; "Company Secretary and Accountant"; "Income-Tax in relation to Accounts", "Indian Income-Tax Simplified," "Book-Keeping Self-Taught," etc. *Address:* 33-35, New Queen's Road, Bombay, (4).

METCALFE, HERBERT AUBREY FRANCIS, B.A., (Oxon.); C.S.I. (1933); C.I.E. (1929); M.V.O. (1922); Indian Civil Service (Political Department). *b.* 27 Sept. 1883. *m.* Elinor

Joyce Potter. *Educ.:* Charterhouse and Christ Church, Oxford. Served in Punjab, 1908-1913; Entered Political Department, 1913; Asst. Private Secretary to Viceroy, 1914-1917; served in N.W.F.P. 1917-1925; Counsellor to Legation, Kabul, 1925-1926, served in N.W.F.P. 1926-1930; Deputy Secretary to Government of India, 1930-1932; Foreign Secretary to Government of India, May 1932. *Address:* c'o Foreign and Political Department, New Delhi.

MIAN, ABDUL RASHID, THE HON. MR. JUSTICE B.A., (Punjab); M.A. (Cantab.); Temporary Judge, High Court, Lahore. *b.* 29 June 1889. *m. d.* of Nawab Maula Bakhsh, C.I.E., *Educ.*; Central Model School and Forman Christian College, Lahore, and at Christ's College, Cambridge. Practised at Lahore, 1913-1933; appointed Asst. Legal Remembrancer, 1925; officiated as Govt. Advocate Punjab in 1927, 1929 and 1930. *Address:* 16, Masson Road, Lahore.

MIEVILLE, ERIC CHARLES, C.M.G. (1930); C.I.S. (1933); Private Secretary to H. E. The Viceroy. *b.* 31 January 1896. *m.* Dorothy, *d.* of G.C.A. Haslock, Cobham, Surrey. *Educ:* St. Paul's School. Entered China Consular Service in 1919; was Private Secretary to successive British Ministers in Peking, 1919-27; Secretary to Governor-General of Canada, 1927-31; appointed Private Secretary to the Viceroy, April 1931. *Address:* Viceroy's Camp, India.

MILLER, SIR DAWSON, KT., K.C., Ch. Justice of Patna High Court, since 1917; *b.* Dec. 1867. *Educ.:* Durham Sch. and Trinity Coll., Oxford: Bar, Inner Temple, 1891. *Address:* High Court, Patna.

MILLER, ARTHUR CONGREVE, M. A. (Cantab.), O.B.E. (1924); Principal, Rajkumar College, Rajkot. *b.* 24 Jan. 1877. *m.* Molly Celia Miller (nee Freeth). *Educ.* S. Edward's School, Oxford and Selwyn Coll., Cambridge. Schoolmaster 1898-1908 in England, Scotland and South Africa; 1908-1911 Schoolmaster in India. In 1911 joined Indian Educational Service as Headmaster, Belgaum; Inspector, S. D. Assist. to the D.P.I., Vice-Principal of Rajkumar College, Rajkot, Principal of D. J. Sind College, Karachi. Obtained Commission in the Army and was demobilised in 1919 as Captain. Organiser and Provincial Secretary of Boy Scouts in the Bombay Presidency, Inspector of European Schools, Educational Inspector in Sind; Principal Rajkumar Coll., Rajkot. *Publications:* Seven Letters to Indian Schoolboys; Monograph on School Management; Barnaby Rudge (Stories retold series). *Address:* Rajkumar College, Rajkot.

MILLER, THE HON. MR. ERNEST, Member of Council of State and General Manager (Development) for India, Burma-Shell Oil Storage and Distributing Co. of India, Ltd. and Chairman, Bombay Chamber of Commerce (1931). *b.* 22nd June 1879. *Educ:* private school. Entered firm of Arbuthnot Ewart & Co., London, 1900 and came out to India in 1902 being stationed at both Bombay and Karachi until 1914. Joined Scots Guards September 1914 and proceeded to France Nov. 1914, War Office, London, 1917 and attached British War Mission to U. S. A. 1918. Demobilised 1919 with Ag. rank of Captain and returned to India as Manager of Ewart Ryrie & Co., Karachi. Joined Asiatic Petroleum Co. (India) Ltd. 1921 and posted to Calcutta; transferred Bombay 1925. With Burma-Shell since formation 1928; Member of Committee, Bombay Chamber of Commerce, 1926, 1928 and Vice-President, 1929. Member, Bombay Legislative Council Committee attached Simon Commission; Member of Indian Franchise Committee, 1932; President, Indian Roads and Transport Development Association. *Address:* Claremont, Malabar Hill, Bombay.

MILLER, SIR LESLIE, KT. (1914), C.B.E. (1919). Chief Judge, Mysore, 1914-22. *b.* 28 June 1862. *m.* Margaret Lowry, O.B.E. *Educ.:* Charterhouse, and Trinity College, Dublin. Entered I.C.S., 1881. Judge of the Madras High Court, 1906-14. *Address:* Glen Morgan, Pykara, Nilgiri Hills.

MIRZA M. ISMAIL, AMIN-UL-MULK, SIR, KT. (1930), B.A. (1905), C.I.E. (1924), O.B.E. (1923), Dewan of Mysore. *b.* 1883. *m.* Zebinda Begum of Shirazee family. *Educ:* The Royal School at Mysore, Central College, Bangalore, for B.A.; Superintendent of Police, 1905; Asstt. Secretary to H. H. the Maharaja, 1908; Huzur Secretary to H. H. the Maharaja, 1914; Private Secretary to H. H. the Maharaja, 1922; Dewan of Mysore, 1926. Invited to the Round Table Conference in 1930 as a delegate from South Indian States, and in 1931 as a delegate of Mysore, Jodhpur and Jaipur (Rajputana). Member of the Consultative Committee. Delegate to the Third Indian Round Table Conference, 1932 and the Joint Select Committee, 1933. *Address:* Bangalore.

MISRA, PANDIT HARKARAN NATH, B.A., LL.B. (Cantab.), M.L.A. (1924), Bar.-at-Law (Inner Temple). *b.* 16 July 1890. *m.* Shrimati Bhagwan Devi of Cawnpore Dist. *Educ.:* Muir Central College, Allahabad and Gonville and Caius College, Cambridge (1911-1925.) Joined Non-Co-operation Movement in 1920; Member of the All-India Congress Committee; Senior Vice-Chairman of Municipal Board, Lucknow. Joint Secretary, Oudh Bar Association; Member of the Bar Council of Chief Court of Oudh; Member of the Lucknow University Court, Chairman, District Board, Lucknow. *Publications:* Asstt. Editor of Oudh Law Journal, Lucknow, from 1916-1920. *Address:* 6, Neill Road, Lucknow.

MISRA, RAI BAHADUR PANDIT SHYAM BEHARI M.A.; ex-member Council of State; Adviser-in-Chief, Orcha State, Tikamgarh, C.I.; Member of the Allahabad University Court and Faculty of Arts, and of Benares Hindu University Court, Member, Hindustani Academy, U. P. ex-President, All-India Kanya kubja Sabha, President Kanya kubja Inter-College Committee, Lucknow and President, All-India Hindi Sahitya Sammelan, Allahabad. *b.* 12 August 1873. *m.* Miss B. D. Bajpai, has two *s.*, five *d. Educ:* Jubilee High School and Canning College, Lucknow. Entered Executive Branch U. P. Civil Service in 1897 as Deputy Collector;

was on special duty in 1903,1908, 1909,1921 and 1922 in connection with consolidation of agricultural holdings on the last occasion; was Deputy Superintendent and Offg. Superintendent of Police (1906-09); on deputation as Dewan, Chhatarpur State, C. I. (1910-14): Personal Asstt. to Excise Commr., U. P. (1917-20); Dy. Commr., Gonda (1920-21) for over a year, besides having twice officiated as Magte. and Collr. of Bulandshahr, Jt. Registrar of Co-operative Societies, (1922-24) and Registrar, Aug. 1924 to December (1926). Retired as permanent Deputy Commissioner, Unao, U.P. (1928) and became Dewan, Orchha State in January 1929. *Publications:* several standard works in Hindi including the Misra-Bandhu Vinoda (a text-book for B. A. & M.A., Examinations) and the Hindi Nava Ratna (text-book in the Degree of Honours Examination). *Address:* Golaganj, Lucknow.

MITCHELL, DAVID GEORGE, B.Sc. (Edin.), C.S.I.(1932),C.I.E.(June 1923)V.D. Indian Civil Service. Secretary, Industries and Labour Department, 1933. *b.* 31 March 1879. *m.* Elizabeth Duncan Wharton. *Educ.:* George Heriots School, Edinburgh, Edinburgh University, Lincoln College, Oxford. Joined I. C. S., Oct. 1903. Divisional and Sessions Judge in Central Provinces, 1913, Legal Secretary and Legal Remembrancer to Government of C. P. and Secretary to C. P. Legislative Council, 1919. Officiated as Additional Judicial Commissioner, June 1926. Joint Secretary and Draftsman Government of India, Legislative Department, April 1927. Offg. Secretary, Legislative Dept., Govt. of India. *Address:* Delhi and Simla.

MITRA, THE HON. SIR BHUPENDRA NATH, M.A., K.C.S.I. (1928), K.C.I.E. (1924), C.B.E. (1919), High Commissioner for India in United Kingdom, Dec. 1924. *b.* Oct. 1875. *Educ.:* Metropolitan Institution, Hare School and Presidency College, Calcutta. Held Ministerial appts. from 2nd April 1896; apptd. to enrolled list, Finance Dept., Jan. 1919; Asstt. Secry., Sept. 1910; on special duty in connection with Royal Commission on Indian Finance and Currency, June to September 1913; on deptn. as Controller of War Accounts from May 1915; O.B.E., Dec. 1917; Mill. Acctt.-General, Nov. 1919; Offg. Financial Adviser, Mill. Fin. Branch, May 1920; confirmed May 1922; temp. Member of Governor-General's Council, April 1924; Confd. Dec. 1924; Temporary Finance Member, March to June 1925. *Address:* India House, Aldwych, London, W. C. 2.

MITTER, THE HON. SIR BROJENDRA LAL, KT. (1928); K. C. S. I.(1932); M.A., B.L., Barrister-at-Law. Member, Bengal Executive Council, 1934. Formerly Advocate-General of Bengal and Law Member, Govt. of India, 1928-34. *b.* May 1875. *m.* a daughter of Mr. P. N. Bose, late of the Geological Survey and *g. d.* of the late R. C. Dutt, I.C.S. *Educ.:* Presidency Col., Calcutta and Lincoln's Inn. *Address:* 5, Outram Street, Calcutta and Simla and New Delhi.

MITTER, THE HON. MR. JUSTICE DWARKANATH, M.A., D.L. Ordinary Fellow of the University of Calcutta; Dean of the Faculty of Law. Member, Council of State (1924); formerly Advocate, High Court, Calcutta. *b.* 29 Feb. 1876. *m. d.* of Bala Charan Dutt of Calcutta. *Educ:* Presidency College, Calcutta. Joined High Court Bar in 1897; In 1916 elected an ordinary Fellow of Calcutta University for five years and appointed Judge of the Calcutta High Court in November 1926. *Publications:* A Thesis on Position of Women in Hindu Law, published by Calcutta University. *Address:* 12, Theatre Road, Chowringhee, Calcutta.

MITTER, RAI BAHADUR KHAGENDRANATH. M.A., (Gold Medalist), *b.* 1880. *m,* Sneharama. *Educ.:* Presidency College, Calcutta. Nominated Member, Legislative Assembly, 1922 and 1923; Member, Council of State, 1924 and 1925; Fellow (elected), Calcutta University (1922 to 1926); late editor of Bangiya Sahitya Parisat Patrika. Late Senior Professor of Philosophy. Presidency College, Calcutta. Inspector of Schools. Presidency Division. Fellow, Calcutta University (1928); University Professor of Beangali Literature and Head of the Department of Indian Vernaculars, Calcutta University, President, Literary Section, Calcutta University Institute. *Publications:* Author of several works in Bengali on history, literature and fiction. *Address:* Ballygunge Place, Calcutta.

MIYAN, ASJAD-ULLAH, MAULVI, M.L.A. Hon. Magte., Kishangunj, Zamindar of Mehengaon. *b.* 5 Jan. 1883. *m.* Bibi S. Nisa, *d.* of late Moulvi Insaf Ali of Henria. *Educ.* at Mehengaon. Member, Dist. Board, Purneah (Bihar); and Member, Local Board, Kishanganj; Vice-President, Anjuman-i-Islamia, Kishanganj. *Address:* Mehengaon, P. O. Kishanganj, Dist. Purneah, Bihar.

MOBERLY, BERTRAND RICHARD, MAJOR-GENERAL, C.B. (1929); D.S.O. (1915); Deputy Chief of the General Staff (India.). *b.* 15th Oct. 1877. *m.* Hylda, *d.* of late A. C. Willis, Esq., of the Union Bank of Australia, Ltd., *Educ.:* Winchester College, Royal Military College, Sandhurst Staff College, Camberley. First Commission Unattached List for Indian Army, 1897; Major-General, Indian Army, 1930; served in 18th Bengal Infantry and 2nd Pubjab Infantry (Punjab Frontier Force) now 2nd Battalion, 13th Frontier Force Rifles; commanded 2nd Battalion, 56th Rifles (Frontier Force) now 10th Battalion; 13th Frontier Force Rifles; Campaigns—N.W. Frontier of India, Waziristan 1901-02; Somaliland Field Force, 1903-04; Jibdalli; Great War, 1914-18; Egypt, Gallipoli, Salonika. *Address:* Army Headquarters, Delhi and Simla.

MOBERLY, CHARLES NOEL, C.I.E., V.D., M.Inst. C.E., General Manager, The Bombay Electric Supply & Tramways Co., Ltd. *b.* 24th Dec. 1880. *m.* Kate Charlotte, *d.* of the late James Edward Fottrell of Dublin. *Educ:* Rugby School. Technical training. The Brush Electrical Engineering Co., Ltd. Loughborough & Yorkshire College, Leeds. Joined The B. E. S. & T. Co., Ltd., 1905, General Manager, 1923. Ex. Lt.-Col. Commanding Bombay Battalion I.D.F.; employed on staff of Bombay Brigade, 1918-1919. *Address:* Electric House, Fort, Bombay.

MODY, HORMUSJI PEROSHAW, M.A. (1904), LL.B. (1906), Advocate, High Court, Bombay: *b.* 23 Sept. 1881; *m.* Jerbai, *d.* of Kavasji Dadabhoy Dubash. *Educ.*: St. Xavier's Coll., Bombay. Mem. of Bombay Mun. Corp. Chairman of its Standing Committee, 1921-22; and President, 1923-24; Chairman, Bombay Millowners' Association, 1927-28, 1929-30, 1930-31, 1931-32, 1932-33 and 1933-34. President, Indian Merchants' Chamber, 1928-29; President, Employers Federation of India, 1933-34; Member, Legislative Assembly; Member, Round Table Conference and Reserve Bank Committee Director, Central Bank of India, Ltd., and many other concerns. *Publications*: The Political Future of India (1908); Life of Sir Pherozeshah Mehta, (1921). *Address*: Cumballa Hill, Bombay.

MOENS, MAJOR-GENERAL ARTHUR WILLIAM HAMILTON MAY, C.B. (1923); C.M.G. (1919); D.S.O. (1917), Commander, Lahore District, since 1931. *b.* 1879. *m.* 1st 1908; Agnes Swetenham, *d.* of late Thelwell Pike, M.D., 2nd, 1919, Agnes Marianne, *d.* of late Captain A. G. Douglas, R.N., and *widow* of Captain D. Affleck-Graves, R.E. *Educ.*: Charterhouse; R.M.C. Sandhurst. Served Somaliland, 1903-04, (medal and two clasps); European War, (Mesopotamia), 1915-18, (despatches, D.S.O., Brevet Major, Brevet Lt.-Col.); Iraq Rising, 1920-21 (despatches). *Address*: Lahore.

MOHAMMAD EJAZ RASUL KHAN, RAJA, C.S.I. (1924), Talukdar of Jahangirabad. *b.* 28 June 1884. *Educ.*: Colvin Talukdars School, Lucknow. First non-official Chairman of the District Board, Bara Banki. Besides numerous other charitable contributions, the following are the chief:—Rs. 1,25,000 to the Prince of Wales' Memorial, Lucknow, Rs. 50,000 to Sir Harcourt Butler Technological Institute, Cawnpore, and Rs. 1,00,000 to the Lucknow University. Member of the Red Cross Society. Contributed Rs. 10,000 to Lady Reading Child Welfare Fund and Rs. 5,000 to Aligarh University for Maris Scholarship; Vice-President of the British Indian Association and Member of the United Service Club; Honorary Magistrate and Honorary Munsif, Chairman, Board. *Address*: Dist. Bara Banki; Jahangirabad Palace, Lucknow.

MOHAMMAD YAKUB, MAULVI SIR, Kt., Lawyer. *b.* 27 Aug. 1879. *m.* Wahida Begum, Editor, Tehzib-e-Niswan, Lahore (*d.* in 1917). *Educ.*: M. A. O. College, Aligarh, First non-official Chairman, Municipal Board, Moradabad, Senior Vice-Chairman, District Board; Trustee M.A.O. College; Member, Court of Muslim University, Aligarh; Presided over All-India Muslim League Session 1927; Member, Age of Consent Committee, 1928. Member, Legis. Assembly; Deputy President, Legislative Assembly; President, Legislative Assembly, 1930; Hon. Secretary, All-India, Muslim League. Member, Indian Franchise Committee. 1932. *Address*: Mohallah Moghalpur, Moradabad.

MOHAMMAD ZAFRULLA KHAN. (*See* under Zafrulla Khan Chaudhari Muhammad).

MOHAMMED YAMIN KHAN, THE HON. MR., B.A., C.I.E., (1931), M.L.A., of the Allahabad University (1911), Bar-at-Law; Member, Council of State (1924); Senior Vice-Chairman, Municipal Board, Meerut. *b.* June 1888. *m.* to a cousin. *Educ.*: at Meerut College, M.A.O. College, Aligarh and England. Practising as Barrister in Meerut, since Dec. 1914. Acted as Secretary of U. P. War Fund for Meerut District; Secretary, Y.M.C.A. Funds, Secretary, Dist. War League. Was elected a member of the Municipal Board, Meerut, in 1916 and Vice-Chairman a year later. Elected Member, Legislative Assembly, 1920; Member of the Legislative Assembly, 1920-1923. Nominated a member of Leg. Assembly to represent U. P. in 1927. Elected Chairman, Municipal Board, June 1928. Elected Member, Leg. Assembly from Agra Division, 1930. *Address*: Junnut Nishan, Meerut.

MOHOMED ABBAS KHAN, KHAN BAHADUR. Merchant. *Educ.*: in Mysore. A member of the representative assembly, Mysore, for over 20 years; served as member of Mysore Legislative Council for over 10 years; as Hon. President, Bangalore City Municipal Council for nearly 4 years; has been General Secretary, Central Mahomedan Association, for 25 years; Presided over non-Brahmin Youth League, Madras, 1928; Elected President, Mysore State Muslim Conference, 1932. *Address*: Muslim Hall Road, Bangalore City.

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MOOKERJEE, SIR NARAYAN, Zamindar of Uttarpara; *b.* April 1859. Member, Bengal Legislative Council, since 1918; *m.* 1878; one *s.* *Educ.*: Uttarpara School; Presidency College, Calcutta; Chairman of the Uttarpara Municipality since 1887; Chairman of the Bench of Hon. Magistrates, 1889; Managing Committee of the British Indian Association, 1889; a Member of the Asiatic Society; a life Member of St. John Ambulance Association; Member of the Provincial Advisory Committee for Indian Students, 1918; a Member of the National Liberal League, and Vice-President of Bengal Humanitarian Association; elected to Executive Committee of All-India Landholders' Association, 1919. *Address*: Uttarpara, near Calcutta.

MOOKERJEE, SIR RAJENDRA NATH, K.C.I.E., K.C.V.O. (1922), M.I.M.E. (Hon. Life), M.I.E. (Ind.), D.Sc. (Eng.), F.A.S.B.; Civil Engr.; *b.* 1854. *Educ.*: London Missionary Institution at Bhowanipur: Presidency College, Civil Engineering Branch, Calcutta; Senior Partner in Martin & Co., and Burn & Co., Calcutta; Member of Indian Industrial Commission, 1917-1918; Member of Indian Railway Committee, 1920-1921

President, Howrah Bridge Committee, 1921; President, Bengal Retrenchment Committee, 1922; Member, All-India Retrenchment Committee, 1922; Member, Indian Coal Committee; Royal Commission on Indian Currency and Finance, 1926; President of Board of Trustees, Indian Museum, Calcutta; a Fellow of Calcutta Univ., Member of Court of Visitors, Ind. Inst. Science; Sheriff of Calcutta, 1911; Member of the Board of the Governing Body of Bengal Engineering College. Ex-President, the Institution of Engineers (India). Member Governing Body of the School of Tropical Medicine and Hygiene; President, Indian Science Congress, 1922; Fellow, Asiatic Society of Bengal, President 1924-25; Governor, Imperial Bank of India, 1921-1928. *Address*: 7, Harington Street, Calcutta.

MOORE, W. ARTHUR, Editor of *The Statesman*, Classical Scholar of St. John's College, Oxford, 1900-1904; President, Oxford Union Society, 1904; *b.* 1880. *m.* Maud Eileen, only surviving child of George Maillet. *Educ.*: Campbell Coll., Belfast and St. John's College, Oxford. Secretary, Balkan Committee, 1904-08, during which time travelled extensively in all the Balkan Countries. Special Correspondent of *The Times* for Young Turk Revolution, 1908, and in Albania: Special Correspondent, 1909, *Daily Chronicle*, *Daily News* and *Manchester Guardian* at Siege of Tabriz Persia. Joined foreign and war staff of *The Times*, 1910; Persian Correspondent, 1910-12; Russian Correspondent, 1913; Spain, 1914; Albanian Revolution, 1914; Retreat from Mons and Battle of Marne, 1914; obtained commission in Rifle Brigade; served Dardanelles, 1915; Salonika, 1915-17 (General Staff Officer, flying, 1918, with military mission (General Sir G. T. Bridges) in Constantinople and the Balkans; Squadron Leader, R.A.F.; demobilised May 1919; despatches twice; M.B.E. (military); Serbian White Eagle; Greek Order of the Redeemer; Middle-Eastern Correspondent of *The Times*, 1919-22, visiting Egypt, Palestine, Syria, Mesopotamia, Persia, Caucasus, India, Afghanistan, M.L.A. (Bengal) 1926-1933. *Publications*: The Miracle (By 'Antrim Oriel,' Constable, 1908); The Orient Express (Constable 1914). *Address*: "The Statesman," Calcutta.

MOOS, DR. F. N. A., M.D., B.S. (Lond), D.P.H., (Eng.), D.T.M. & Hy. (Eng.), M.B.B.S. (Bombay), F.R.I.P.H. (London), F.C.P.S. (Bombay), J.P., Superintendent, and Chief Medical Officer, Goculdas Tejpal Hospital. *b.* 22 Aug. 1893. *Educ.*: at Cathedral and New High Schools, Elphinstone and Grant Medical College, Bombay; Univ. Coll. and Hospital, London; Clinical Fellow in Medicine, Grant Coll., Bombay; Medical Registrar, J. J. Hospital, Bombay; House Surgeon, Metropolitan Hospital, London; Tuberculosis Medical Officer, Boros of Stoke Newington; Hackney and Poplar, London; Medical Referee, London; War Pensions Committee; Lecturer on Tuberculosis, University of Bombay; Hon. Physician, G. T. Hospital, Bombay; Fellow of the Royal Society of Public Health; Fellow, University of Bombay. Fellow, College of Physicians and Surgeons, Bombay. *Publications*: Present Position of Tuberculosis, Prevention of Tuberculosis and Pandemic of Influenza, 1918, etc., etc. *Address*: Alice Buildings, Hornby Road, Fort, Bombay.

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MORENO, H. W. B., DR., B.A., Ph.D., *b.* 1875. *Educ.*: at Calcutta University and Merchiston, Edinburgh. Founder *Century Review*, Anglo-Indian Recorder: ex. Lecturer, Calcutta University; ex. Member, Leg. Council, Bengal. ex. Hon. Magte., Sealdah, Calcutta; President, Anglo-Indian League (established in 1909); *Publications*: "History of the Bengal Newspapers," "Sorab and Rustom," "Story of the Rings," etc. *Address*: St. Thomas Mansion, 25/1 Elliott Road, Calcutta.

MOTICHAND, THE HON. RAJA SIR, C.I.E. (1916), Kt. (1930); Banker, Landlord and Millowner, *b.* 2 Aug. 1876. *Educ.*: privately; first Non-Official Chairman, Benares Municipal Board; Chairman, Benares Bank, Ltd.; Chairman of Benares Cotton and Silk Mills, Ltd.; Chairman, Benares Industries, Ltd.; Member, U.P. Legislative Council from 1913-1920; Member, Council of State, since 1920; Hon. Treasurer and Member of the Court and the Council of the Benares Hindu University; Chairman of numerous local bodies, educational, industrial and social; Member, U.P. Chamber of Commerce, Cawnpore. *Address*: Azmatgarh Palace, Benares.

MOTILAL, BIJAWARGI, M.A., LL.B., Diwan-i-Khas Bahudur. *b.* 28 April 1882. *m.* to Shrimati Kasturibai. *Educ.*: at Rutlam and Dhar and graduated from the Muir Central College, Allahabad; M.A. from the same College; LL.B. from University School of Law; was Headmaster, Victoria High School, Khairagarh and Tutor to Raja Lal Bahadursingh, Chief of Khairagarh, 1907-1909; was Legal practitioner for a few years in Central Indian States; Accountant-General, Jodhpur, 1918-1920; Accountant-General, Indore, 1920-23; Finance Minister, Indore, 1923-1932. *Address*: Dhar, Central India.

MOZOOMDAR, RAI JADUNATH BAHADUR VEDANTA VACHASPATI, M.A., B.L. Kaiser-i-Hind (1915); C.I.E. (1921) ex. M.L.C. and M.L.A.; Advocate and Land holder. *b.* Oct. 1859. *m.* Srimati Sarat

kumari, *d.* of late Babu Abhaya Charan Sarkar. *Educ.*: Canning Coll., Lucknow and Free Church Coll., Calcutta. Professor, Sanskrit College, Calcutta; Editor, *Tribune*, Lahore; Secry., Finance Dept., Kashmir, Principal, Katmandu Coll., Nepal; Advocate, Calcutta High Court. *Publications:* Amitva Prasar in 2 parts in Bengali; Commentary on Vedanta Philosophy in Bengali; Religion of Love in English, essays and addresses in English; Appeal to young Hindus in English; and numerous other works; Editor, *Hindu Patrika*. President, Jessore Medical Institute, Jessore Sammilam Institution and Bireswar Arya Vidya Pit; and Vice-President, Jessore Prasanna Madhusudan Girls' School. *Address:* Jessore, Bengal.

MUHAMMAD ABDUL QUADIR, KHAN BAHADUR MAULVI, B.A., LL.B., M.L.A., Pleader. *b.* 26th Dec., 1867. *Educ.*: Government College, Jubbulpore, C. P. and M.A.O. College, Aligarh. Was for some time Headmaster, Mohindra High School, Tikamgarh, Orchha, Bundelkhand. Practised in 1898 at Amraoti (Berar); Official Receiver (1917), Hon. Secretary, Berar Mahomedan Educational Conference. *Address*: Amraoti Camp (Berar), C.P.

MUHAMMAD, AHMAD SAID KHAN, HON'BLE CAPT. NAWAB, SIR. (*See* under Chhatari, Nawab of.)

MUHAMMAD MUKARRAM ALI KHAN, MUMTAZ-UD-DOWLAH NAWAB, Chief of Pahasu Estate and Tazimi Jagirdar (Jaipur State). *b.* 2 Sept. 1895. *m. d.* of late Koer Latafat Ali Khan, Chief of Sadabad, 2nd marriage, *d.* of Rao Abdul Hakeem Khan of Khairi Dist., Sharanpore. *Educ.*: Maharaja's Coll., Jaipur and M.A.O. Coll., Aligarh. Was Foreign Member of the Council of State, Jaipur, 1922-24; Visited Europe in 1924. *Publications:* Sada-i-Watan Tauqeed Nadir; Swarajya Home Rule. *Address*: Pahasu House, Aligarh.

MUIR, WINGATE WEMYSS, LIEUT-COL., C.B.E. (1926), M.V.O. (1923), O.B.E. (1918), Officer of the Crown of Roumania 1920; Commander of the Crown of Belgium 1926; *b.* 12th June 1879. *Educ.*: Haileybury College and the R.M.C. Sandhurst. Was in the Bedfordshire and Hertfordshire Regiment and 15th Ludhiana Sikhs (I.A.). *Address*: C/o The Agent, Imperial Bank of India, Simla.

MUKANDI LAL, B.A. (Oxon.), Bar-at-Law, ex. M.L.C., ex. Dy. President, U.P. Legis. Council. *b.* 14th Oct. 1890. *m. née* Miss Ball (1915) *Educ.*: at Schools Pauri and Almora, in colleges at Allahabad, Benares, Calcutta and Christ Church, Oxford, Hist. Hons. 1917. Called to Bar, Grays Inn, 1918; returned to India, 1919, enrolled Advocate, Allahabad High Court, 1919; elected to U. P. Legislative Council for Garhwal, 1923 and 1926. Writes to Hindi and English periodicals and is an exponent and critic of Indian Art. *Address*: "Vijaybhawan" Lansdowne, Dist. Garhwal, U.P.

MUKERJEA, SATYA VRATA, B.A. (Oxon.), Fellow of the Royal Statistical Society, London; Suba, Baroda Service, 1932 *b.* 6 Feb. 1887. *m.* Sm. Aruna Devi, M.A., *née* Bezbaroa, niece of Rabindranath Tagore, the Poet. One *s.* one *d.* *Educ.*: St. Xavier's and Presidency College, Calcutta, and Exeter Coll. Oxford. Entered Baroda Service, 1911. Conducted the Census of Baroda State 1921. Suba in three districts, 1922-1928; Chief Secretary to Government, 1929; Revenue Commissioner, 1929-30; Census Commissioner for the Second time, 1930-32; reorganised the Central Secretariat after the model of British India, 1919-20; was largely instrumental in the reorganisation of the local boards; as member of the Baroda University Commission was mainly responsible for drafting its Report, 1926-27. *Publications*: Constitutional Reforms in Baroda, Census Reports of 1921; and other official publications. *Address:* Race Course Road, Baroda.

MUKERJI, LAL GOPAL, THE HON. SIR B.A., LL.B., Judge High Court, Allahabad. *b.* 29 July 1874. *m.* Srimati Nalini Devi. *Educ.*: Ghazipur Victoria High School and Muir Central Coll., Allahabad. Practised at Ghazipur, 1896-1902; joined Judicial Service of United Provinces, 1902; was Munsiff from 1902 to 1914; District and Sessions Judge from 1914 to 1923; was deputed to Legislative Department of Government of India as an officer on Special Duty, 1921-22; was appointed to officiate as Judge of High Court in December 1923; was additional Judge of the High Court, 1924-1926; was made permanent Judge in March 1926; knighted in June 1932; was appointed to officiate as Chief Justice in July 1932 again in Oct. 1932. *Publications:* Law of Transfer of Property, 1st Edition, 1925, (2nd Edition, 1931). *Address:* Allahabad.

MUKERJI, MANMATHA NATH, THE HON. MR. JUSTICE, M.A. (Cal.), B.L., Puisne Judge, High Court, Calcutta since 1924. *b.* 28 Oct. 1874. *m.* Sm. Sureswari Debi, eldest *d.* of Sir Gooroo Dass Banerjee. *Educ.*: Albert Collegiate School and College, Presidency College, Calcutta, and Ripon College Law Classes. Vakil, Calcutta High Court, from Dec. 1898 to Dec. 1923. *Address*: 8-1, Harsi Street, Calcutta.

MUKHERJEE, BABU JOGENDRA NATH, M.A., B.L., Advocate, High Court, Calcutta. *b.* 23rd June 1861. *m. d.* of late Babu Harinath Chatterjee, of the Provincial Executive Service. *Educ.*: Presidency College and Hindu School, and Government Pathashala, Calcutta. Practised as pleader at Purnea, 1886-1908; was Municipal Commissioner, Vice-Chairman, Purnea Municipality; and Chairman altogether for about 18 years; Member of Bengal Legislative Council (1905-1907), practised Calcutta High Court from 1908; Prof. of Hindu Law in the Calcutta Law College from 1909-1919; Chairman of Professors, Criminal Law in that Coll., 1918-19; Member, Legislative Assembly, 1921-23. *Publications:* (1) The Legislative Assembly and its work (brochure); (2) Dilettantism in Social Legislation; (3) An address on Hindu music delivered at "Indian Musical Salon" held at Government House, Calcutta, on 7th Dec. 1920. *Address:* 18, Pran Kissen Mookerjee Road Tallah, Calcutta.

MUKHERJEE, THE HON. SRIJUT LOKENATH, Zamindar, having properties extending over many districts; an Executive of Uttarpara Municipality; Member of Council of State. *b.* April 1900. *m.* Srimati Sailabala Devi, *d.* of Raj Bahadur Ramsadan Chatterjee, Retired Mgte. of Bankura. *Educ.:* Uttarpara Govt. High School and Presidency College, Calcutta. Elected Commissioner, Uttarpara Municipality in 1921; was Chairman for some time in 1924 and again in 1925; at present an executive of the Municipality; now an elected Member, Council of State, for West Bengal Constituency. *Address:* "Rajendra Bhaban", Uttarpara, Bengal.

MULLAN, JAL PHIROZSHAH, M.A., F.L.S., F.Z.S., F.E.S.; Prof. of Biology, Director, Zoological Laboratory, St. Xavier's College. *b.* 26 March 1884. *Educ:* St. Xavier's College, Bombay; Professor, Examiner, University of Bombay. *Publications:* "Animal Types for College Students". *Address:* "Vakil Terrace", Lamington Road, Grant Road, Bombay.

MULLICK, RAI PROMATHA NATH BAHADUR, Bharat-Bani-Bhusan, Hon. Secretary, Calcutta House Owners' Association. President, North Calcutta Defence Association. Served on the Calcutta Municipality as a nominated Commissioner, Improvement Trust, Calcutta Exhibition 1923, etc. *Address:* 129, Cornwallis Street, Calcutta.

MUMTAZUDDOLAH, NAWAB SIR MOHAMMAD FAIYAZALI KHAN, K.C.V.O., K.C.I.E., C.S.I., C.B.E., Nawab of Pahasu, Minister, Jaipur State. *b.* 4 Nov. 1851. Late Member of Supreme and Provincial Legislative Councils. *Address:* Nawab's House, Jaipur.

MUNINDRA DEB, RAI MAHASAI-KUMAR, M.L.C., of the Bansberia Raj. *b.* 26 Aug. 1874; *Educ.:* Hooghly College and St. Xavier's College; Member of Bengal Legis. Council; Hony. Magistrate, Hooghly; Non-official Visitor, Hooghly District and Serampore, Sub-Jail; Chairman, Bansberia Municipality; Vice-President, All-India and President, All-Bengal Library Association; Chairman, Bansabati Co-operative Bank Ltd; Kayastha Co-operative Bank Ltd., Calcutta; Director, Tarakeshwar Co-operative Sale and Supply Society Ltd; Member, Hooghly District Board; Hony. Secretary, Historical Research Society; President, Bansberia Public Library, Working Men's Institute; Night Schools; Bansberia Girls' School; Bangiya Granthalaya Parishat; Hooghly District Library Association; Kalighat Perpetual Club and Library; B. M. Sporting Club; Vice-President, Hooghly Landholders' Association; Kalighat People's Association; Chinsurah Physical Institute; Editor, "Pathagar;" late Editor, *The Eastern Voice*, an English Daily; *The United Bengal*, an English Weekly; *The Purnima*, a Bengali Monthly, Author of several historical works, Calcutta; *Address:* 21F, Rani Sankari Lane, Kalighat.

MUNMOHANDAS RAMJI, THE HON. SIR, Kt. (1927), J.P., Merchant and Millowner. *Educ.:* Bombay High School. Represented Indian commercial community in the old Bombay Legis. Council from 1910 to 1920; served on the Municipal Corporation for 18 years; elected President of the Corporation for 1912-13; served also on the Committees of Indian Merchants' Chamber, Bombay Millowners' Association and President, Bombay Native Piece-goods Merchants' Association for 38 years; was President of Indian Merchants' Chamber, 1907-13 and again in 1924 and of the Bombay Millowners' Association in 1909; served several periods on the Board of the Bombay Port Trust; was member for a number of years of the Board of Trustees of V. J. Technical Institute; was a member of the Advisory Committee to the Director of Industries; and of the Advisory Board to the Development Department; was a member of the Advisory Committee of the B. B. & C. I. Railway. Represented Indian Merchants' Chamber on the Legislative Assembly, 1921-23; served on the Braithwaite Committee, Railway Advisory Committee, Railway Risk Note Committee, and Income-Tax Committee. Elected Member of Council of State, June 1925 and re-elected in November 1925. Member, Council of State, 1925-1930. *Address:* Ridge Road, Malabar Hill, Bombay.

MUNSHI, KANAIALAL MANEKLAL, B.A., LL.B., Advocate, Bombay High Court. *b.* 29 Dec, 1887. *m.* Lilavati Sheth, a Jain widow, an authoress of repute in Gujarati language, 1926. *Educ:* Dalal High School, Broach; Graduated from Baroda College, 1906; LL. B. of Bombay University, 1910; passed Advocate's Examination 1913. Enrolled as Advocate, Bombay High Court, 1913; Joint-Editor "Young India," 1915; Secretary, Bombay Home Rule League, 1919-20; President, Sahitya Sausad, Bombay, since 1922; Editor of the Cyclopædia of Gujarati Literature; Elected by the registered graduates to the Senate of the Bombay University 1925; Elected Vice-President of the Gujarat Sahitya Parishad Mandal (Literary Conference) April 1926; Elected to the Syndicate of the Bombay University, September 1926; Appointed a Member of the Baroda University Commission by His Highness the Maharaja Gaikwar, September 1926; Elected Chairman of the Gujarati Board of Studies of the Bombay University 1927; Elected to the Bombay Legislative Council for the Bombay University, April 1927; Appointed Chairman of the Committee of the Government of Bombay to introduce compulsory physical training in schools 1927; member of the Committee appointed by the Government of Bombay to report on the reorganisation of primary and secondary education in the Presidency; Elected member of the Academic Council and Board of Post-Graduate Studies, Bombay University 1929; joined Satyagraha 20th April 1930; Arrested 21st April 1930 for Salt Satyagraha at Bhatia Bag, Bombay; sentenced on 22nd April 1930 to six months' imprisonment by the Chief Presidency Magistrate, Bombay; released on 1st October 1930; appointed substitute member of the Working Committee October 1930; Elected member of the All-India Congress Committee, 1930-1931; arrested in Jan. 1932. *Publications:* Prithivi-Vallabh, Pattanni-Prabhuta, Gujaratno Nath, Rajadhiraj, Bhagavan Kautilya,

Verni. Vasulat, Kono Vank, Swapnadrashta; *Pauranic Plays:* Purandar Paranjaya, Avibhakta Atma, Tarpan Putra Samovadi, Dhruvaswamini Devi: Kakani Shashi: Social plays: Vava Shethnu Swafantrya: Be Kharab Jan; Agnankit; Brahmacharyashram; Shek-Sambhram, Shishu ane Sakhi—Part II. Thodank Rasa-Darshano, Adi Vachano Lopa Mudra Vishva Ratha Part I: Part II Shamber Kanya Deve-Ditheli: Gujarat and its Literature (in press in England); Nari Bin-jawabdar Kahani and Narmad-Arvachino-ma-Adya and several short stories, essays, etc. *Address:* Gilbert Building, Babulnath Road, Bombay 7.

MUNSHI, MRS. LILAVATI KANAIALAL. *b.* 1899. *m.* K. M. Munshi, Advocate, Secretary, Sahita Sansad, Bombay; Secretary, Stri Sewa Sangh, Bombay; joined Satyagraha, 1930; appointed Vice-President, Bombay War Council, 1930; arrested 4th July 1930; sentenced to three months' imprisonment by the Chief Presidency Magistrate, Bombay; released at the end of October 1930; organised Bombay Swadeshi Market 1930; elected member, All-India Congress Committee, 1931; arrested in Jan. 1932; released 26th Jan. 1933; appointed Vice-President, Naremad Centenary Committee. *Publications:* short stories, Essays, Jivarmanthi Jadati, a collection of short stories and plays, etc. *Address* Gilbert Building, Babulnath Road, Bombay 7.

MURPHY, STEPHEN JAMES, THE HON. MR. JUSTICE, I.C.S., Judge, Bombay High Court. *b.* 13th June, 1875. *Educ.:* Framlingham College, and Univ. College, London; appointed after examination of 1898; arrived, 24th Nov. 1899, and served in Bombay as Asst. Collector and Magistrate and Asst. Judge; District and Session Judge, Nov. 1917; Remembrancer of Legal Affairs and Secretary to Government, Legal Department, Nov. 1922; Judicial Commissioner, States of Western India, October 1924; District and Sessions Judge, 1928; Offg. Judge, High Court, Bombay, June, 1928; confirmed April 1929. *Address:* High Court, Bombay.

MURSHIDABAD, NAWAB BAHADUR OF, K.C.S.I., K.C.V.O., The Hon. Ihtisham-ul-Mulk, Rais-ud-Dowla, Amir-ul-Omrah, Nawab Asef Kudr Syud Sir Wasef Ali Meerza, Khan Bahadur, Mahabut Jung; premier noble of Bengal, Behar and Orissa; 38th in descent from the Prophet of Arabia; *b.* 7 Jan. 1875; *m.* 1898, Nawab Sultan Dulin Fugfoor Jahan Begum Saheba. Heir apparent: Murshidzada Asif Jah Syed Wares Ali Meerza. *Educ.:* in India, under private tutors and in England, at Sherborne, Rugby, and Oxford; has six times been Mem. of Bengal Leg. Council. *Address:* The Palace, Murshidabad.

MUSPRATT, SYDNEY FREDERICK, MAJOR GENERAL, C.B (1930); C.S.I. (1922); C.I.E. (1921); D.S.O. (1916); Commander, Peshawar District. *b.* 11th Sep. 1878. *m.* Rosamonde Barry, youngest *d.* of Sir E. Barry, (Bart.) *Educ.:* United Service College and Sandhurst. Commissioned 1898. Joined 12th Bengal Cavalry 1899; N.W. Frontier, 1908; Great War in France (1914-18); Deputy Director, Military Intelligence, A.H.Q. India, 1919-21; Director, Military Operations, A.H.Q. India, 1927-29; Deputy Chief of General Staff, India, 1929-31; Secretary, Military Department, India Office, 1931-33. *Address:* Flagstaff House, Peshawar, N.W.F.P.

MURTRIE, DAVID JAMES, O.B.E., I.S.O.: Dy. Dir.-Gen., Post Offices, 1916-1921 (retired); *b.* 18 Dec. 1864; *Educ.*: Doveton Prot. Coll., Madras. Ent. Govt. Service in Post Office, 1884: Pres. Postmaster, Bombay, 1913-16. *Address:* "Looland," 8, Cunningham Road, Bangalore.

MUTALIK, VISHNU NARAYAN *alias* ANNASAHEB, B.A., First Class Sardar of the Deccan, Inamdar and Saranjamidar: Member, Legislative Assembly. *b.* 6 Sept. 1879. *m.* S. Ramabaisaheb, *d.* of Mr. K. Bhiranhi, Pearl Merchant. *Educ.:* at Satara High School and the Deccan Coll., Poona. Member, Bombay Legislative Council for the Deccan Sardars, 1921-1923. President, Inamdars' Central Association, 1914 and onwards to the present day; Chairman, Satara City Municipality, for 4 years Member of Dist. and Taluka Local Board; Satara, for over 15 years. Was appointed non-official member of Army Accounts Committee, 1925-26, to represent Legis. Assembly on the Committee; President of the 1st Provincial Confce. of Sirdars, Inamdars and Watandars, 1926 and President, Provincial Postal Confce., 1926. Elected Chairman of the Executive Committee of the Provincial Conference of Shri Sardars and Inamdars, 1927 and in 1931. A leader of the Deputation to H.E. Lord Chelmsford and Mr. Montague, Secretary of State, 1917; represented Sardars and Inamdars' interests before the Franchise and Functions Committees of 1919. Leader of the Deputation of Sirdars and Inamdars for giving evidence before the Simon Commission, 1928. Leader of two deputation 1927 and 1929 to H.E. the Governor on bahalf of Sardars and Inamdars of the Presidency. Raised to be First Class Sardar of the Deccan in September 1930. Nominated Member of the Provincial Franchise Committee 1932. *Publications:* Currency System of India in Marathi. *Address:* Shanwar Peth, Satara City.

MUZAFFAR KHAN, KHAN BABADUR, NAWAB, C.I.E., Reforms Commissioner, Punjab. *b.* 2nd January 1880. *Educ.* Mission High School, Jullunder, and Government College, Lahore Joined Government Service as Munsiff; promoted as Extra Assistant Commander, served as Mirmunshi to Sir Michael ' O'Dwyer during Great War; Orient Secretary, Indo-Afghan Peace delegation 1919; Sir Henry Dobbs Kabul Mission 1923; Oriental Secretary, British Legation, Kabul, in 1921 under Sir Francis Humphreys; Joined Political Department 1924; Director, Information Bureau, 1925; Reforms Commissioner since October 1931: Khan Bahadur, 1917; Nawab 1921, and C.I.E. 1931 *Publication:* Sword Hand of the Empire—a war publication. *Address:* Lahore.

MYSORE, HIS HIGHNESS YUVARAJA OF, SRI KANTHIRAVA NARASIMHARAJA WADIYAR BAHADUR, G.C.I.E. *b.* 5 June 1888; *y. s.* of late Maharaja Sri Chamarajendra Wadiyar Bahadur. *m.* 17th June 1910. One *s.* Prince

Jaya Chamaraja Wadiyar and three daughters. Takes keen interest in welfare of people and in all matters of education, health and industry. *Address:* Mysore.

NABHA, Gurcharan Singh, ex-Maharaja of, F.R.G.S., M.R.A.S.; *b.* 14 March 1883; *s.* 1911. *Educ.:* privately. Travelled good deal in India and abroad; Mem., Viceroy's Council, 1906-08; Pres. of Ind. Nat. Soc. Confce., 1909; attended Coronation of King, accompanied by Maharani, 1911. Abdicated, 1923.

NADKAR, Dewan Bahadur Khanderao Gangadhar Rao, 1876 *s.* of Gangadhar Rao Nadkar. *Educ.* at Anand College, Dhar and Muir Central College, Allahabad. Khasgi Dewan and Member in charge of Finance and Education of Dhar State Council; appointed Dewan and Vice-President of State Council, 1920. Rao Bahadur, 1924; Dewan Bahadur, 1931. *Address:* Dewan's House, Dhar, C. I.

NAG, Giris Chandra, Rai Bahadur, M.A., B.L. *b.* 26 June 1861. *m.* Sreemati Kunjalata, *d.* of Rai Saheb P. C. Deb of Sylhet. *Educ.:* Calcutta Presidency College. Professor, Ravenshaw Coll., Cuttack (1886-1890); Pleader, Sylhet Judge's Court, 1890-1892; Member, Assam Civil Service, 1892-1919; Member, Dacca University Court, and Member, Leg. Assembly. *Publications:* "Back to Bengal." *Address.* Bakshi Bazar, Dacca.

NAGOD, Raja Mahendra Singh, Raja of; *b.* 5 February 1916. His dynasty has ruled at Nagod for over six centuries; his State has area of 501 square miles, and population of 68,166; his salute being nine guns. *Address:* Nagod, Baghelkhand."

NAGPUR, R. C. Bishop of; *see* Coppel.

NAIDU, Sarojini, Mrs., Fellow of Roy. Soc. of Lit. in 1914; *b.* Hyderabad, Deccan, 13 Feb. 1879. *Educ.:* Hyderabad; King's Coll., London; Girton Coll., Cambridge. Published three volumes of poetry in English, which have been translated into all Indian vernaculars, and some into other European languages; also been set to music; lectures and addresses on questions of social, religious, and educational and national progress; specially connected with Women's Movement in India, and welfare of Indian students. President, Indian National Congress, 1925. *Address:* Congress House, Bombay 4.

NAIR, Chettur Madhavan, The Hon. Mr Justice, B.A., Bar-at-Law. Judge, High Court, Madras. *b.* 24th Jan. 1879. *m.* Sreemathi Palat Parukutty Ammah, eldest *d.* of Sir C. Sankaran Nair. *Educ.:* Victoria Coll., Palghat, Pachaiyappas and Christian Colleges, Madras, Law Coll., Madras, Univ. Coll. London, and also the Middle Temple, London. Enrolled in the Madras High Court, 1904; officiated as Vice-Principal, Law Coll., Madras, 1909; Law Reporter, 1915-16; apptd. Prof., 1916-20; Govt. Pleader, 1919-23; Advocate-General, Madras, 1923-24; Judge of High Court 1924, confirmed 1927. *Address:* "Spring Gardens," Nungambaukam, Madras.

NAIR, Sir Mannath Krishnan, Kt. (1930); Dewan Bahadur (1915): Member, Executive Council, Government of Madras (1928); *b.* August 1870. *Educ.:* Alathur, Calicut, and Christian College and Law College, Madras Vakil, Calicut Bar, Ch. Justice, Travancore High Court, for four years. Dewan, Travancore, May 1914 to July 1920. *Address:* Mohana Vilas, Ormes Road, Kilpauk, Madras.

NAMBIAR, Chandroth Kudali Thazhath Vittil Kunhi Kammaran, Landlord, M.L.A. *b.* Dec. 1888, *m.* Kalliat Madhavi Amma, *d.* of V. Ryru Nambiar, B.A., B.L., High Court Vakil. *Educ.:* at the Mission High School, Brennen College, Tellicherry and Madras Medical College. Succeeded to the management of the Chandroth estate after the death of his brother in 1912; in 1914 was elected to the Tellicherry Taluk Board and in 1916 to the Malabar District Board. In 1924 was returned to the Legislative Assembly as the representative of the Madras Landholders. Succeeded to the Karanavanship of Koodali House in 1932. *Address:* Koodali N. Malabar.

NANAVATY, Col. Sir Byramji Hormasji, Kt. (1930), F.R.C.S. (Ed.), F.C.P.S., L.M. &S. (with honours); I.M.S.; Khan Bahadur (1910); C.I.E., June (1925); Consulting Surgeon and Physician; Specialist in Eye Diseases from Royal Ophthalmic Hospital, Moorfields, London; *b.* December 1861, *m.* Dhanbai, daughter of the late Mr. M. N. Nanavatty (Treasury Officer, Surat) and cousin of Mr. E. M. Nanavatty, I.C.S. *Educ.:* Ahmedabad and Bombay and later on in London and Edinburgh; held for many years the posts of Lecturer of Surgery (clinical) and operative and midwifery in one of the provincial medical schools of the Bombay Presidency. Was subsequently appointed Civil Surgeon, Surat. Appointed a Fellow of the Bombay University in 1897 and is now also an ordinary Fellow. Was for many years Examiner in Surgery and Midwifery in the L. M. & S. and M.B., B.S. Examinations of the Bombay University, and also in the L.C.P.S. and M.C.P.S. examinations of the College of Physicians and Surgeons, Bombay, of which Council he is also a member. A Municipal Councillor of over 25 years' standing and Chairman, Sanitary Committee. President, Hemabhai Institute; Vice-President of four important public bodies, *viz.*, Ahmedabad Municipality, Ahmedabad Sanitary Association and the Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Animals and of Red Cross Society; Member of the Council of College of Physicians and Surgeons, Bombay, and of the Civil Hospital Advisory Committee and of the Committees of Becherdas Dispensary, Victoria Jubilee Hospital for Women and Leper Asylum and Mental Hospitals; is also Hon. Secretary of Bechardas Dispensary; a leading Freemason and a Past Master of Lodge Salem. In 1928 was also elected Hon. Member of Lodge Hope and Sincerity. Was awarded by Government a gold medal for services rendered during the Ahmedabad riots of 1919. In February 1929 was raised to the rank of an Hon. Col., Medical Corps, Indian Territorial Forces. *Publications:* "Duties and Responsibilities of Practitioners and Students

of Medicine," "On Different Methods of Cataract Extraction," "Uræmia following on Catheterism," "Glioma Retinæ, etc. *Address:* Ahmedabad.

NANDY, SRISCHANDRA, M.A. (1920), M.L.C., Maharaja of Kasimbazar, Bengal. *b.* 1897. *m.* 1917 second Rajkumari of the late Hon. Raja Promoda Nath Roy of Dighapatia. *Educ.:* Berhampore Coll., Bengal, and Presidency Coll., Calcutta; Chairman, Berhampore Municipality; was Member of District Board, Berhampore, and Member, Bengal Legislative Council (since 1924); ex-President, British Indian Association and President, Bengal Mahajan Sabha; President, Board of Management, K. N. College, Berhampore; Member, Historical Society and Asiatic Society of Bengal; Munshidabad Association, Life Member, Viswa Bharati, and Member Bengal National Chamber of Commerce; *Address:* "Rajbari," Kasimbazar, or 302, Upper Circular Road, Calcutta.

NARASIMHA RAO, RAO BAHADUR. S. V., B.A., Rao Bahadur, June 1912; Presented Darbar Medal, Dec. 1911; b. 21st Oct. 1873; *Educ.:* Madras Christian College; Graduated 1893; had journalistic training in the office of 'The Hindu' in 1898; enrolled as Pleader in 1899; was Municipal Chairman from 1908- to 1919; Vice-President District Board, 1919-29; President, District Educational Council, 1922-30; Member, Andhra University Senate, 1926-29; Attended All-India National Congress Sessions from 1903 to 1917; Member of the All-India Congress Committee for the years 1912, 1913 and 1917; Joined Indian National Liberal Federation in 1919 and also a member of its Council; President, Kurnool Urban Bank, 1916-20; President, District Co-operative Central Bank 1921-31; Member of the Board of Management of the Madras Provincial Co-operative Bank; resided over the Anantapur District Co-operative Conference (1923) and Bellary District Co-operative Conference (1930); President of the Kurnool United Club, 1924-32; President, Bar Association from 1931; General Secretary, Reception Committee of the XVII Madras Provincial Conference held at Kurnool in 1910; appeared before the Functions Committee presided over by Hon. Mr. Feetham in connection with the inauguration of the Montagu-Chelmsford Reforms in January, 1919; Gave evidence before the Lothian Committee in 1932 and the Andhra University Committee. *Address:* Kurnool.

NARAYANASWAMI CHETTI, THE HON. DEWAN BAHADUR. Member, Council of State. *b.* 28 September, 1881. Merchant and Landlord; President, Madras Corporation for 1927 and 1928; Member of the Senate of the Madras University; Member of the Council of Affiliated Colleges representing District Board and Municipalities of Chingleput District; Hon. Secretary, Madras Presidency Discharged Prisoners' Aid Society; Provincial Visitor to Presidency Jails; President, Depressed Classes Mission Society; Member, Town Planning Trust Board representing Corporation. Member of the Advisory Board of the M. & S. M. Ry.; Member, Madras Labour Board; Member, South India Chamber of Commerce; President, Pachaiyappa's Trust Board; Member, Tramway Advisory Board; Member, Madras Port Trust; Director, City Co-operative Bank, Egmore Benefit Society and Co-operative Central Land Mortgage Bank, Ltd.; was Member of the Executive Committee of the Countess of Dufferin Fund. Visitor of the Criminal Settlement at Madras and Pallavaram; Vice-President of the S. P. C.A. and Madras Children's Aid Society; Member, Cinema Board; Member, Council of State; Member, Central Board of Railways; Member, Governing Body of the Lady Hardinge Medical College Hospital for Women; Member, Central Committee, Countess of Dufferin Fund, Delhi; Member of Excise Licensing Board, Madras; Member of the Academic Council; President of the Town Planning Committee; Chairman of the Cherries Committee, Member of the Labour Advisory Board formed by the Government of Madras; Member of the Governing Body of the Imperial Council of Agricultural Research, Delhi; Director of the Mylapore Hindu Permanent Fund Ltd.; Vice-President of the District Educational Council; President of the Dt. Secondary Education Board; Chairman of the Advisory Board to the General Hospital, Madras; Member of the Advisory Board to the Government Gosha Hospital; Chairman of the Board of Trustees of the V.P. Hall; was for a short time a Member of the Madras Legislative Council; Chairman of the Board of Visitors of the Junior Certified School, Ranipet; Honorary Inspector of Certified Schools of this Presidency; Non-Official Visitor to the Government Mental Hospital; Director of the Muthialpet High School; Member of the Board of Industries; Member of the Cinema Board; Honorary Visitor of the Agricultural College, Coimbatore; Member of the Admission Board to the Presidency College; Member of the Advisory Council of the Queen Mary's College, for Women. *Address:* "Gopathi Vila," San Thome, Madras.

NARIMAN, SIR TEMULJI BHICAJI, KT., M.R.C.P. (Edinburgh), Hon. Causa, 1922; Sheriff of Bombay, 1922-23. Chief Physician, Parsi Lying-in Hospital; President, College of Physicians and Surgeons; *b.* Navsari, 3rd Sept. 1848; *Educ.:* Grant M.C.; Elphinstone Coll.; Fellow of Bombay Univ., 1883; J.P., a Syndic in Medicine, 1891; a Dean in Faculty of Medicine, 1901-02; Mem., Bombay Leg. Council, 1909; Mem. of Provincial Advisory Committee, 1910; Member, Bombay Medical Council, 1913; Member, Bombay Municipal Corporation for 15 years. *Address:* Fort, Bombay.

NARSINGARH, HIS HIGHNESS SRI HUZUR RAJA VIKRAM SINGH SAHIB BAHADUR, *b.* 21 September 1909; belongs to Paramar or Ponwar branch of Agnikul Rajputs. *m.* daughter of the heir-apparent of Cutch State, June 1929, *s.* 1924. *Educ.:* Daly College, Indore and Mayo College, Ajmere. State is 734 sq. miles in extent and has population 1,13,873: salute of 11 guns. *Address:* Narsingarh, C.I.

NASIK, BISHOP OF (RT. REV. PHILIP HENRY LOYD, M.A.), *b.* July 8, 1884. Educated at Eton and King's College, Cambridge, (late Scholar and 1st class Classical Tripos). On being ordained deacon in the Diocese of London, became Curate of St. Mary of Eton, Hackney Wick. Vice-Principal of Cuddesdon College from 1912 to 1915, when he came to India as an S.P.G. Missioner. Assistant Missionary at Miri 1915-1917, Chaplain to Bishop Palmer of Bombay 1917-1919, S. P. G. Missioner at Ahmednagar 1917-1925. Consecrated Asst. Bishop of Bombay with special charge of Amednagar and Aurangabad 1925. Appointed first Bishop of the new Diocese of Nasik, 1929. *Address :* Nasik.

NATARAJAN, KAMAKSHI, B.A. (Madras University), 1889, Editor, *The Indian Social Reformer*, Bombay; *b.* 24th Sept. 1868. *Educ.:* St. Peter's H. S., Tanjore; Pres. Coll., Madras; Govt. Coll., Kumbakonam: and Law Coll., Madras; Headmaster, Aryan H. S., Triplicane, Madras; Asst. Editor. the *Hindu*, Madras; Pres., Madras Prov. Soc. Confce., Kurnool, 1911; and Pres., Bombay Prov. Soc Confce., Bijapur, 1918. President, Mysore Civic and Social Progress Conference, 1921, and President, National Social Conference, Ahmedabad, 1921; General Secretary, Indian National Social Conference, 1923-24. President, 40th Indian National Social Conference, Madras, 1927. *Publications :* Presidential addresses at above Conferences; Report of Census of Hyderabad (Deccan), 1911. A Reply to Miss Katherine Mayo's "Mother India" (G. A. Natesan & Co., Madras). *Address : The Indian Social Reformer Office*, Fort, Bombay, and "Kamakshi House," Bandra, Bombay.

NATESAN, THE HON. MR. G. A., head of G. A. Natesan & Co., and Editor, *The Indian Review*, Member, Council of State. *b.* 25th August 1873. *Educ.:* High School, Kumbakonam; St. Joseph's School, Trichinopoly; H. H. School, Triplicane; Presidency College, Madras University, B.A. (1897). Fellow of the Univ. and Commissioner, Madras Corpn. Has taken a leading part in Congress work. Joined Moderate Conference, 1919. Sec., Madras Liberal League. Joint Secretary, National Liberal Federation of India, 1922; visited Canada on Empire Parliamentary Delegation in 1928; attended Universities Conference, 1929; Chairman, Retrenchment Committee for Stores, Printing and Stationery. Presented with a public address in Madras on August 24, 1933, his sixty-first birthday; appointed member of the Indian Tariff Board, September 1933. *Publications :* chiefly patriotic literature and speeches, etc., of public men, "What India Wants." "Autonomy within the Empire". *Address :* "Mangala Vilas," Luz, Mylapore, Madras.

NATHUBHAI, TRIBHOVANDAS MANGALDAS, J.P.; Hon. Mag. and Fellow of Univ., Bombay, Sheth or Head of Kapol Banya community, resigned presidentship after tenure thereof for 25 years, 1912. *b.* 28 Oct. 1856. *Educ.:* St. Xavier's Coll., Bombay. Was for 20 years an elected Mem. of Bombay Mun. Corpn.; has been Hon. Mag. since establishment of Courts of Bench Magistrates in Bombay. *Address :* Sir Mangaldas House, Lamington Road, Bombay.

NAWAB SALAR JUNG BAHADUR, *b.* 13 June 1889. *Educ.:* at Nizam College; Prime Minister of Hyderabad, 1912-14. *Address :* Hyderabad, Deccan.

NAWAZ, BEGAM SHAH, *d.* of late Sir Muhammad Shah, K.C.S.I., *m.* 1911, Mian Shah Nawaz, Barrister, Lahore. *b.* 7 April, 1896. *Educ :* Queen Mary's College, Lahore. Entered public service at a very early age when still in purdah at her instance the All-India Muslim Women's Conference passed resolution against polygam 1917; gave up purdah in 1920 and since they actively engaged in educational and social reform matters; Member of several important hospital and maternity and welfare committees; Member of the Punjab Board of Film Censors since 1926; first Muslim woman to represent her sex in All-India Muslim League of Executive Committee; Member of Provincial Executive Committee and All-India General Committee of the Red Cross Society, Punjab, at Delhi, 1927; first woman to be elected as Vice-President of the 42nd Social Reform Conference, Lahore, 1929; acted as her father's honorary secretary when he attended as a delegate to the Imperial Conference, London, 1930; Woman delegate to the Indian Round Table Conference (1930-32). *Publications :* Husan Hara Begum in Urdu; several pamphlets on educational and social matters; regular contributor to various Women's Journals in India. *Address :* Iqbal Manzil, Lahore.

NAYDU, RAI BAHADUR KONA SHRINIWAS RAO, B.A., LL.B. (Allahabad); Minister of Industries and Local Self-Government, Central Provinces. *b.* 22nd May 1877. *m.* to Laximibai Nayudu, *d.* of late Mr. B. Narsingrao Nayudu, Government and Railway Contractor, Khandwa. *Educ.:* Collegiate High School, Jubbulpore, Ujjain and Agra Colleges. Joined Wardha Bar in 1899; enrolled High Court Pleader in 1904; elected President, Maratha Municipal Committee 1915-1921 and 1924-1934; appointed Public Prosecutor, Wardha Session Division, 1917-34; elected to C. P. Legislative Council, 1923; elected Dy. President, C.P. Legislative Council, 1924-26; elected President of the C. P. and Berar Non-Brahmin Association since 1925; elected Chairman of the Reception Committee of the Non-Brahmin Congress, Amraoti, 1925; elected President, Bombay Provincial Non-Brahmin Conference, 1928; led the C. P. and Berar Non-Brahmin Party Deputation before Simon Commission at Nagpur, 1928; again elected to C. P. Legislative Counci: November 1930 as a Non-Brahmin; elected leader of the Democratic (majority) Party of the C. P. Council in December 1930; elected unopposed Chairman, District Council, Wardha, in Jan. 1934; appointed Minister of Industries to the C. P. Government in March 1934. *Address :* Civil Lines, Nagpur, C.P.

NAZIMUDDIN, THE HON. KHWAJA, M.A. (Cantab.), C.I.E., 1927, Bar-at-Law, Minister for Education, Government of Bengal. *b.* July 1894. *m.* Shaher Banoo, *d.* of K. M. Ashraf. *Educ :* at Aligarh, M.A.O, College,

and Trinity Hall, Cambridge, Chairman, Dacca Municipality, from 1922 to 1929; Member, Executive Council, Dacca University, 1924 to 1929; Member, Bengal Legislative Council, from 1923. *Address:* Pari Bagh, Ramna, Dacca; 25/1 Ballygunge Circular Road, Calcutta.

NAZIR AHMAD, Dr., M.Sc., Ph.D. (Cantab.); Director, Indian Central Cotton Committee, Technological Laboratory. *b.* 1 May 1898. *Educ:* M. A. O. College, Aligarh; Government College, Lahore; Peterhouse, Cambridge. Head of the Science Department, Islamia College, Lahore, 1925-1930; Asst. Director, Technological Laboratory, 1930-1931. *Publications:* Various scientific and technical papers. *Address:* Cotton Technological Laboratory, Matunga, Bombay.

NEEDHAM, Major-General Henry, C.B., C.M.G., D.S.O., Officer Commanding Bombay District, *b.* 1876. *m.* 1902, Violet, *d.* of late Captain H. Andrew, 8th Hussars, and Mrs. Yates Browne. *Educ:* privately. Joined Gloucester Regiment, 1900; P.S.C. 1908-9; Staff, England, 1910-14; France, Egypt, Salonika, Russia, since 1914 (Legion of Honour) St. Vladimir, U.S. Distinguished Service Medal, C.M.G., D.S.O., commanded 4th Worcestershire, 1922-23; Colonel, 1919; Military Attache, Brussels, Berne, Luxembourg, 1923; Military Attache, Paris, 1927-31. Officer Commanding, Bombay District, 1931. *Address:* Assaye Building, Colaba, Bombay.

NEHALCHAND, Muntazim-Khas Bahadur, M.A. (Allahabad); LL.B., Abkari Member, Indore Cabinet. *Educ:* Muir Central College, Allahabad. Worked as Professor Tutor to a Rajputana Prince; Private Secretary to the Prime Minister, Indore State; Customs, Abkari and Opium Commissioner, Subahand Member of the Revenue Board. *Address:* 15, Tukoganj, Indore, Central India.

NEOGY, Kshitish Chandra, M.L.A., representing, since 1921, the non-Mahomedan Electorate, Dacca Divn., E. Bengal. Vakil, High Court, Calcutta. Journalist. *b.* 1888. *Educ.:* Presy. Coll., Calcutta. Dacca Coll. *m.* Sreematy Lila Devi. Some time a member of the All-India Council of the Nat. Lib. Fedn.; Elected Member of the Dacca Univ. Court, 1921-24; one of the Chairman of the Leg. Assembly since 1924. *Address:* 48, Toynbee Circular Road, Wari, Dacca; and P. 393, Russa Road, Tollygunge P. O., Calcutta.

NEHRU, Pandit Shri Shridhara, B.Sc., M.A., Ph.D., LL.D., L.E.D., I.C.S. *b.* 17 November 1888. *m.* Raj Dulari Kichlu. *Educ:* Agra College (Allahabad University); Magdalene College, Cambridge University; Heidelberg University; London University; Guilde International and Sorbonne, Paris. Service in the I.C.S.; Professor of Physics and Director of the Physics Laboratory, M. C. Colge, Allahabad, in War time; Research into aeroplane problems and visit to France and England in War time; Agriculture, Industries and Education Secretary to U. P. Government; Director of Publicity and Reforms Officer, U. P. Government and District work; Member, Imperial Council of Agricultural Research. *Publications:* (Science) "Ueber die Bewegung von Gasen," "First Steps in Radiology," & "Ecranage," (Agricultural Research) The cultivation of Broomcorn, Experiments in Electrofarming, Further Experiments in Electrofarming, New Experiments in Electrofarming and Alcuni Aspetti dell' Ellettrocoltura. (Sociology) Caste and Credit in the Rural Area. (Law) Judgments & How to Write Them. (Literature) Le Bocquet d'Ophelie and Dante's Divine Comedy. (Spiritual Uplift) "Doctor and Saint, A Passion of West and East." (Rural Uplift) Logbook of a Rural Uplift Van, Better Life in the Village, Current Problems in the Rural Area and some time editor of a Rural Uplift weekly called "Review of the Week." *Address:* 17, George Town, Allahabad.

NEPAL, His Highness Projjwala-Nepal-Taradhisha Maharaja Bhim Shum Shere Jung Bahadur Rana, G.C.S.I. (Hon. 1931) G.C.M.G. (1931), K.C.V.O. (1911), Yit-Tang-Paoting-Shun Chian and Luh-Chuan-Shang-Chiang (Chinese 1932) Prime Minister and Supreme Commander-in-Chief. *b.* 16th April 1865. 1st marriage 1 son, 2nd marriage 3 sons, 3rd marriage 1 daughter. *Educ:* Durbar High School, Kathmandu. Entered army as a Colonel in 1878, General Comdg. Northern Division 1885, General Comdg. Southern Division 1887, General Comdg. Eastern Division 1888. Senior Commanding-General 1901, Commander-in-Chief of the Nepalese Army 1901-1929, became Maharaja, Prime Minister and Supreme Commander-in-Chief in succession to his late illustrious elder brother Maharaja Chandra Shum Shere Jung in Nov. 1931. Hon. Lt.-General in the British Army (1931) Hon. Col. 4th P. W. O. Gurkha Rifles (1930). Is Grand Master of the Most Refulgent Order of the Star of Nepal. Has been from time to time in charge of various civil and military portfolios which he conducted very ably and was the most efficient helper and right-hand man of the late Maharaja Chandra throughout the period of his very successful administration of Nepal as Maharaja and Prime Minister. To show appreciation of his work he was honoured with an Hon. K.C.V.O. by H. M. The King-Emperor George V in 1911 and in 1919 he got his K.C.S.I., for valuable work rendered as assistant of Maharaja Chandra in giving help to the Allies during the Great War. *Address:* Singha Durbar, Katmandu, Nepal. *Tele. Address:* "Maharaja Raxaul."

NEVILE, Henry Rivers, B.A., O.B.E. (1919), V.D. (1920), C.I.E. (1921), Commissioner, (on leave). *b.* 24th May 1876. *m.* Euphan M.B.E., *d.* of T. Maxwell, Esq., of Irvine, Ayrshire, *d.* 1928. *Educ:* Charterhouse Oriel College, Oxford. Entered Indian Civil Service, 1899; posted to U.P.; Commanded U.P. Horse, 1913-17; services placed at disposal of C.-in-C., Nov. 1917; Asstt. Adjutant-General at A. H. Q. and from August 1921 to April 1923 Director of Auxiliary and Territorial Forces; Collector and Magistrate, Agra, Nov. 1923; *Publications:* Dist. Gazetteers of the United Provinces. *Address:* Jhansi.

NEVILLE, BERTIE AYLMER CRAMPTON, Secretary and Treasurer, Imperial Bank of India, Calcutta. *b.* 7 October 1882. *m.* 1911, Mabel Jess Sceales. *Educ:* Corrig School, Kingstown, Ireland and Royal College of Surgeons, Dublin. Fiver years with Bank of Ireland. Joined Bank of Bengal in 1906. *Address:* 10, Ronaldshay Road, Alipore, Calcutta.

NEWBOULD, HON. SIR BABINGTON BENNETT, Kt. (1924), Puisne Judge, High Court, Calcutta, since 1916. *b.* 7 March 1867. *Educ.:* Bedford Sch.; Pembroke Coll., Cambridge. Ent. I.C.S., 1885. *Address:* Bengal United Service Club, Calcutta.

NEWCOME, MAJOR-GENERAL HENRY WILLIAM, C.B. (1923); C.M.G. (1919); D.S.O. (1915); M. G. R. A. Army Headquarters. *b.* July 14th, 1875. *m.* Helen, eldest daughter of 2nd Earl of Lathom, (died 1929). *Educ:* Marlborough College and R.M.A., Woolwich. *Address:* Army Headquarters, Simla.

NEWMAN, MAJOR-GENERAL CHARLES RICHARD, C.B., C.M.G., D.S.O., G.O.C., Madras District. *b.* 24 July, 1875, *m.* Dorothy Sarah Carr. *Educ.:* Clifton College. First Commission in Royal Artillery, June 15, 1895. *Address:* Flagstaff House, Bangalore.

NEWMAN, HAROLD LANCELOT, C.I.E. (1930) Chief Conservator of Forests, Bombay Presidency. *b.* Aug. 5, 1878. *m.* Mary, *d.* of the late Prof. T. A. Hearson, A. M. I.C.E. *Educ.:* Marlborough College and Royal Indian Engineering College, Coopers Hill. Joined the Indian Forest Service as Assistant Conservator on November 15, 1901; apptd. Conservator, 1st Jan. 1922, Chief Conservator, Feb. 1928. *Address:* Poona.

NICHOLSON, SIR FREDERICK AUGUSTUS, K.C.S.I. (1925), K.C.I.E. (1903), C.I.E. (1899), Kaisar-i-Hind Medal, First Class, 1st Jan. 1917, *b.* 1846, *m.* 1875. Catherine, O.B.E., *d.* of Rev. J. Lechler; three *s. Educ.:* Royal Medical College, Epsom; Lincoln Coll., Oxford. Entered Madras Civil Service, 1869; Member, Board of Revenue, Madras, 1899; Member, Viceroy's Legislative Council, 1897-99, 1900-02; reported on establishment of Agricultural Banks in India, 1895; Member of Famine Commission, 1901; retired, 1904; Hon. Director of Fisheries, 1905-1918. *Publications:* District Manual of Coimbatore; Land and Agricultural Banks for India; Madras Fisheries Bulletins; Note on Agriculture in Japan. *Address:* Surrenden, Coonoor, Nilgiris.

NICKERSON, MAJOR-GENERAL WILLIAM HENRY SNYDER, V.C. (1901); C.B. (1919); C.M.S. (1916); K.H.S. (1925); Director of Medical Services. *b.* 27 March 1875. *m.* Katherine Anne Isabel, *d.* of T. W. Waller Baynards Park, Surrey. *Educ:* Victoria University of Manchester, M.B., Ch. B. (1896); D.P.H. (1907). Entered Army 1898; S. African War 1899-1902; Despatches, promoted Captain; Served in Egypt, W. Africa, India; Great War 1914-1919; A. D. M.S. of Division and D.D.M.S. of an army corps; D.D.M.S. Constantinople, Straits and Black Sea, 1919; Despatches six times C.M.G., Brevet of Colonel, C.B., D.D.M.S., Egypt, 1922-25; Major-General 1925; D.D. M.S., Eastern Command, 1925-1929; D.M.S. India from 1929. *Address:* Army Headquarters, India.

NIHALSINGH, REV. CANON SOLOMON, B.A., Evangelistic Missionary, Chawhan Rajput of Mainpuri and Jagirdar by birth. *b.* 15 Feb. 1852, *m.* 1870 *d.* of Subahdar Sundar Singh, a Tilok Chandi Bais of Baiswara, three *s.* three *d. Educ.:* Govt. H. S., Lakhimpur; Canning Coll., Lucknow; ordained, 1891; Hon. Canon in All Saints' Cathedral, Allahabad, 1906. *Publications:* An English Grammar for the use of the middle classes in Oudh; Translation into English of the Urdu Entrance Course Majmua Sakhun, 1873-75; Khulasat-ul-Isaiah (in two parts); Risala-e-Saf Goi or Plain Speaking; Verses on Temperance in Urdu; Munajat Asi; Verses on the Coronation of King Edward VII and George V in Urdu. *Address:* 2, Pioneer Road, Allahabad.

NIYOGI, MACHIRAJA BHOWNISHANKER, M.A., LL.M., Additional Judicial Commissioner, Nagpur and Vice-Chancellor, Nagpur University. *b.* 30th August 1886. *m.* Dr. Indirabai Niyogi, M.B.B.S. (Bom.) *Educ.:* at Nagpur. Practice at the Bar since 1910; President, Municipal Committee, Nagpur, 1925-1928; Member, University Court, Nagpur, 1924-27; President, Univ. Union, 1928-29; Chairman, Local Board of Directors, Bharat Insurance Co., Social and Political Reforms activities. *Address:* Craddock Town, Nagpur, C.P.

NORBURY, H. CARTER, J.P., M. Inst. T. F.I.R.A., Chief Accounts Officer, G. I. P. Railway, Bombay. *b.* 18 Oct. 1883. *m.* Miss Rickwood. *Educ:* at Leeds. Great Northern Railway (England), Great Indian Peninsula Railway, and Indian Railway Accounts Office. *Address:* Victoria Terminus, Bombay.

NORMAND, ALEXANDER ROBERT, M.A., B.Sc., Ph.D., Prof. of Chemistry, Wilson Coll., Bombay. *b.* Edinburgh, 4 March 1880, *m.* 1909 Margaret Elizabeth Murray. *Educ.:* Royal H. S. and Univ., Edinburgh. *Address:* Wilson College, Bombay.

NORMAND, CHARLES, WILLIAM BLYTH, M.A., D. Sc., Director-General of Observatories. *b.* 10th September 1889. *m.* Alison McLennan. *Educ:* Royal High School and Edinburgh University. Carnegie Scholar and Fellow 1911-1913: Meteorologist, Simla, from 1913-1915 and 1919-1927; I.A.R.O., with Mesopotamian Expeditionary Force, 1916-19; mentioned in despatches, 1917; Director-General of Observatories, 1927. *Publications:* Articles in Chemical and Meteorological Journals. *Address:* Meteorological Office, Poona.

NORRIS, ROLAND VICTOR, D.Sc. (London), M.Sc. (Manchester), F.I.C., Director, Tea Research Institute of Ceylon. *b.* 24 October 1887. *Educ:* Ripon Grammar School and Univ. of Manchester. Schunck Research Assistant, Univ. of Manchester, 1909; Research Scholar, Lister Institute of Preventive Medicine, 1910-11; Beit Memorial Fellow,

1911-13; Physiological Chemist, Imperial Bacteriological Laboratory, Muktesar, U.P., 1914; war service, Captain I.A.R.O. attached 103rd Mahratta Light Infantry, 1915-18; Indian Agricultural Service. Agricultural Chemist to Govt. of Madras, 1918-24; Prof. of Biochemistry, Indian Institute of Science, July 1924-1929. *Publications:* Numerous scientific papers in various technical journals. *Address:* Tea Research Institute of Ceylon, St. Coombe, Talawakelle, Ceylon.

NOYCE, FRANK, SIR, Kt. (1929), I.C.S., C.S.I. (1924), C.B.E. (1919). Member of the Viceroy's Council (Industries & Labour) 1931. *b.* 4 June 1878. *Educ.*: Salisbury Sch. and St. Catharine's Coll., Cambridge. *m.* Enid, *d.* of W. M. Kirkus of Liverpool. Entered I.C.S., 1902. Served in Madras. Under-Sec. to Govt. of India, Revenue and Agricultural Dept., 1912-16; Secretary, Indian Cotton Committee, 1917-18; Controller of Cotton Cloth, 1918-29; Vice-President and subsequently President, Indian Sugar Committee, 1919-20; Member, Burma Land Revenue Committee, 1920-21; Indian Trade Commissioner in London, 1922-23; Secy. to the Govt. of Madras, Development Department, 1923-24; President, Indian Coal Committee, 1924-25. President, Indian Tariff Board (Cotton Textile Industry Enquiry), 1926. Attached Officer and Asst. Commissioner, Royal Commission on Agriculture in India, 1927; Secretary to the Government of India, Department of Education, Health and Lands, 1929. Honorary LL.D., Aligarh Muslim University. *Publications*: England, India and Afghanistan (1902). *Address*: Inverarm, Simla.

OATEN, EDWARD FARLEY, M.L.C., M.A., LL.B., Director of Public Instruction, Bengal. *b.* 24 Feb., 1884. *m.* Dorothy Aileen Fegan, 2nd *d.* of late E. G. Ellis. *Educ.*: Skinner's School, Tunbridge Wells, Tunbridge School; Sidney Sussex College, Cambridge (Scholar). On staff Llandovery Coll., 1908-9; I.E.S. as Prof. of History, Presidency Coll., Calcutta, 1909-16; Trooper, Calcutta Light Horse to 1916; thence to 1919 in I.A.R.O. attached 11th K.E.O. Lancers in N. W. Frontier and in the Punjab, including Waziristan campaign, 1917; Lt., 1917; Ag. Captain, 1919; Offg. Asst. Director for Mahomedan Education, Bengal, 1919; Offg. Inspector of European Schools, Bengal, 1920; Offg. Principal, Hughli College, 1921; Asst. Director of Public Instruction, Bengal, 1921; Director of Public Instruction, Bengal, 1924; Nominated member, Bengal Legislative Council, 1924, to present day; Fellow, Calcutta University; Major, A. F. India 1927 in command of 2nd (Calcutta) Bn. University Training Corps. *Publications:* "A sketch of Anglo-Indian Literature"; "European Travellers in India"; "Glimpses of India's History", contributed to "Cambridge History of English Literature." *Address:* United Service Club, Calcutta.

OGILVIE, THE HON. LIEUT.-COLONEL GEORGE DRUMMOND, C.S.I. (1932); C.I.E. (1925); Agent to the Governor-General in Rajputana. *b.* 18 Feb. 1882. *m.* Lorna Rome, *d.* of the late T. Rome, Esq., J.P. of Charlton House, Charlton Kings, Gloucestershire. *Educ:* Cheltenham College; R.M.C., Sandhurst. Entered Indian Army, 1900; appointed Indian Political Department, 1905; Asst. Secretary, Govt. of India, Army Department, 1915; Major, 1915; Lieut.-Col., 1926; Dy. Secretary, Govt. of India, Foreign and Political Department, 1919; Offg. Political Secretary, Govt. of India, 1923; President, Council of State, Jaipur, 1925; Resident in Mewar, Rajputana, 1925-27; Secretary, Indian States Committee, 1927-29; Resident in Kashmir, 1929-1931; Agent to the Governor-General in Central India, 1931-1933. *Address:* Mount Abu, Rajputana.

ORTON, MAJOR-GENERAL ERNEST FREDERICK, P.S.C. (1908); C.B. (1926); Director of Movements and Quartering, Army Headquarters, India. *b.* 27 April 1874. *m.* Alice Frances Mickleburgh, 1904. Two *s.* *Educ:* Derby and R.M.C. Sandhurst. Joined Royal Dublin Fusiliers, 1894; transferred Indian Army 1897 (57th Lancers, Baluch Horse); Col. 15th Lancers; China (Relief of Pekin) 1900-10; despatches; Mekran (capture Nodiz Fort) 1902; Despatches; Great War 1915-19; Despatches (Brev. Lieut.-Col. and Colonel). *Address:* Army Headquarters, Delhi and Simla.

PADSHAH, THE HON. SAIYED MAHMUD SAHIB BAHADUR, B.A. Member, Council of State; Member of the Road Committee, Council of State. Advocate. *b.* 1887. *m.* *d.* of the late Sowcar Syed Mir Hussain Sahib Bahadur, a Mahomedan millionaire of Chittoor. *Educ:* Presidency College, Madras. Joined the Bar in 1916; became Member of the Reformed Madras Legislative Council, 1921; agitated in the Council for the separation of the Judicial and Executive functions, the Temperance Movement, encouragement of cottage industries, etc. First joined the Council of State in 1924 and got re-elected to it in 1925; became a Fellow of the Andhra University and President of Madras Presidency Muslim League in 1926. Presided over All-India Press Employees Conference held in Calcutta in 1927. Thrice nominated Panel Chairman of the Council of State; presided over several Provincial Muslim Conferences. Again re-elected to the Council of State, 1930; nominated delegate to the Second Round Table Conference, 1931, to represent Muslims of Madras Presidency. Nominated as a delegate to the Railway Board and Reserve Bank Conferences, London, in 1933; leader of the independent party in the Council of State. *Address:* Madras.

PAGE, THE HON. SIR ARTHUR, K.C. (1922); Chief Justice, Burma High Court. *b.* 1876; *o. surv. s.* of late Nathaniel Page, J.P., Carshalton, Surrey. *m.* Margaret, *d.* of E. Symes Thomson, M.D., F.R.C.P. *Educ.*: Harrow; Magdalen Coll., Oxford. Classical Honours Moderations, 1897; Literae Humaniores, 1899; B.A. 1899. Bar-at-Law, 1901; Conservative Candidate, Derby Borough, Jan. 1910; served European War in France and Flanders, A.B., R.N.V.R. 1915; 2nd Lieut., Royal Marine Artillery; Captain, 1917. Puisne Judge, Calcutta, 1923. *Publications:* Licensing Bill, is it Just? 1903; Shops Act (joint author), 1911;

Legal Problems of the Empire in Oxford Survey of the British Empire, 1914; Imperialism and Democracy, 1913; War and Alien Enemies, 1914; various articles on Political and Social subjects; Harrow School cricket and football elevens and fives player. *Address:* High Court, Rangoon.

PAI, K. RAMA, M.A. (Hons.), Controller of Patents and Designs. *b.* Jan. 15, 1893. *m.* 1913 Sita Bai. *Educ.:* T. D. High School, Cochin; Maharaja's Coll., Ernakulam; and Presidency Coll., Madras. Professor of Chemistry, S. P. G. College, Trichinopoly, 1916-18; Prof. of Chemistry, Maharaja's Coll., Vizianagram, 1918-19; Asst. Metallurgical Inspector, Jamshedpur, 1919-20; Examiner of Patents, Calcutta, 1921-24, on deputation to H. M.'s Patent Office, London, 1923; Controller of Patents and Designs, 1924. *Address:* 1, Council House Street, Calcutta.

PAKENHAM-WALSH, RT. REV. HERBERT, D.D. (Dub.), Principal, Bishop's College, Calcutta. *b.* Dublin, 22 March 1871; 3rd son of late Rt. Rev. William Pakenham-Walsh, Bishop of Ossory, and Clara Jane Ridley. *m.* 1916, Clara Ridley, *y. d.* of Rev. Canon F. C. Hayes. *Educ.:* Chard Grammar School; Birkenhead School; Trinity College, Dublin. Deacon, 1896; worked as a member of the Dublin University Brotherhood, Chhota Nagpore, India, 1896-1903; Principal, S. P. G. College, Trichinopoly, 1904-07; Head of the S. P. G. Brotherhood, Trichinopoly, Warden, Bishop Cotton School, Bangalore, 1907-14; Bishop of Assam, 1915-23. *Publications:* St. Francis of Assisi and other poems; Nisbet, Altar and Table (S.P.C.K.) Evolution and Christianity (C.L.S.); Commentary on St. John's Ep. (S.P.C.K.); Daily Services for Schools and Colleges (Longman's) and Divine Healing (S.P.C.K.) Antiphonal Psalter. *Address:* Bishop's College, 224, Lower Circular Road, Calcutta.

PALITANA, THAKORE SAHEB OF, SHRI BAHADURSINHJI MANSINHJI (Gohel Rajput), K.C.I.E. With a permanent dynastic salute of 9 guns. *b.* 3 April 1900. Invested with full powers 27th Nov. 1919. A member of the Chamber of Princes in his own right and of the Rajkot Rajkumar College Council. *Address:* Palitana.

PANANDIKAR, SATYASHRAYA GOPAL, M.A. (Bombay), 1916; Ph.D. (Econ. London), 1921; D.Sc. (Econ., London), 1926. Professor of History and Political Economy, Elphinstone College, Bombay. Secretary, Board of Film Censors, Bombay. *b.* 18 July 1894. *m.* to Indira, *d.* of S. A. Sabnis, Esq., Solicitor, High Court, Bombay. *Educ:* Elphinstone College, Bombay and School of Economics, Univ. of London. Some time Professor of Political Economy, University of Dacca (1921-23). *Publications:* Economic Consequences of the War for India, Wealth and Welfare of the Bengal Delta, and Industrial Labour in India *Address:* Elphinstone College, Fort, Bombay.

PANCKRIDGE, HUGH RAHERE, B.A., Barrister, Judge, High Court, Calcutta (April 1930). *b.* Oct. 2, 1885. *Educ:* Winchester College and Oril. College, Oxford. Called to Bar Inner Temple, 1909; Advocate, Calcutta High Court, 1910; Standing Counsel, Bengal, 1926; Officiating Judge, 1929; Additional Judge, 1929. Indian Army Reserve of Officers, 1914; Capt. 1918; mentioned in despatches by Field-Marshal Lord Allenby; served in France and Palestine. *Address:* Bengal Club, Calcutta; and Oriental Club, Hanover Square, London.

PANDALAI, THE HON'BLE MR. JUSTICE K. KRISHNAN, B.A., B.L., Bar-at-Law, LL.D. (Lond.) 1914; Judge, High Court, Madras. *b.* April 1874. *m.* J. Narayani Amma. *Educ:* Mavelikara, Trivandrum and Madras. Practised law in the State of Travancore from 1896 to 1911. Proceeded to England and was called to the Bar in 1912. Judge, High Court, Travancore, 1913-14; awarded LL.D. by London University for thesis on Malabar Law. Practised at Madras 1914-19; appointed Judge, Small Cause Court, 1919; Chief Presidency Magistrate, 1924; Judge, High Court, 1928. *Publications:* Editor of Series of Science Primers in Malayalam; author of Primer on Chemistry; author of "Succession and Partition in Malabar Law." *Address:* Lanark Hall, Rundall's Road, Vepery, Madras.

PARANJPE, GOPAL RAMCHANDRA, M. Sc., A.I.I.Sc., I.E.S., J.P. Professor of Physics, Royal Institute of Science, Bombay. *b.* 30 January 1891. *m.* Mrs. Malini Paranjpe. *Educ:* Poona, Heidelberg and Berlin. Bombay University Research Scholar at Bangalore for three years; then for some time Assistant in the Physical Chemistry Department of the Indian Institute of Science, Bangalore; since 1920 Professor of Physics in the Indian Educational Service at the Royal Institute of Science, Bombay. Fellow of University of Bombay. *Publications:* Various papers in the journals of the Indian Institute of Science, Bangalore, The Indian Journal of Physics, Calcutta, and other Scientific journals. Joint Editor of the popular Scientific monthly in Marathi Srishti Dnyan." *Address:* Royal Institute of Science, Mayo Road, Bombay. "Sadhana," Dadar, Matunga (South), Bombay 14.

PARANJPYE, RAGHUNATH PURUSHOTTAM, DR. M.A. (Cantab.), B. Sc. (Bombay), D. Sc. (Calcutta). *b.* Murdi, 16 Feb. 1876. *Educ.:* Maratha H. S., Bombay; Fergusson Coll., St. John's Coll., Cambridge (Fell.); Paris; Poona; and Gottingen; First in all Univ. exams. in India; went to England as Govt. of India scholar; bracketed Senior Wrangler at Cambridge, 1899. Princ. and Prof. of Math., Fergusson Coll., Poona, 1902-24; Hon. Associate of the Rationalist Press Association; has taken prominent part in all social, political and educational movements in Bombay Pres. Vice-Chancellor of Indian Women's Univ., 1916-20; Bombay Leg. Council, 1913; represented the University of Bombay, 1916-23, 1926. Awarded the Kaisar-i-Hind Gold Medal in 1916. Minister, Bombay Government, 1921-23, 1927; Member, Reforms Inquiry Committee, 1924; Auxiliary and Territorial Forces Committee, 1924; Indian Taxation Inquiry Committee, 1924-25; Elected to Bombay Council to represent Univ. in 1926; appointed Minister, 1927; Member,

India Council, 1927-32. Vice-Chancellor, Lucknow University, since September 1932. *Publications*: Short Lives of Gokhale and Karve. *The Crux of the Indian Problem.* *Address*: Vice-Chancellor's Lodge, Lucknow.

PARSONS, SIR (ALFRED) ALAN (LETHBRIDGE), KT. (1932); B.A. (Oxon); C.I.E. (1925); Indian Civil Service; Secretary, Finance Department of the Government of India (1932). *b.* 22nd October 1882. *m.* Katharine Parsons. *Educ*: Bradfield College and Univ. College, Oxford. Indian Civil Service, Punjab, 1907; Under Secretary to Punjab Government, 1912, and to Government of India, Finance Department, 1916; Additional Financial Adviser, Military Finance, 1920; Deputy Controller of the Currency, Bombay, 1922; Secretary to Government of India, Industries Department, 1925; Financial Commissioner of Railways, 1926-1931; Temporary Member, Governor-General's Executive Council, 1932. *Address*: New Delhi and Simla.

PARTAB BAHADUR SING, RAJA, TALUQDAR OF KILA PARTABGARH, C.I.E., Hon. Magistrate; Hon. Mem. of U. P. Leg. Council. *b.* 1866. *Address:* Kila Partabgarh, Oudh.

PARTABGARH, H. H. RAM SINGH BAHADUR, MAHARAWAT OF. *b.* 1908. *s.* 1929. *m.* eldest *d.* of Rao Raja Sir Madho Singhji, K.C.I.E., of Sikar in Jaipur, 1924 (died); second *d.* of Maharaja Saheb of Dumraon in Behar in 1932. *Educ.*: Mayo College, Ajmer, and passed his Diploma Examination from that College in 1927. State has an area of 886 sq. miles and population of 67,114; salute of 15 guns. *Address*: Partabgarh, Rajputana.

PASCOE, SIR EDWIN HALL, KT. (1928), M.A., Sc.D. (Cantab.), D. Sc. (London), F.G.S., F.A.S.B., Director, Geological Survey of India 1921-1932. *b.* 17 Feb. 1878. *m.* Mia, *d.* of James MacLean of Beauly, Inverness. *Educ.*: St. John's College, Cambridge (Foundation Scholar). Joined Geological Survey, 1905; Kangra Earthquake Investigation. 1905; Survey of Burma Oilfields, 1905-09; accompanied Makwari Punitive Expedition, Naga Hills, 1910; deputed Persian Gulf, Arabian Coast and W. Persia, 1913; Slade Oilfields Commission in Persia, and Persian Gulf, 1913-14; Punjab and N. W. Frontier, 1914-15; Commsn. as Lt. in I. A. R. O., 1915-1917; on Active Service, Mesopotamia, 1916-17; promoted to Superintendent, Geological Survey of India, 1917; on Deputation to Mesopotamia, 1918-19. Editor, Memoirs and Records of the Geological Survey of India 1920-1930; Mining and Geological Institute of India, President in 1924, Treasurer and Editor of Transactions, 1920-1930; President of the Governing Body, Indian School of Mining and Geology 1921-32; Trustee, Indian Museum, Calcutta 1921-1932; Imperial Economic Conference, London, 1930. *Publications*: The Oilfields of Burma; The Petroleum Occurrences of Assam and Bengal; Petroleum in the Punjab and N. W. Frontier Province; Geological Notes on Mesopotamia, with special reference to occurrences of Petroleum; and several shorter papers in the Records, Geological Survey of India and elsewhere. *Address*: Geological Survey of India, 27, Chowringhee, Calcutta.

PATE, HENRY REGINALD, B.A., C.I.E. (1931); Second Secretary, Government of Madras. *b.* 10 Aug. 1880. *m.* Ethel Blanche Bignell. 1924. *Educ.*: Clifton 1893-99; King's Coll., Cambridge. 1899-1904. Joined I.C.S. 1904; Special Settlement Officer; Secretary, Board of Revenue, Deputy Secretary of Government of India and Offg. Secretary of Army Department; Collr. of Malabar; Secretary to Government of Madras, Revenue Department. *Publications*: A Gazetteer of the Tinnevelly District (Madras Government Press). *Address*: Madras.

PATEL, VALLABHBHAI JHAVERBHAI, BAR-AT-LAW. Born of a Patidar family at Karamsad near Nadiad; Matriculated from the Nadiad high school, passed District Pleader's examination and began practice on the criminal side at Godhra; went to England and was called to the Bar at Middle Temple. On return from England started practising in Ahmedabad. Entered public life in 1916 as an associate of Mr. M. K. Gandhi who had established his Satyagraha Ashram at Ahmedabad. Came into prominence as a Satyagraha leader first at Kaira and then in the Nagpur national flag agitation and elsewhere, and in the Bardoli no-tax campaign. On suspension of non-co-operation movement and incarceration of Mr. Gandhi, joined Ahmedabad Municipality for the first time and became its President, 1927-28. *Address:* Bhadra, Ahmedabad.

PATKAR, The HON. MR. JUSTICE SITARAM SUNDERRAO, B.A., LL.B., *b.* 16 May 1873. *m.* Mrs. Shantabai Patkar. *Educ*: Elphinstone High School and Elphinstone College. Began practising as a Pleader, High Court, Appellate Side in 1897; Was appointed Government Pleader in 1913 and continued as such till July 1926; Selected in November 1923 Member of the India Bar Committee appointed by Lord Reading, which made its report in Feb. 1924 and resulted in the enactment of the Indian Bar Councils Act of 1926. Appointed Additional Judge, Bombay High Court, in July 1926 and confirmed as permanent Judge, Nov. 1926; appointed to act as officiating Chief Justice in June 1931; retired in 1933; elected Vice-Chancellor of the Indian Women's University in July 1931. Elected Chancellor of the Indian Women's University, July 1932. *Address:* Hughes Road, Chowpaty, Bombay.

PATRO, RAO BAHADUR SIR ANNEPU PARASHURAMADASS, KT. (1924); High Court Vakil, Ganjam; landholder; Member of the Madras Legislative Council; connected with the working of Local Self-Government Institutions in rural are as for over a quarter of a century. Minister of Education, Public Works and Excise, 1921-27. President, All-Parties Conference, Delhi, 1930; President, South India Liberal Conference, 1927; President and Leader of All-Indian Committee of Justice Party (Non-Brahmin). Delegate to Round Table Conference, 1930 and 1931 and 1932; also Delegate to England to co-operate with the Joint Parliamentary Committee on Indian Reforms 1933. Delegate to the League of Nations. Geneva, 1931. *Publica-*

tions: Rural Economics; A Study of Rural Conditions in the Madras Presidency; Studies in Local Self-Government. *Address:* Cosmopolitan Club, Madras.

PATTANI, SIR PRABHASHANKAR DALPATRAM, K.C.I.E., President of Council of Administration, Bhavnagar State, 1920; Member of Exec. Council of Government of Bombay, 1912-1915; of the Bombay Legislative Council, 1916; of the Imperial Legislative Council, 1917; of the Council of India, 1917-19. *b.* 1862. *Educ.:* Morvi, Rajkote, Bombay. *Address:* Anantwadi, Bhavnagar.

PAVRY, DASTURJI SAHEB CURSETJI ERACHJI, First High Priest of the Fasali Sect (Reform Section) of the Parsis in Bombay, elected, 1920; Order of Merit from the Shah of Persia, 1929; to be presented in April 1933 with a Commemorative Volume of Oriental Studies being the work of one hundred of the world's foremost Orientalists; *b.* 9 April 1859; *sons*, three; *daughters*, three. *Education*: public and private schools, Navsari. Ordained into Zoroastrian priesthood, 1871; first Principal of the Zend-Pahlavi Madressa (Zoroastrian Theological Seminary) at Navsari, appointed, 1889; High Priest of the Parsis at Lonavla, elected, 1912. Founder and trustee of the Bazmé Jashané Ruzé Hormazd (Society for the Propagation of Zoroastrian Knowledge), also trustee of the Mullan Anjuman Behetari Fund (Foundation for the Betterment of the Zoroastrian Community). *Publications*: Rāhē Zarthoshti (A Zoroastrian Catechism), Bombay, 1901, second edition 1931; Tarikate Zarthoshti (Zoroastrian Ceremonials), Bombay 1902, Second edition 1932; Vaazē Khurshed (Lectures and Sermons on Zoroastrian Subjects), Bombay, 1904; Resālhē Khurshed (Essays and Addresses on Zoroastrian Subjects), Parts 2, 3, Bombay, 1917, 1931; Zarthoshti Sāhitiya Abhyās (Zoroastrian Studies) Parts 1, 2, Bombay, 1922, 1928; Iranian Studies Bombay, 1927; many articles in Gujarati newspapers and scientific journals. *Address:* Pedder Road, Cumballa Hill, Bombay.

PAVRY, FAREDUN DASTUR CURSETJI, Chief Engineer, North Western Railway (retired). Created C.I.E., 1930. Eldest son of Dasturji Saheb Cursetji Erachji Pavry. *Education:* Elphinstone College and the Royal Indian Engineering College at Cooper's Hill; Associate and Fellow of Cooper's Hill. Appointed Assistant Engineer, North Western Railway, 1900; Executive Engineer, 1908; Superintending Engineer, 1924. *Address:* Office of the Chief Engineer, North Western Railway, Lahore.

PAVRY, JAL DASTUR C., M.A., Ph.D., Orientalist and Author. *b.* 27 November 1899. *Educ.:* Elphinstone College, 1916-18; St. Xavier's College, 1918-20; B.A., with Honours, Bombay University, 1920; Fellow of St. Xavier's College and of Mulla Firoz Madressa, 1920-21; M.A. and Ph. D. with Distinction of Columbia University, 1922 and 1925, respectively; Fellow of Columbia University, 1924-25; Travelled extensively in Europe and America, 1925-26. Appointed University Examiner in Avesta and Pahlavi on return to India in 1926. Went to England in 1927 on a scholarly and religious mission. Delivered numerous public lectures at various centres of learning in England and in fourteen other countries on the Continent, 1927-30. Upon the establishment in London of the Zoroastrian House with the Hall of Prayer, and the completion of the scholarly work in England, returned to India in 1930. Delivered a number of public lectures in Bombay and various other centres of learning in Northern India in 1931. Visited Europe again in 1932 for the completion of a literary project, Chairman of the Religion Section, Inter-Collegiate Club, (International House), New York (1921-25). Member of Council of the Foreign Universities Information Bureau, University of Bombay (1926-29), of the Mulla Firoz Madressa (since 1926), of the World Conference for International Peace through Religion (since 1928), of the Society for Promoting the Study of Religions (London since 1930), of Columbia University Club of London (since 1930), and of Cama Oriental Institute since 1931. Member of the Book Committee, Parsi Punchayet, since 1931. Delegate to the World Conference for International Peace through Religion (Geneva, 1928), to the Seventeenth International Congress of Orientalists (Oxford 1928), to the Fifth International Congress for the History of Religion (Lund.), 1929., and to the First Historical Congress (Bombay, 1931); President of Columbia University Club of Bombay since 1931. Member of the Royal Asiatic Society of Great Britain, of the American Oriental Society, and various other learned Societies. *Publications:* The Zoroastrian Doctrine of a Future Life (New York, 1926); The Teaching of Zarathushtra (Bombay 1926); Yashte Vadardegan, or the Zoroastrian Sacraments and Ordinances (Bombay, 1927); and numerous articles on Oriental subjects in popular and Scientific Journals. *Address:* Pedder Road, Cumballa Hill, Bombay.

PAVRY, MERWANJI ERACHJI, J.P. (Bombay); L.R.C.P. (London); L.M. & S. (Bombay); L.M. (Dublin); Captain (I.M.S.) of the Parsi Pioneer Battalion, Hon. Presidency Magte.; medical practitioner, Bombay. *b.* 15 October 1866. *m.* 1876. *Educ:* Sir C. Jehangir Navsari Zarthosti Madressa High School; Grant Medical College of Bombay; Rotunda Hospital of Dublin, and London Hospital. *Cricket Career:* The first Parsi cricketer to play for the Middlesex County XI in 1895. Was one of the members of the Second Parsi Team that toured England in 1888 and was the principal bowler. Played for twenty-nine years for the representative Parsi Team of Bombay, celebrating the Jubilee in 1910, and captained the Parsi team for twenty-four years 1889-1913. Divisional Surgeon and Examiner, St. John's Ambulance Division. Has been the Chairman of the Parsi Selection Committee since 1915; President of the Baronet Cricket Club and the John Bright Cricket Club of Bombay since 1882 and 1884. *Public Life:* Chairman of the Executive Committee and Vice-President of the Zoroastrian Physical Culture and Health League and the Sir Dinshaw M. Petit Gymnasium in Bombay.

Hon. Treasurer of the Advisory Committee of the Parsi Pioneer Battallion; Hon. Treasurer of *Jame* Centenary Fund; Member of the Managing Committee of the Parsi Co-operative Housing Society; President of M.O.C. of 51st Bombay Scout Troop; Vice-President of the Bombay Scout Association and Chairman of the Scout Committee; Joint Hon. Secretary of the Bombay Olympic Association. Superintendent of the Plague Camp at Santa Cruz in 1897; A Trustee of Dr. Gimi Trust Fund for Technical Education and of the Navasari High School; A Trustee of the Petit Gymnasium; Life Member of Mazdayasni Mandal, Bulsara Class, Y.M. P.A., and Khorshed Mandal; Chairman of of Parsi Scout Federation and Parsi Purity League and Zoroastrian B and Executive Committees. President of the "Zoroastrian Orchestra"; Joint Hon. Secry., "Pari Bekari Fund. *Publications:* Parsi Cricket; Physical Culture; The Team Spirit in Cricket; Radio Talks on Boxing among the Parsis, "Scouting", "Health" and "100 First-Aid Dont's". *Clubs:* Parsi Gymkhana, Willingdon Sports Club and Ripon Club. *Address:* Colaba Castle, Colaba, Bombay.

PAVRY, MISS BAPSY, M.A., Author and Litterateur. *b.* 25 December 1906. *Educ:* Queen Mary High School and St. Xavier's College, Bombay; M.A. with Distinction, Columbia University, New York. Travelled extensively in Europe and America, 1925-26. Presented at Their Majesties' Court in 1928. Delegate to the Geneva Conference for Peace through Religion, 1928. Member of Committee of various Charity Balls, the League of Mercy, the University College, the Empire Eve, the Empire Day held in London during the years 1928, 1929 and 1930 in aid of hospitals. Travelled extensively in England and on the Continent, 1927-30. Visited Europe in 1931 and again in 1932 in connection with the work of the World Conference for International Peace through Religion; Member of The Primrose League of Great Britain, British League of Mercy, British Federation of University Women, British Indian Union, International Theatre Society of London, also of the Bombay Work Guild, and of several other Associations and Societies. *Publications:* The Heroines of Ancient Persia, Stories Retold from the Shahnama of Firdasui (Cambridge, 1930); and many articles in popular and scientific journals. *Address:* Pedder Road, Cumballa Hill, Bombay.

PERIER, MOST REV. FERDINAND, S.J., Catholic Archbishop of Calcutta, since 1924. *b.* Antwerp, 22 Sept. 1875. Joined Society of Jesus, 1897, nominated Superior of Jesuit Mission in Bengal, 1913. Consecrated Co-adjutor Bishop, Dec. 1921. Grand Cross, Order of the Crown; Knight Commander, Order of Leopold. *Address:* 32, Park Street, Calcutta.

PETIGARA, KHAN BAHADUR KAVASJI JAMSHEDJI, C.I.E., Deputy Commissioner of Police, Special Branch, Bombay. *b.* 24 Nov 1877. *m.* Avanbai, *d.* of Mr. Jehangirshaw Ardeshir Taleyarkhan. *Educ:* Surat and Bombay. Started career as Sub-Inspector of Police in Bombay City C.I.D. and gradually went through all grades of the City C.I.D. Was promoted to Indian Police Service in 1928, and has since been Deputy Commissioner of Police in charge Special Branch of the Bombay C.I.D. Received medal of the Royal Victorian Order from H. I. M. the King-Emperor, 1912; created Khan Saheb, 1912; Khan Bahadur, 1916; Kaisar-I-Hind Medal, First Class, 1923; appointed Justice of the Peace 1924; appointed Companion of the Imperial Service Order 1926; appointed Officer of the Most Excellent Order of the British Empire, 1931; C.I.E. 1933. *Address:* 2, Winter Road, Malabar Hill, Bombay.

PETIT, JEHANGIR BOMANJEE, Merchant and millowner. *b.* 21 Aug. 1879. *m.* Miss Jaijee Sorabjee Patuck, M.B.E. Kaisar-i-Hind Silver medallist. *Educ:* Fort High and St. Xavier's Institutions. J.P., merchant and mill-agent; Member, Bombay Municipal Corporation, and The Bombay Improvement Trust Board, 1901-1931; Bombay Development Board and the Victoria Jubilee Technical Institute; Member of the Committee of the Bombay Millowners' Association (President, 1915-16 & 1928-29); Indian Merchants' Chamber (President, 1919-20) and Indian Industrial Conference (President 1918); Vice-President, Bombay Presidency Assocn.; Fellow of the University of Bombay; Trustee of Parsee Panchayat, Founder and Managing Director of *The Indian Daily Mail* (1923-1931); Founder and President of the B.D. Petit Parsi General Hospital, Indian Economic Society, Bombay Progressive Association, and New High School for Girls (Bombay); Founder of the Imperial Indian Citizenship Association and the Victoria Memorial School for the Blind; Delegate of the Parsi Chief Matrimonial Court (1902-1922); Member of Bombay Legislative Council (1921-1923 and 1927-33), Excise Committee (1921-24); Indigenous Industries Committee (1915-1917); Industrial Disputes Committee (1921), the University Reforms Committee (1924), and the Bombay Provincial Franchise Committee, 1931. *Address:* Mount Petit, Pedder Road, Cumballa Hill, Bombay.

PETMAN, CHARLES EARLE BEVAN, C.I.E. *b.* 9 September 1866. *m.* 1926, Amy, widow of John William Hensley, deceased, late Director of Indian Govt. Telegraphs and *d.* of Rev. Edwin Pope deceased, formerly Vicar of Paddock Wood, Kent and Rector of Latchingdon, Essex. *Educ.:* Privately and at Trinity College, Cambridge; Advocate, Calcutta H. Court, 1892, and of Chief Court, Punjab, 1892; Government Advocate, Punjab, 1909; Judge of the High Court, Lahore, from April to Aug. 1920 and from Oct. 1920 to Feb. 1921. Founder and First Master of the Lahore Hunt, 1903. *Publications:* "Report on Frauds and Bribery in the Commissariat Department"; "P. W. D. Contract Manual" (Revised Edition). *Address:* Lahore.

PETRIE, SIR DAVID, C.I.E., C.V.O., C.B.E., Chairman, Public Service Commission, India, since August 1932. *b.* 1879 *Educ:* Aberdeen Univ. Ent. Ind. Police, 1900; Asst .Dir., C.I.D., Simla, 1911-12; Spec.

duty with Home Dept., 1915-1919; on special duty with H. R. H. the Duke of Connaught, 1921; on staff of H. R. H. the Prince of Wales, 1921-22; Senior Superintendent of Police, Lahore; Member of the R. Comm. on Public Services, 1923; Director, Intelligence Bureau, Home Department Government of India, 1924-31. appointed Member, Public Service Commission, India, April 1931. Chairman, Indian Red Cross Society and St. John Ambulance Association, and Chief Commissioner for the Empire of India of St. John Ambulance Brigade Overseas; Knight of Grace of St. John of Jerusalem, 1933. *Address:* c/o Lloyds Bank, Bombay.

PICKTHALL, MARMADUKE WILLIAM, H. E. H. the Nizam's Service. *b.* 7 April 1875. *m.* Muriel Emily Cadwaladr-Smith. *Educ:* Harrow, on the continent of Europe and in Syria, Egypt and Turkey. Spent much of his life in Syria and Egypt and came to be regarded as an expert on Near Eastern affairs; was a strong partisan of the Young Turks in their struggle to reform their country; became Muslim in Constantinople. Succeeded Lord Mowbray and Stoarton as President of Anglo-Ottoman Society; served in British Army during Great War; Editor, *Bombay Chronicle*, 1920-24; in 1925 entered H. E. H. the Nizam's service; Principal, Govt. High School, Chadarghat; Superintendent, Hyderabad Civil Service class; Director of Information; Editor, *Islamic Culture. Publications:* Many novels and short stories including "Said the Fisherman," "The Valley of the Kings," "Veiled Women," "The House of Islam," "The House of War," "Knights of Araby," "The Early Hours," "Oriental Encounters," "Tales from Five Chimneys," "Sir Limpidus," "As Others See Us," "With the Turk in Wartime," Pot-au-feu. Edited "Folklore of the Holyland" In 1928 was granted two years special leave by H. E. H. the Nizam for the purpose of completing a translation of the Qur'an on which he had been long engaged. In Nov. 1930 the work was published in England and America entitled "The Meaning of the Glorious Koran: an Explanatory Translation" (Allen and Unwin). *Address:* Civil Service House, Hyderabad, Deccan.

PITKEATHLY, JAMES STOTT, G.M.G., C.I.E., C.V.O., C.B.E., D.S.O. Chief Controller of Stores. *b.* 10 Nov. 1882. Joined the service 1909 as electrical inspector; electrical engineer, 1911; C.V.O. 1911; on military service, 1916-1919; Asst. Director of Works, Electrical and Mechanical Sections, Mesopotamia, 1916; C.I.E 1920; Chief Controller of Stores, Indian Stores Department, 1922; on foreign service under Ceylon Government, 1928, C.M.G. 1930. *Address:* The Indian Stores Department, Government of India, Simla and Delhi.

POCHKHANAWALA, SORABJI NUSSERWANJI Certificated Associate of the Institute of Bankers (London), 1910; Managing Director, Central Bank of India, Ltd. *b.* 9 Aug. 1881. *m.* Bai Sakerbai Ruttonji. *Educ:* New High School and St. Xavier's College, Bombay. Joined Chartered Bank of India, Australia and China and after serving the Bank for 7 years and the Bank of India for 5 years; founded the Central Bank of India. Was appointed member of the Government Securities Rehabilitation Committee by the Govt. of India in 1921; appointed Chairman, Ceylon Banking Commission, April 1934. *Address:* "Buena Vista," Marine Parade, Worli, Bombay.

POPE, MAJOR-GENERAL SYDNEY BOXTON, D.S.O. (1916); C.B. (1930); Legion d'Honneur (France) 1917; Commander, Waziristan District. *b.* 9th February 1879. *m.* Dorothy Ashby Daniel, 1925. *Educ:* St. Paul's School and Christ's College, Cambridge. Joined 18th Royal Irish, 1901; 58th Rifles F. F. (I.A.) 1904; N. W. Frontier of India 1908 (operations against Mohmands); Staff College, 1914; Great War, France 1914 to Dec. 1917; Palestine 1918 to 1919. Brevet of Lt.-Colonel, 1919; Brevet of Col. 1921; Commandant, 49th Hyderabad Regiment, 1924; Commanded Bannu Brigade 1926; Commander, Razmak Brigade, 1929, Major General 1930; Commander, Waziristan District, 1931; Colonel 4/19th Hyderabad Regiment, 1931. *Address:* Dera Ismail Khan.

POSA, MAUNG, I.S.O. (1911), K.S.M. 1893. *b.* Toungoo, 13 May 1862. *Educ.:* St. Paul's R.C.M. Sch., Toungoo. Asstt. to Civil Officer; Ningyai Column II, B. Expeditionary Field Force, 1885-87; Burma Medal with clasp, 1885-87. Senior Member, Burma Provincial Judicial ser. since 1911. Interpreter to Prince of Wales during visit to Burma Jan. 1906. Also to three Viceroys, 1898, 1901, 1908; Dist. Judge, 1916; Offg. Divisional Sessions Judge, 1918; Retired, June 1918; Asstt. Dir. Recruiting, July to Dec. 1918. Mentioned in despatches. *Address:* Thaton.

PRADHAN SIR GOVIND BALWANT, Kt., B.A., LL.B., Advocate (O.S.) *b.* May 1874 *m.* Ramabai *d.* of Mr. P. B. Pradhan. retired Assistant Engineer. *Educ:* B. J. High School Thana, Elphinstone College; and Govt. Law School, Bombay. Practised at Thana; became, Public Prosecutor of Kolaba, 1907; resigned in 1920; for 20 years a member of Thana Municipality; for several years its Vice-President and for 7 years its elected President; Member of District Local Board, Thana, for 3 years; was one of the Directors of Thana Dt. Co-operative Credit Bank; President Thana Dist. Boy Scouts Movement; is one of the Vice-Presidents of the Chandrasenai Kayastha Prabhu community; elected at the Indore Parishad; elected to the Bombay Council in 1924; re-elected in 1926 by the Thana and Bombay Suburban Districts Non-Mahomedan Rural Constituency; Minister of Forest and Excise, 1927-28; Finance Member of Bombay Government 1928-1932. Created Knight in June 1931 (Birthday Honour List). *Address:* Balvant Bag, Thana; Laburnun Road, Gamdevi, Bombay.

PRAMATHANATH, BANERJEA, Professor Dr. M.A. (Cal.), D. Sc. Econ. (Lond.), Barrister-at-Law; Minto Professor of Economi

Calcutta University since 1920. President, Council of Post-Graduate Teaching in Arts, Calcutta University, *b.* November 1879. *Educ.:* at Presidency College, Calcutta, and London School of Economics, England. Professor in the Bishop's, City, Ripon and Scottish Church Colleges, Calcutta, 1905-1913; Delegate to the Congress of Universities, Oxford, 1921; Member, Bengal Legis. Council, 1923-30; Fellow Calcutta University; Member of the Syndicate, Calcutta University. Dean, Faculty of Arts, Calcutta University; 1929-30; President, Bengal Economic Society since 1927; President, Indian Economic Conference, 1930. *Publications:* A study of Indian Economics, (First Edition, 1911); Public Administration in Ancient India; Fiscal Policy in India; A History of Indian Taxation; Indian Finance in the Days of the Company; and Provincial Finance in India. Indian Budgets; Military Expenditure in India. *Address:* 3, Asutosh Silk Lane, Calcutta.

PRASAD, GANESH, M.A. (Cantab.), D. Sc.; Hardinge Professor of Higher Mathematics in the Calcutta University; Life President of the Benares Mathematical Society; President, Calcutta Mathematical Society; Patron, Allahabad University Math. Assocn. *b.* 15th Nov. 1876. *Educ.:* Ballia; Allahabad; Cambridge; Gottingen. Member of Court, Council and Senate, Hindu Univ. (1924); Member of Court, Executive and Academic Councils and Faculty of Science, Allahabad Univ.; Fellow of Calcutta University and Vice-President, Indian Association for Cultivation of Science; Member of the Senate and Ex-Council, Agra University. *Publications:* "Constitution of Matter and Analytical Theories of Heat." (Berlin, 1903) text-books on Differential Calculus and Integral Calculus (London, 1909 and 1910); "Mathematical Research in the last twenty years" (Berlin, 1922); "The place of partial differential equations in Mathematical Physics" (Calcutta, 1924); "An Introduction to the theory of elleptic functions and higher transcendentals" (Calcutta, 1928); "Lectures on recent researches in the theory of Fourier series" (Calcutta, 1928) and many other original papers published in the mathematical and scientific journals of England, Germany, Italy and India during 1900-1924. *Address:* 2, Sama vaya Mansions, Corporation Street, Calcutta; and 37, Benares Cantt.

PRASAD, THE HON. JUSTICE SIR JWALA B.A., LL.B., Puisne Judge, Patna High Court, since 1916; Acting Chief Justice, 1921. *b.* 25th March 1875, son of Babu Sahay. late Deputy Collector and Magistrate of Bhardara, Pregana Behea, Bihar and Orissa *m.* 1888, *d.* of Munsif Mangul Sen Singh, Zamindar and retired Dy. Commissioner. *Educ.:* Arrah Zillah School, Patna College, Calcutta University; Muir Central College and Allahabad University. B.A. 1st Class Honours and Jubilee Medallist 1893, LL.B., and Jubilee Bursary 1895. Vakil, Calcutta and Allahabad High Courts, Government Pleader, Shahabad, 1903. Vice-Chairman, Local Board, 1904. Member of Shahabad District Board, 1904. Secretary of Government Arrah Zillah School, 1908; Founded Purdah Girls' School at Arrah. 1913, Inaugurated Zillah School Boarding House, 1913. Fellow of Patna University. Member of Syndicate and of the Faculty of Land and Board of Examiners in Law. President, League of Educationists. President, All India Kayastha Conference 1915, President, Behar Young Men's Institute; Rai Saheb, 1914; Rai Bahadur, 1915. Ag. Chief Justice in 1922, 1924 and 1926. Ag. Chief Justice 1931. *Address:* Patna.

PRICE, EDWIN LESSWARE, B.A. (Oxon.,) Bar-at-Law, C.I.E., O.B.E., F.R.E.S., Chevalier de la Legion d'honneur. Merchant, French Consular Agent at Karachi since 1914. *b.* 8th July 1874. Member, Legislative Assembly, 1920-21 and 1929; Municipal Councillor, Karachi, since 1926; Member, Hides Cess Enquiry Committee 1929-30; Vice-President, Karachi Municipality, 1929. Port Trustee 1930-32; Member, Sind Conference, 1932. *Address:* "Newcroft", Ghizri Road, Karachi.

PRYCE, LIEUTENANT-GENERAL SIR HENRY EDWARD AP RHYS, K.C.B., C.M.G., D.S.O., P.S.C., Indian Army. *b.* 30 Nov. 1874. *e. s.* of late Lt.-Col. Douglas Davidson Pryce, Indian Army, of Penns Rocks, Withyham, Sussex. *m.* Alice Louisa Pughe, *d.* of R. F. H. Pughe Esq., two *sons.* *Educ.:* Trinity Coll., Glenalmond and R.M.C. Sandhurst. 2nd Lieut. Indian S.C., 1895; 2nd Lieut. Indian Army, 1896; Lieut. 1897; Captain 1904; Major 1913; Lieut.-Col. (Brevet) 1916; (Subst.) 1918; Col. (Brev.) 1919; (Subst.) 1920; Major-General, 1925; Lieut.-General, 1931; G.S.O. 2, India, 1912-14; D.A.Q.M.G., France, 1914-15; A.A. and Q.M.G. Home Forces (Temp.), 1915; G.S.O.I. Home Forces and France, 1915-17; Brig. Commander, France, 1917-18. Served Tibet 1903-04, (Medal); (despatches seven times, croix de Guerre Belge). Commandant, Senior Officers' School, India, (Temp. Col. Commandant, 1921; D. of S. & T. India 1925 to 1929; G.O.C. Presidency and Assam District, India, 1929-1930; G.O.C., Deccan District, 1930-32; Offg. G. O.C. in-Chief, Southern Command, India, 1931-32; Appointed Master-General of the Ordnance in India, 1934. *Address:* Army Headquarters, *India*, New Delhi and Simla.

PUDUKKOTTAI, HIS HIGHNESS SRI BRIHADAMBA DAS RAJA RAJAGOPALA TONDAIMAN BAHADUR, RAJA OF. *b.* 1922. Installed 19th November 1928. Minor. The State has an area of 1,179 sq. miles and population of 400,594 and has been ruled by the Tondaiman dynasty for centuries. Salute 11 guns. *Address:* New Palace, Pudukkottai.

PUDUMJEE, NOWROJEE, 1st Class Sardar of Deccan, Bombay, C.I.E. *b.* 1841. *Educ.:* Poona Coll. under Sir Edwin Arnold, war mem. of Bombay Leg. Council; Promoter and Chairman of several Industrial and Banking Companies. *Address:* Pudumjee House, Poona.

PURSHOTAMDAS THAKURDAS, SIR, Kt. (1923), C.I.E. (1919), M.B.E. Cotton Merchant. *b.* 30th May 1879. *Educ.:* Elph. Coll. Bombay. Member Indian Retrenchment Committee; Governor, Imperial Bank of India; Member, Royal Commission on Indian Currency and Finance (1926). Delegate to Round Table Conference (1930-33). *Address:* 11, Ridge Road, Malabar Hill.

PURVES, ROBERT EGERTON, C.I.E.; P. W. D., retired. *b.* 1859. *Educ.:* Thomason Coll.; Roorkee; Ex. Eng., 1895; Supdt. Eng., 1907, Ch. Eng. and Sec. to Govt., Punjab Irrigation Branch, 1913-14; retired, 1914; since practising as Hydraulic Eng. and Irrigation Expert. *Address:* c/o Messrs. King Hamilton & Co., Calcutta.

RADHAKRISHNAN, SIR S., Kt. (1931), M.A. D. Litt (Hon.); Vice-Chancellor, Andhra University, Waltair. King George V, Professor of Philosophy and President, Post Graduate Council in Arts, Calcutta University, Member of the International Committee on Intellectual Co-operation. *b.* 5th Sept. 1888. *Educ.:* at the Madras Christian College; For some time Professor of Philosophy, Presidency College, Madras, Mysore University, Upton Lecturer in Comparative Religion, Manchester College, Oxford Hibbert Lecturer, 1929-1930. *Publications:* Philosophy of Rabindranath Tagore; The Reign of Religion in Contemporary Philosophy; Indian Philosophy in the Library of Philosophy; Philosophy of the Upanishads; The Hindu View of Life; The Religion we need; Kalki, or the Future of Encyclopædia Britannica; "An Idealist View Civilisation; "East and West in Religion"; "An Idealist View of Life": article on Indian Philosophy in Encyclopaedia Britannica, and several others on Philosophy and Religion in Mind, International Journal of Ethics, Hibbert Journal, etc. *Address,* University Waltair.

RAFIUDDIN AHMAD MAULVI, SIR, Kt. (1932): Bar-at-Law, J.P., *Educ:* Deccan College, Poona and University College, London, Was called to the Bar at the Middle Temple in 1892; Practised for some years at the Privy Council. As a journalist was a regular contributor to the *Nineteenth Century, The Times,* and *The Pall Mall Gazette:* holder of Queen Victoria Diamond Jubilee Medal. First elected to Bombay Council 1909; appointed Minister, Bombay Government in June 1928 and re-appointed Minister, Bombay Government in Nov. 1930, resigned in 1932. *Address:* Poona.

RAHIM, THE HON. SIR ABDUR, M.A., (1919). K.C.S.I. (1924) *b.* September, 1867. *m.* Nisar Fatima Begum. *Educ:* Government High School, Midnapore, Presidency College, Calcutta. Called to the Bar (Middle Temple), 1890; practised as Advocate, Calcutta; Presidency Magistrate, Calcutta, 1900-03; Fellow, Madras University since 1908 Member of the R. Commission on Public Services, 1913-15; officiated as Chief Justice, Madras, July October 1910; and July to October 1919. *Publication:* "Principles of of Mahomedan Jurisprudence." Member, Executive Council, Government of Bengal, 1920-25; Member, Bengal Legis. Council, 1925-29; Leader of the Bengal Muslim Party; Minister on two occasions for short periods; Member, Legis. Assembly 1931; Leader of the Independent Party in the Assembly from 1931; now leader of the "Opposition" in the Assembly; Member of the Joint Parliamentary Committee in England. *Address:* 217, Lower Circular Road, Calcutta.

RAHIMTOOLA, FAZAL IBRAHIM, B.A., J.P., Member, Indian Tariff Board, Merchant (Messrs. Fazalbhai Ibrahim and Company, Limited). *b.* 21st October 1895. *m.* Jainabhai, *d.* of Alimahomed Fazalbhoy. *Educ.:* St. Xavier's High School and College, Bombay. Member, Bombay Municipal Corporation, 1919; Member, Schools Committee, 1920; its Chairman in 1923 and again in 1926; Trustee, Bombay Port Trust since 1921; Member, Advisory Committee, Bombay Development Department, 1922; Member, Advisory Committee, appointed to advise Government about Liquor shops in Bombay City, 1922; was appointed by Government of India on Bombay Securities Committee; Member of the Committee of the Indian Merchants' Chamber since 1921; Member of Executive Council of the Bombay Presidency Boy Scouts Association: representative of the Corporation on B. B. & C. I. Railway Advisory Council; Secretary, Imperial Indian Citizenship Association; Member, Standing Finance Committee for Railways, Railway Board; Member, Haj Inquiry Committee, 1929; Chairman, Reception Committee of the Bombay Presidency Muslim Educational Conference; President, Bombay Presidency Urdu Teachers' Conference; Director, Sultania Cotton Manufacturing Co., Director, Tata Construction Co., Ltd.; represented Bombay Government on the Committee of Sir Harcourt Butler Technological Institute to advise Government of U. P., Secretary and Promoter of All-India Muslim Conference; Secretary, All-India Minorities Conference; Member, Central Broadcasting Advisory Council; Director, Tata Iron & Steel Co., Ltd., Bombay Electric Supply & Tramways Co., Ltd., Automobile Acceptance Corporation; Member, Standing Committee for Haj and East India Association, London. Member, Legislative Assembly 1926-1930 appointed Member of the Indian, Tariff Board, 1930. Appointed Ag. President, Indian Tariff Board, November 1932. *Address:* Ismail Building, Hornby Road, Fort, Bombay.

RAHIMTOOLA, SIR IBRAHIM, K.C.S.I., C.I.E. *b.* May 1862; Joined his elder brother Mr. Mahomedbhoy Rahimtoola in 1880; entered Bombay Municipal Corporation in 1892; President of Corporation 1899; Member of the Bombay City Improvement Trust for 20 years from 1898; Member, Bombay Legislative Council, 1899-1916; Member, Imperial Legislative Council 1912; President, Fiscal Commission 1921; Member of Bombay Executive Council in charge of

Education and Local Self-Government 1918-1923; President, Legislative Council 1923-1926; Member of the Royal Commission on Labour; President, Legislative Assembly (1931); resigned in 1933. *Address:* Pedder Road, Cumballa Hill, Bombay.

RAJA, TRIBHOVANDAS JAGJIVANDAS, M.A., LL.B., Dewan, Lunawada State. *b.* 6 Nov. 1893. *m.* Miss Taralaxmi R. Khandedia. *Educ:* Bahadurkhanji High School, Junagad. Bahauddin College, Junagad; Wilson College, Bombay and Govt. Law School, Bombay. Lecturer in History in Wilson College, 1914-16; Naib Dewan and Sarnyayadhish, Wankanar State, 1917-1920; Deputy Revenue Commissioner, Junagadh State, 1920-21; Huzur Personal Assistant and Revenue Minister, Limbdi State, 1921-1930; appointed Dewan, Lunawada State, 1930. *Address:* Lunawada, *via* Godhra.

RAJAN, THE HON. MR. P.T., B.A. (Oxon.), Bar-at-Law, M.L.C., Minister of Public Works, Government of Madras. *b.* 1892. *Educ:* Ley's School, Cambridge, Jesus College, Oxford, called to the Bar in 1917 (Inner Temple). Went to England in 1909 and returned to India in 1919 and commenced practice in Madura. Is a member of the Uttamapalayam Mudaliar family. Elected to the first, second and third Madras Legislative Councils by Madura (General-Rural) constituency when on all the three occasions he topped the polls; fourth time he was elected to the Council unopposed; Member of S.I.L.F.; a commissioned officer of the Indian Territorial Force. *Address:* "Palayam House," Tallakulam, Madura.

RAJWADE, MAJOR-GENERAL, RAO RAJA GANPATRAO RAGHUNATH RAO RAJA MASHIR-I-KHAS BAHADUR SAUKAT-JUNG, C.B.E., A.D.C., Army Member, Gwalior Govt., and Inspector-General, Gwalior Army; Member of the Council of Regency; ranks as First Class Sardar in the Bombay Presidency and in U.P. of Agra and Oudh. *b.* Jan. 1884. *m.* Dr. Miss Nagubai Joshi, *d.* of Sir Moropant Joshi of Nagpur. *Educ:* Victoria College. *Address:* Gwalior.

RAMADAS PANTULU, THE HON. V., B.A., B.L., Advocate, Madras. *b.* Oct. 1873. *Educ.:* Madras Christian College. Member, Council of State since 1925, Leader of the Swarajist Party in the Council of State since 1926; President, Madras Central Urban Bank, Ltd. (Provincial Co-operative Bank of Madras): President, Madras Provincial Co-operative Institute; Member of Senate and Academic Council of Madras University; Chairman, Telugu Board of Studies and Member, Board; of Studies and Faculty of Law, President, Indian Provincial Co-operative Banks Association since 1928; Member, Central Banking Inquiry Committee; Member of the Governing Body of the Imperial Council of Agricultural Research; Member, All-India Congress Committee and President, Madras Andhra District Congress Committee. *Publications:* Commentaries on the Madras Estate Land Act (Land Tenures). *Address:* Farhatbagh, Mylapore, Madras.

RAMAIYA, A., M.A., Fellow of the Royal Economic Society (London). Advocate, Madura. Adviser, Madura-Ramnad Chamber of Commerce. Director, Bureau of Economic Research. *b.* 1894. *m.* Kamlabai *d.* of S. Krishna Iyer of Tiruvarur. *Educ:* Madras Christian College, and Madras Law College. Gave evidence before the Indian Taxation Inquiry Committee (1924-25) and the Currency Commission (1925-26); Secretary, Madura District People's Association, 1925 to 1927. Frequently contributes to the British Press articles on Indian subjects especially economic and financial. *Publications:* "A National System of Taxation," "Monetary Reform in India"; "Law of Sale of Goods in India." *Address:* Lakshmi Vilasam, North Veli Street, Madura, S. India.

RAMAN, SIR CHANDRASEKHARA VENKATA, Kt., M.A., Hon. Ph.D. (Frieburg), Hon. LL.D. (Glasgow) and (Bombay); Hon. D.Sc. (Calcutta), (Benares), (Dacca), (Madras) and (Paris) F.R.S. Awarded Nobel Prize for Physics (1930); Director, Indian Institute of Science, Bangalore. *b.* 7th November 1880. *m.* Lokasundarammal. *Educ:* A.V.N. College, Vizagapatam and Presidency College, Madras. Enrolled Officer, Indian Finance Dept. 1907-17; Palit Prof., Calcutta Univ., 1917-33; Hon. Secry., Indian Association for the Cultivation of Science, 1919-33; British Association Lecturer (Toronto), 1924; Research Associate, California Institute of Tecinology, 1924; President, Indian Science Congress, 1928; Mateucci Medallist, Rome, 1929; Hughes Medallist of the Royal Society (1930), Fellow of the Institute of Physics, Asiatic Society of Bengal Hon. Mem. Ind. Math., Soc., Indian Chemical Society, and Patna Med. Assoc., Hon. Fellow, Zurich Phys. Soc. and Royal Phil. Soc., Glasgow. *Publications:* Experimental Investigations on Vibrations; Theory of Bowed Instruments; Molecular Diffraction of Light; Music, Instruments; X-ray Studies; and numerous scientific papers in the Indian Journal of Physics which is conducted by him and in British and American journals; President, Indian Association for the cultivation of Science, 1933. *Address:* Indian Institute of Science, Bangalore.

RAMACHANDRA RAO, DEWAN BAHADUR M., B.A., B.L., Kaiser-i-Hind Gold Medal, Advocate, High Court. *b.* Sept. 1868. *m.* M. Viyyamma. *Educ.:* at Presidency College, Madras. Member, Madras Legislative Council, 1910-1923; Member, Legis. Assembly, 1924-26. Member of the deputation of the All-India Moderates in 1919 and Member of the Lytton Committee on Indian Students, 1921; Member, Indian Sandhurst Committee, 1924; President, Prohibition League 1926; President, All-India States Subjects Confce., 1927; Member, Indian Round Table Conference, 1930; President, Madras Co-operative Central Land Mortgage Bank, 1930. *Publications:* Development of Indian Polity. *Address:* Ellore, Madras Presidency; and, 40, Edward Elliot Road, Mylapore, Madras.

RAMAKRISHNA REDDI, THAMBALLAPALLE NALLAPA REDDI, B.A., B.L., M.L.A., Vakil. *b.* Aug. 1890. *m.* Syamalamma. *Educ:* Christian College, Madras, and Law College, Madras. Vice-President, Taluka Board, Chittoor; Member, District Board, Municipal Board, Chittoor; Hon. Asstt. Registrar of Co-operative Societies, Chittoor; Secretary, Dist. Co-operative Federation, Chittoor, President, Temple Committee Chittoor; President, Taluka Board, Madanapalle; Member Legislative Assembly, since 1930. Secretary, Democratic party, Leg. Assembly: *Address:* Madanapalle, Madras Presidency.

RAMASWAMI AIYAR, SIR CHETPAT P. K.C.I.E. (1925), B.A., B.L., C.I.E. (1923); Member, Government of India, for Commerce and Railways. *b.* 12 Nov. 1879. *m.* Sitalakshmi, *d.* of C. V. Sundram Sastri and Sister of Justice Kumaraswami Sastri. *Educ:* Wesley College, Presidency College and Law College, Madras. English and Sanskrit University Prizeman. Enrolled as Vakil, 1903 and as Advocate, 1923. For many years member of the Madras Corporation and Standing Committee; Fellow and Syndic of Madras University; Trustee of various educational institutions. Secretary to Congress, 1917-18; connected with the National Congress until 1918. Gave evidence before Joint Parliamentary Committee on Reforms, 1919, also before Meston and Southborough Committees. Member of Committee to draft Regulations for Madras under the Reform Act. Represented Madras Presidency at War Conference, Delhi. Returned to Legislative Council by University of Madras, 1918, and by City of Madras. 1920. Advocate-General, 1920-1923. Member, Executive Council, 1923. Delivered the Convocation Address, University of Madras, 1924; Senior Member and Vice-President, Executive Council, April 1925. Represented India at the League of Nations Assembly at Geneva as a substitute delegate in 1926 and as delegate in 1927. Resumed practice at the Bar, March 1928. Appeared before the Butler Committee on behalf of some of the Indian States, April 1928; delivered the Shri Krishna Rajendra Jubilee Lecture to the Mysore University, July 1928. Appeared in the Patiala Enquiry for H.H. the Maharaja of Patiala along with Sir Tej Bahadur Sapru; Elected to the Legislative Assembly by the Tanjore-Trichinopoly Constituency, 1929. Elected to the Council of State from Madras Presidency, 1930; Delegate to the Indian Round Table Conference and Member of the Federal Structure Committee, 1930. Law Member, Governor-General's Executive Council, 1931; Legal and Constitutional Adviser to H. H. The Maharaja of Travancore; Delivered the Delhi University convocation address, 1931; Tagore Law Lecturer, Cal. University, 1932; Member of the Consultative Committee of the Round Table Conference, 1932; Member of Government of India for Commerce and Railways, 1932. Chairman of Committee appointed by the Chamber of Princes to consider the White Paper, 1933; Member of the Joint Select Committee of Parliament, 1933; Delegate to the World Economic Conference 1933. *Publications:* Various pamphlets and articles on Financial and Literary topics. *Address:* The Grove Cathedral, Madras; and DeLisle, Ootacamund.

RAMESAM, SIR THE HON. MR. JUSTICE VEPA, B.A., B.L., Judge, High Court, Madras. *b.* 27 July 1875. *m.* Lakshminarasamma. *Educ.*: Hindu Coll., Vizagapatam; Presidency Coll., Madras, and Law Coll., Madras. Practised as High Court Vakil at Vizagapatam from 1896 to 1900; at Madras 1900-1920; Govt. Pleader 1916-20; appointed Judge, 1920. *Address:* Gopal Vihar, Mylapore, Madras.

RAMPUR, LIEUT. HIS HIGHNESS ALIJAH FARZAND-I-DILPIZIR-I-DAULAT-I-INGLISHIA, MUKHLIS-UD-DAULAH, NASIR-UL-MULK, AMIR-UL-UMRA, NAWAB SAYED MOHAMMAD RAZA ALI KHAN BAHADUR, MUSTAID JUNG. *b.* 17th Nov. 1906. Succeeded 20th June 1930. State has area of 892·54 square miles and population 464,919. Permanent Salute 15 Guns. *Address:* Rampur State, U.P.

RAMUNNI MENON, SIR KONKOTH, of Konkoth House, Trichur, Cochin, State, South India; Kt., *cr.* 1933; Diwan Bahadur, 1927; M.A. (Cantab); Vice-Chancellor, University of Madras; *b.* Trichur, 14 September 1872; *m* V. K. Kalliani Amma, of Trichur; two *s.* and one *d. Educ:* Maharajah's College, Ernakulam; Presidency College, Madras; Christ's College (scholar), Cambridge. Entered the Madras Educ.: Department 1898; Prof. of Zoology 1910; retired 1927. Connected with the Madras University since 1912; nominated to the Madras Legislative Council on two occasions; represented the Madras University at the Congress of the Universities of the Empire at Edinburgh 1931; Chairman, Inter-University Board 1932-33; Vice-Chancellor, Madras University, since 1928. *Address:* Vepery, Madras.

RANCHHODLAL SIR CHINUBHAI MADHOWLAL, Second Baronet, *cr.* 1913. *b* 18 April 1906. *s.* of 1st Baronet and Sulochana, *d.* of Chunilal Khushalrai. *s.* father, 1916. *m.* 30th November 1924 with Tanumati, *d.* of Javerial Bulakhiram Mehta of Ahmedabad. (Father was first member of Hindu community to receive a Baronetcy). *Heir:* Son, Udayan, *b.* 25 July 1929. *Address:* "Shantikunj," Shahibag, Ahmedabad.

RANGACHARIAR, DEWAN BAHADUR TIRUVENKATA, B.A., B.L., C.I.E. (1925), M.L.A. since 1920. Vakil, High Court, Madras. *b.* 1865, *m.* Ponnammal, *d.* of S. Rajagopala Aiyengar of Srirangam *Educ.*: S. P. G. College, Trichinopoly; Law College, Madras. Schoolmaster for 3 years; enrolled as Vakil, High Court, Madras, 1891; Professor, Law Coll., 1898-1900; Member, Madras Corpn., since 1908; Member, Madras Legis. Council, 1916-1919; Member, Indian Bar Committee; Esher Committee, Elected Dy. President, Leg. Assembly

Member, Indian Colonies Committee on deputation at London with the Colonial Office; President, Telegraph Committee, 1921; Member, Frontier Committee; Chairman Madras Publicity Board. Represented India at the opening by H. R. H. the Duke of York of the Federal Parliament at Canberra, Australia, 1927; Chairman, Indian Cinematograph Committee, 1928. Vice-Chairman, Madras Bar Council; Chairman, Army Retrenchment Committee, 1931. *Publications:* A book on Village Panchayats. *Address:* Ritherdon House, Vepery, Madras.

RANGANATHAM, ARCOT, B.A., B.L., Minister for Development, Madras. *b.* 29 June 1879. *Educ:* Christian and Law Colleges, Madras. Entered Government Service in 1901; resigned Deputy Collectorship in 1915; entered Legislative Council in 1920 for Bellary District, re-elected in 1923, 1926 and 1930. Went to England as a member of the National Convention Deputation in 1924. Minister for Development, Madras, December 1926 to March 1928; Hon. Secretary, Young Men's Indian Association, Madras, from 1916; Hon. Organising Secretary and Treasurer, Reconstruction League, 1928. Joint General Secretary, Theosophical Society, Indian Section, 1931. *Publications:* Editor, "Prajabandhu, a Telugu Magazine devoted to the education of the Electorate; Author of "Indian Village—as it is." *Address:* Theosophical Society, Adyar, Madras, S.

RANGNEKAR, SAJBA SHANKAR, B.A., LL.B., Barrister-at-Law, Puisne Judge, Bombay High Court. *b.* 20th December 1878; Chief Presidency Magistrate, 1924; Acting Judge High Court, Bombay, 1925, 1927 and again in 1928; confirmed April 1929. *Address:* High Court, Bombay.

RANGOON, BISHOP OF. (See Tubbs, the Rt. Rev. Dr. Norman Henry.)

RANKIN, THE HON. SIR GEORGE CLAUS, KT. (1925), Chief Justice, High Court, Calcutta *b.* 12th, August 1877. *m.* Alice Maud Amy Sayer. *Educ.:* Trinity College, Cambridge. Barrister (Lincoln's Inn) 1904. Northern Circuit. R. Garrison Artillery. 1916-18. *Address:* Bengal Club, Calcutta.

RAO, VINAYEK GANPAT, B.A. (Bom.), 1908; B.A., LL.B. (Cantab.), 1913; called to the Bar, 1914. Professor of French at the Elphinstone College, Bombay. *b.* 24 September 1888. *m.* Miss B. R. Kothare, *d.* of Mr. R. N. Kothare, Solicitor. *Educ.:* Elphinstone Middle School; Elphinstone High School; Elphinstone College; St. John's College, Cambridge; Grenoble University (France). Hon. Professor of French at the Elphinstone College, 1914-1917. Hon. Professor of French at the Wilson College, 1914-1917, 1921-1923. Officer d'Academie. Prof. of Law at the Government Law College, Bombay, 1923-1924 (June); Asstt. Law Reporter, India Law Reports, Bombay Series for some time; joined the Educational Service; Prof. of French at the Elphinstone College from June 1924. Justice of Peace 1927; Nominated member of the Bombay Corporation; Chairman of the Schools' Committee, Bombay Municipality; District Commissioner, Municipal Boy Scouts Association; Fellow of the Bombay University; Second Lieutenant in the University Training Corps. *Address:* 347, Kalbadevi Road, Bombay (2).

RAU, RAGHAVENDRA, M.A. (Madras Univ.); Financial Commissioner of Railways. *b.* 24 May, 1889. *m.* Satyabhama Rau. *Educ:* Kundapur High School, Mangalore Govt. College and Madras Christian College. Entered the Indian Audit and Accounts Service in 1912 as the result of a competitive examination. After serving in various accounts offices, entered the Government of India Secretariat Finance Department in 1921. After 5 years during which he was Under Secretary and Deputy Secretary in that Department and was attached to the Lee Commission as an Assistant Secretary on the financial side, joined the Railway Department in 1926. Became Director of Finance in 1928, and officiated as Financial Commissioner of Railways for the first time in 1929 and was appointed substantively to that post in 1932. *Address:* Railway Board, Government of India, Delhi and Simla.

RÂY, SIR PROFULLA CHANDRA, KT., C.I.E., D.Sc, (Edin.), Ph. D. (Cal.), Paltit Prof. of Chemistry, Univ. Coll. of Sc., Calcutta. *b.* Bengal, 1861. *Educ.:* Calcutta; Edinburgh Univ. Graduated at Edinburgh, D.Sc. 1887; Hon.Ph.D., Calcutta Univ., 1908; Hon. D.Sc., Durham Univ., 1912. President, National Council of Education, Indian Chemical Society; Founder and Director, Bengal Chemical and Pharmaceutical Works, Ltd. *Address:* College of Science, Calcutta.

READYMONEY, SIR JEHANGIR COWASJI JEHANGIR; *see* JEHANGIR.

REDDI, SIR VENKATA KURMA. (See under VENKATA KURMA REDDI.)

REED, SIR STANLEY, KT., K.B.E., LL.D, (Glasgow) Editor, *The Times of India*, Bombay, 1907-1923. *b.* Bristol, 1872. *m.* 1901, Lilian, *d.* of John Humphrey of Bombay. Joined staff, *Times of India*, 1897; Sp. Correspdt., *Times of India* and *Daily Chronicle* through famine districts of India, 1900; tour of Prince and Princess of Wales in India, 1905-06; Amir's visit to India, 1907, and Persian Gulf, 1907; Jt. Hon. Sec., Bombay Pres., King Edward and Lord Hardinge Memorials; *Ex.* Lt.-Col. Commdg. Bombay L. H. Represented Western India at Imp. Press Confce., 1909. *Address:* *The Times of India*, Salisbury Square House, Fleet Street, London, E. C. 4.

REID, COLONEL CARTWRIGHT, C.B. (June 1917), M. Inst. C.E., Engineer in Chief, Vizagapatam Harbour. *b.* 7 Nov., 1864. *m.* Julia, only *d.* of late Henry Miller. *Educ.:* Kirkby Lons-

dale Grammar School. Articled to Thomas Reid, C. E. Wakefield and Normanton. Entered Admiralty Service (1888) as Asstt. Civil Engineer; served at Pembroke, Halifax, Esquimalt and Chatham; was Superintending Civil Engineer, Malta, Chatkam and Rosyth and Deputy Civil Engineer-in-Chief Admiralty Lt.-Col. Royal Marines for reconstruction of Belgian Ports; Acted as a Consultant to Calcutta Port Trust in connection with proposed King George's Dock Scheme and Basra Port re: Shatt-el-Arab. Loaned by Admiralty (1921) for construction of Vizagapatam Harbour. *Address:* Vizagapatam Harbour, Vizagapatam.

REID, ROBERT NEIL, M.A. (Oxon.), C.I.E. 1930; Kaisar-i-Hind Gold Medal, 1924. Chief Secretary to the Government of Bengal, *b.* 15 July 1883. *m.* Amy Helen Disney, 1909. *Educ:* Malvern and Brasenose Coll., Oxford. I.C.S. 1906; arrived in India 1907, Asst. Magte., Bengal; Under-Secretary, 1911-14; I.A.R.O., 1916-18; Magte. and Collector 1920-27, Secretary, Agriculture and Industries Department, 1927-28; Commissioner, Rajshahi Division, 1930; Offg. Chief Secretary, 1930-31; Member of Executive Council, Bengal (Offg.), 1932. *Address:* Writer's Buildings, Calcutta; The Warren, Thorpeness, Suffolk.

REILLY, LIEUT. COLONEL BERNARD BAWDON, C.I.E. (1926); O.B.E. (1918); Chief Commissioner, Resident and Commander-in-Chief, Aden. *b.* 25th March 1882. *Educ.:* Bedford School. Joined Indian Army, 1902, entered Indian Political Department, 1908; served in India and Aden in various appointments. Officiated as Political Resident, Aden, 1925 and 1926, and as Resident and Commander-in-Chief, Aden, in 1930 and 1931. Appointed as Resident and Commander-in-Chief in March 1931, and as Chief Commissioner, Aden, in April 1932. Appointed as His Majesty's Commissioner and Plenipotentiary to His Majesty the Imam of the Yemen in December 1933 and concluded a treaty with the Yemen in February 1934. *Address:* The Residency, Aden.

REILLY, HENRY D'ARCY CORNELIUS, Judge of the Madras High Court. *b.* 15th January 1876. *m.* to Margaret Florence Wilkinson (1903). *Educ:* Merchant Taylors' School and Corpus Christi College, Oxford. Indian Civil Service (Madras), arrived November 1899; Registrar of the High Court, 1910-1913; District and Sessions Judge 1916. *Address:* Madras Club, Madras.

REMEDIOS, MONSIGNOR JAMES DOS, B.A., J.P. (Oct. 1918); Dean, Vicariate of Bombay, (1929); Chaplain, St. Teresa's Chapel and Principal, St. Teresa's High School, since 1904. *b.* 9th August 1875. *Educ:* at St. Xavier's College and at the Papal Seminary, Kandy, Ceylon. *Address:* St. Teresa's Chapel, Girgaum, Bombay.

RESHIMWALE, KESHAVARAO GOVIND, B.A. (Allahabad); *b.* April 1879. *Educ:* St. Xavier's High School, Bombay and Muir Central College, Allahabad. Revenue Training in Central Provinces; worked in Settlement Department as Assistant Settlement Officer in 1907-08; then as Inspecting Settlement Officer in 1910; then in Revenue Department as Amin (Tehsildar), Subha (Collector), Director, Land Records; then as Settlement Officer. Was awarded the title of Musahib-i-Khas Bahadur at the Birthday Durbar of H. H. The Maharaja Yeshwant Rao Holkar II, in 1930. Revenue Minister, Holkar State, Retired, January 1933. *Address:* Nandlalpur Indore City.

RICHMOND, ROBERT DANIEL, C.I.E. (June 1932); Chief Conservator of Forests, Madras. *b.* 29 Oct. 1878. *m.* Monica, only *d.* of Sir James Davy, K.C.B. *Educ:* Royal Indian Engineering College, Coopers Hill. Joined Indian Forest Service, Nov. 1901; served in various capacities including Principal, Madras Forest College; Asst. Inspector-General of Forests to Government of India, 1919-1922; Conservator of Forests, 1923; Chief Conservator of Forests, 1927. Retired 1932; appointed Member, Madras Services Commission. *Address:* Madras Club, Madras.

RIDLAND JOHN GALBRAITH, Secretary and Treasurer, Imperial Bank of India, Bombay. *b.* 22 Aug. 1884. *m.* Margaret Baird Murray. *Educ:* George Watson's College, Edinburgh; Five years with Union Bank of Scotland, Edinburgh; joined Bank of Bombay 1906; appointed Secretary and Treasurer, Imperial Bank of India, Bombay, 1926. *Address:* "Dunedin," Malabar Hill, Bombay.

RIVETT-CARNAC, HERBERT GORDON, British Trade Agent, Gyantse, Tibet. *b.* 13 Feb. 1892. 3rd son of John Thurlow Rivett-Carnac, retired D. I. G. of Police. *m.* June 1925, Cushla, *er. d.* of Lt.-Colonel R. S. Pottinger. *Educ.:* Bradfield Col. (Berks.) and R. M. C. Entered Army, 1911. Served during War on General Staff in Mesopotamia and as Asst. Political Officer, Amara; Foreign and Political Department, December 1923; Assistant Resident, Kolhapur; Assistant to A. G. G. Madras States Agency, November 1927; is Major, Indian Army, and British Trade Agent, Tibet and Assistant Political Officer, Sikkim. Thereafter A. P. A. Southern States of Central India and Alwar, Maupur; Under-Secretary to the Resident at Hyderabad. *Address:* Hyderabad Residency, Hyderabad, Deccan.

RIVETT-CARNAC, JOHN THURLOW, retired Dy. Inspr.-General of Police, Eastern Bengal and Assam, *2nd s.* of late Charles Forbes Rivett-Carnac, Bengal Civil Service, and *gr. s.* of Sir James Rivett-Carnac, Bart., Governor of Bombay, 1838-41. *b.* 1856. *m.* 1887, Edith Emily, *d.* of late H. H. Brownlow and has four sons and one daughter. Entered Indian Police, 1877, retired 1911, served in Burma campaign 1886-7 (medal), and in Chin Lushai expedition, 1889-90 (clasp). *Address:* Shillong, Assam.

RIVINGTON, Rev. Cecil Stansfeld. Kaisar-i-Hind Gold Medal (1918); Mission Priest in Diocese of Bombay; Hon. Canon of St. Thomas' Cathedral, Bombay. *b.* London, 1853. *Educ.*: Rugby; Solicitors Examination, London; Cuddesdon College. Priest, 1878. *Publications.* Commentaries on the Psalms, St. Luke and St. John, a Manual of Theology, Meditations on the Gospel of S. Mark (all in Marathi). *Address:* Betgeri-Gadag, Dharwar District, Bombay.

RIZVI, The Hon. Syed Wakil Ahmad, B.A., LL.B., President, C.P. Legislative Council, *b.* Nov. 1885. *Educ.*: Government College, Jubbulpore, M. C. C. Allahabad and Morris College, Nagpur. Started practice at Raipur as a High Court Pleader and rose to the top; a staunch advocate of Hindu-Moslem unity; a nationalist in politics; entered Legis. Council, 1927; elected President, Legis. Council 1931. *Address:* Raipur, C.P.

ROBERTSON, Major-General, Donald Elphinston, C.B., D.S.O., A.D.C., Director of Personal Services, Army Headquarters. *b.* 22nd Dec. 1879. *m.* Eveline Catharine, *d.* of Sir John Miller. *Educ.*: Radley and Sandhurst. Joined Probyn's Horse in 1900; Chief Instructor, Cavalry School, 1921; A.A.G., Northern Command, 1924; Commander, Jhansi Brigade, 1928; Director, Personal Services, 1932. *Address:* United Service Club, Simla.

ROERICH, Professor, Nicholas, K.; Commander, Order of Imperial Russians of St. Stanislas, St. Anne and St. Vladimir; Commander First Class of Swedish Order of the Northern Star; French Legion of Honour Yugoslavian St. Sava I Cl. Grand Cross; Hon. President, Rœrich Museum, New York, Hon. President, Union Internationale Pour le Pacte Rœrich, Bruges, Hon. President, Permanenf Peace Bauner Committee, New York. (First World Conference of Rœrich Pact Union held Bruges, Sept. 1931; Second Conference Bruges, Aug. 1932, Third International Peace Bauner Convention, Washington, Nov. 1933); Hon. Member of Yugoslavian Academy of Art and Science, Vice-President, of Archæological Institute of America, Member of Academy of Rheims, Societaire of Salon d'Autumne Paris, Hon. Protector and President of 71 Rœrich Societies in the world. *b.* St. Petersburg, 10th Oct. 1874; *s.* of Konstantin Rœrich and Marie V. Kalashnikoff. *m.* 1901, Helena Ivanovna Shaposhnikov, St. Petersburg; two sons. *Educ.*: School of Law, University of St. Petersburg; Studied drawing and painting under Michail O. Mikeshine, also under Kuindjy at Academy Fine Arts, St. Petersburg and under Cormon and Puvis de Chavannes in Paris. Professor of Imperial Archæological Institute, St. Petersburg; and Assistant Editor of Art, 1898-1900; Director of School of Encouragement of Fine Arts in Russia, and President Museum of Russian Art, 1906-1916; Archæological excavations of Kremlin of Novgorod; exhibition and lecture tours in Sweden, Finland, Denmark and England, 1916-1919; came to United States, 1920; headed five years Art expedition in Central Asia, making 500 paintings an collecting data on Asiatic Culture and philosc phy, 1923-1928; Rœrich Museum establishe in his honour in New York City, 1923, no containing over 1,000 of his paintings; nine (9 sections of Rœrich Museum established i Paris, Belgrad, Rigra, Benares, Bruges, Nagga Zagreb, Allahabad and Buenos Aires; 2,00 hers of his paintings are in the Louvre, Luxem bourg, Victoria Albert Museum, Stockholm Helsingki, Chicago Art Institute, Detroit Museum, Kansas City Museum, Omaha Museum, Tretiakov Gallery Moscow; Tripoli Museum, Buenos-Aires National Museum, Vatican etc., President, Founder of Urusvat Himalayan Research Institute, Naggar, Punjab, India; excavated preshistoric burial Pondicherry, French India, 1930; Theatrical productions; Moscow Art Theatre; Covents Garden, Dhiaghileff Ballet, Chicago Opera, Composers League, (Sacre de Printempts with Stravinski); *Publications:* Complete works 1914, Adamant 1924 (also in Russian and Japanese), The Messenger 1925 (Adyar-Madras) Paths of Blessing 1925, Himalaya 1926, Joys of Sikkim, 1928, Altai-Himalaya 1929, Heart of Asia 1930 (also in Russian and Spanish), Flame in Chalice 1930, Shambhala 1930. Realm of Light 1931; Fiery Stronghold(1933); Monographs on Rœrich by: Rostislavov, Gidori, Serge Makovsky, (Toison d'Or), Jubilee Monograph 1916 Alex. Benois, Baltrushaitis, Remisoff, Himalaya Monograph, Corona Mundi Monograph, Vrais et Beau, New York, Monograph 1932. Life Member of Bengal Asiatic Society; Life Member of Indian Society of Oriental Art; Hon. Member Maha Bodhi Society, Calcutta; Hon. Member Bose Institute, Calcutta. Paintings in India in Bharat Kala Bhawan—Benares, Allahabad Museum, Bose Institute, Adyar Museum Madras, Tagore—Shantiniketan, Urusvati Institute—Naggar, etc. *Address:* 310, Riverside Drive New York and Naggar, Kulu, Punjab.

ROTHERA, Sir Percy, Kt., M.Inst.C.E., M.I.C.E. (India), O.B.E. (Military Division) and mentioned in despatches (1918); Agent, South Indian Railway. *b.* 9th February, 1877. *m.* Miss L. S. Legrice. *Educ.*: Rugby School. Served articles with the late Mr. Ed. Parry, C.E., on extension of Great Central Railway to London. Joined South Indian Railway, 1898. *Publications:* Awarded Telford and Indian Premia by Institute of Civil Engineers 1912 for paper on Erection of Girders for large span bridges. *Address:* Trichinopoly, S. India.

ROUSE, Sir Alexander Macdonald, Kt. 1930, C.I.E., F.C.H., Chief Engineer, Delhi. *b.* 14 Sep. 1878. *m.* Jean Lois Jameson, March 1912; two *s.* *Educ.*: St. Paul's Sch.; R.I.E.C., Cooper's Hill. *Address:* Delhi.

ROW, Diwan Bahadur Raghunatha Row Ramachandra, C.S.I., *b.* 27 September 1871. *Educ.*: Trivandrum and Presidency College, Madras. Statutory Civil Service, 1890-92, transferred to Provincial Service; Collector; Registrar, Co-op. Credit Societies; Secretary to Govt. of Madras. Collector of Madras. *Address:* Madras.

ROWLANDS, WILLIAM SHAW, B.A. (Oxon.), Hon. Mod. and Lit. Hum., Principal, Robertson College, Jubbulpore. *b.* Mar. 1, 1888. *m.* Gwladys Irene Scotland. *Education:* Beaumaris Llandovery College and C.C.C. Oxon., Professor of Philosophy, Robertson College, 1912-1926; Head of the Department of Philosophy, Nagpur University, since 1924; 2nd Lieut., I.A.R.O., attached to 1st VIth Jat Light Infantry, 1918-1919. *Publications:* A Guide to General English (with N. R. Navlekar); Commentaries on Newman's "Idea of a University" and Walker's "Selected Short Stories." *Address:* Robertson College, Jubbulpore.

ROWLANDSON, EDMUND JAMES, C.I.E. (1932); Commissioner of Police, Madras *b.* 27 Oct. 1882. *m.* to Kate Millicent Lister Crookenden, *d.* of Lt.-Col. Crookenden, R.A. *Educ:* King's School, Bruton, Somerset. Asstt. Supdt. of Police, Guntur and Ganjam Districts; Dist. Superintendent, Malabar; Principal, Police Training School, Vellore; Dist. Supdt., Chingleput; Asst. Inspector-General, Madras; Offg. Dy. Inspector-General, Coimbatore and Offg. Dy. Inspector General, Waltair; Commissioner of Police, Madras, 1930. *Address:* Madras.

ROY, RT. REV. AUGUSTIN, Bishop of Coimbatore 1904-1931. *b.* France, 1863. *Address:* Catholic Cathedral, Coimbatore.

ROY, SIR GANENDRA PROSAD, Kt. (1926), Member of the Institute of Electrical Engineers; *b.* 6 Feb. 1872 *m.* Merthas Goodeve Chuckerbutty. *Educ:* Cooper's Hill. Appointed Assistant Superintendent of Telegraphs on 1st Oct. 1894; Superintendent of Telegraphs on 4th Nov. 1907; Director of Telegraphs on 1st Oct. 1916 and Postmaster-General, Bengal and Assam, on 1st Feb. 1920; was Postmaster-General, Burma, from 14th Dec. 1921 to 13th April 1922; Postmaster-General, Bengal and Assam, from 1st December 1922 to 25th April 1923; Dy. Chief Engineer, Telegraphs, from 24th Dec. 1923 to 29th Feb. 1924; Ch. Engineer, Telegraphs, from 1st March 1924 to 7th Aug. 1925; Director-General of Posts and Telegraphs, 1925-27. *Address:* Simla.

ROY, RAI BAHADUR SUKHRAJ, Zaminder and Banker, Member of Legislative Assembly. *b.* 28 Sept. 1878. *Educ:* Bhagalpur. Had been Municipal Commissioner for 15 years of Bhagalpur Municipality; an Hon. Magistrate for about 30 years; Member, Legis. Council, Bihar and Orissa; a member of Council of State and at present member of the Legislative Assembly; served as member, Advisory Board of E. I. Railway, Calcutta. Donated Rs. 30,000 to Bhagalpur Municipality and Rs. 25,000 to the Patna University. *Address:* Roynibas, Bhagalpur (Bihar and Orissa).

ROY, SURENDRA NATH, SASTRA VACHASPATI, B.A., B.L. (Calcutta Univ.); Vakil, High Court, Calcutta, and Landholder. *b.* April 1862. *Educ.:* St. Xavier's College; Hindu School and Presidency College, Calcutta. Enrolled as Vakil of the High Court, 1883; enrolled Advocate, 1924; elected Vice-Chairman of the Garden Reach Municipality (first Mill Municipality in Bengal) in 1897; has been elected Chairman, South Suburban Municipality since 1900; Commissioner, Calcutta Corporation, from 1895-1900; Member, Dist. Board of 24 Pergunas from 1916-1922; elected Member, Bengal Legis. Council in January 1913 and elected to Council at subsequent elections; elected by the Members of the Bengal Legis. Council as President of High Prices Committee; elected first Deputy President of the Reformed Council in Feb. 1921; acted as Presidt. from May 1921 to Nov. 1922; introduced the Bengal Primary Education Bill in the Bengal Legis. Council and got it passed by the Council in 1919; elected Member of Bengal Legislative Council from 1913-1929; was first member of Sanitary Board, Bengal, for nine years; was elected representative of the Bengal Legislative Council to the Indian Institute of Science; nominated by Bengal Government to the High Court Retrenchment Committee presided over by Sir Alexander Muddiman; served as Deputy President, Bengal Legislative Council; is Secretary of Bengal Landholders' Association; member of the Indian Association; was Chairman of the All-Bengal Ministerial Officers' Conference held at Burdwan. *Publications:* (1) "A History of the Native States of India"; a Local Self-Government in Bengal; Financial Condition of Bengal; "Suggestions for the solution of the present Economic problem," etc. *Address:* Behala, Calcutta.

RUSHBROOK-WILLIAMS, LAURENCE FREDERIC, M.A., B. Litt. (Oxon.), 1920, O.B.E., 1920. C.B.E. (1923), formerly Foreign Member, Patiala Cabinet, Joint Director of Indian Princes Special Organisation. *b.* 10 July 1891. *m.* 1923, Freda *e. d.* of Frederick Chance: two *s.* one *d. Educ.:* University College, Oxford; Private study in Paris, Venice, Rome; Lecturer at Trinity College, Oxford, 1912; travelled Canada and U.S.A. 1913: Fellow of All Souls, 1912; attached General Staff, Army Headquarters, India, 1916. Professor of Modern Indian History, Allahabad University, 1915-1919: on special duty with the Government of India, 1918-1921 in India, England and America; Official Historian of the Indian Tour of H.R.H. the Prince of Wales, 1921-22: Secretary to the Indian Delegation at the Imperial Conference, 1923: Director of Public Information, Government of India, to end of 1925. Political Secretary to Representative of the Indian Princes at the League of Nations 1925 and Substitute Delegate to the Assembly. Adviser to Indian States Delegation, Round Table Conference. *Publications:* History of the Abbey of S. Albans; Four Lectures on the Handling of Historical Material; Students Supplement to the *Ain-i-Akbari*: A Sixteenth Century Empire Builder: India under Company and Crown: India in 1917-18; India in 1919: India in 1920: India in 1921-22; India in 1922-23, 23-24; 1924-25; General Editor, "India of Today" and India's Parliament, Volumes 1, 2, 3, *seq. Address:* The Old House, Westcott. Surrey.

RUSSELL, LT.-COL. ALEXANDER JAMES HUTCHISON, C.B.E. M.A., M.D., Ch.B., D.P.H., D.T.M., Public Health Commissioner with the Government of India. *b.* 30th August, 1882. *m.* Jessie Waddell Muir. *Educ.*: Dollar Academy, St. Andrew's University, Cambridge University, School of Tropical Medicine, Liverpool. Military Service, 1907-12. Prof. of Hygiene, Medical College, Madras, 1912-17; Director of Public Health, Madras, 1921-28; Royal Commission on Labour, Medical Assessor, 1929-31; Offg. Public Health Commissioner with Government of India, 1932. *Publications*: McNally's Sanitary Handbook for India, 1917, 5th and 6th Editions 1923; Various publications on Cholera. *Address*: Delhi and Simla.

RUSSELL, SIR GUTHRIE, Kt. (1932), B.Sc., A.M. Inst. C.E., M. Inst. E. (India), J.P., Chief Commissioner of Railways, Hon.-Col. N. W. Rly. Regiment, Member of the Council of State. *s.* of the Rev. John and Mrs. Russell, Lochwinnoch, Scotland. *b.* 19th Jan. 1887. *m.* Florence Heggie, *d.* of the late Rev. Peter and Mrs. Anton, Kilsyth, Scotland. *Educ.*: at Glasgow Academy and Glasgow University; graduated B.Sc., in 1907. Served Engineering Apprenticeship with Messrs. Niven and Haddin, Civil Engineers, Glasgow, in 1907-1910; and then joined the staff of the North British Railway. Appointed Asstt. Engineer, Great Indian Peninsula Railway 1913; Resident Engineer 1919; Asst. Secretary to the Agent 1920; Deputy Agent Junior 1922; Controller of Stores 1923; services lent to the Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway 1925; Deputy Agent Senior 1925; appointed offg. Agent, Great Indian Peninsula Railway, 1926; confirmed as Agent 1927; appointed Member Engineering, Railway Board 1928; Chief Commissioner of Railways, 1929. President elect of the Institution of Engineers (India). *Address*: Government of India, Simla and Delhi.

RUTNAGUR, SORABJI MUNCHERJI, J.P., M.R.S.A. (Lond.), Journalist and Technical Adviser. *b.* 21 January 1865. *m.* 7th Jan. 1893, Dhunbai M. Banaji. *Educ.*: Fort High School, Bombay and received practical training as mill manager in local cotton mills. Founder and Editor of the *Indian Textile Journal* since 1890. *Publications*: "Electricity in India" (1912). "Bombay Industries: The Cotton Mills" (1927) with an Introduction by H. E. Sir Leslie Wilson, Governor of Bombay; "Men and Women of India" (1908), published under the patronage of Their Excellencies the Viceroy of India and the Governors of Bombay and Madras. Joint Editor, *Indian Municipal Journal and Sanitary Record* (1900 to 1903). Member of the first Managing Committee of the "Bombay Sanitary Association" inaugurated by H. E. the Governor in 1903. Nominated on the Board of Bandra Municipality by Government for 1917-1920 and Chairman of the War Publicity Committee for the Bandra Mahal in 1918. Author of several patented inventions and Director of the Patents Department of M. C. Rutnagur & Co. since 1890. *Address*: Perry Cross Road, Bandra, Bombay.

SABNIS, RAO BAHADUR SIR RAGHUNATHRAO V., Kt. (1925), B.A., C.I.E. *b.* 1 April 1857. *Educ.*: Rajaram H.S., Kolhapur; Elphinstone Coll., Bombay, Ent. Educ. Dpt.; held offices of Huzur Chitnis and Ch. Rev. Officer Kolhapur; Diwan, Kolhapur State, 1898, 1925, retired (1926). Hon. Judge of the Supreme Court of Judicature, Kolhapur. 1931. Fellow of Royal Society of Arts, Asiatic Society, Bombay Br.; President of the Ilakha Panchayat (District Local Board), Kolhapur; Chairman of the Board of Director, of the Bank of Kolhapur Ltd. *Address*: Kolhapur, Shahupuri.

SACHSE, FREDERIC ALEXANDER, B.A.(Cantab.), C.I.E. (1930); Member, Board of Revenues Bengal: *b.* 27 Feb. 1878. *m.* Hilda Margaret Gatey, *d.* of Joseph Gatey, K.C. *Educ.*: Liverpool College and Caius College, Cambridge. Settlement Officer, Mymensingh and Director, Land Records, and Rev. Secretary. *Publications*: "Mymensingh District Gazetteer." *Address*: C/o Grindlay & Co., Calcutta.

SADIQ HASAN, S., B.A., Bar-at-Law, Member, Legis. Assembly, President of Messrs. K. B. Shaikh Gulam Hussun & Co., Carpet Manufacturers. *b.* 1888. *Educ.*: Govt. College Lahore and Gray's Inn, London; President, Anjuman Islamia, Amritsar; President, Literary Club, Amritsar, takes active interest in Moslem education and political movements; President, Punjab and N. W. F. Province Post Office and R. M. S. Association, 1924-25; Presided over All-India Moslem Kashmiri Conference, 1928. For several years Chairman, Health and Education Committees of Amritsar Municipality. Chairman, Board of Directors, Muslim Bank, Lahore. Vice-President, All-India Muslim League. *Address*: Amritsar.

SAGRADA, RT. REV. EMMANUEL; Vicar Apostolic of Eastern Burma and Titular Bishop of Trina since 1909. *b.* Lodi, 1860. *Address*: Toungoo, Burma.

SAHA, MEGHNAD, D.Sc., F.R.S., F.A.S.B., F. Inst. P.; Head of Physics Dept., Allahabad Univ. *b.* 1893 at Seoratali in Dacca Dist. *Educ*: Dacca and Presidency College, Calcutta. Lecturer in Physics and Applied Mathematics, Calcutta Univ. 1916; Premchand Roychand Scholar, 1918; worked at the Imperial College of Science, London, 1921-22 and in Berlin; Khaira Prof. of Physics, Calcutta Univ. 1921-23; Prof. of Physics, Allahabad Univ. 1923; Life Member of Astronomical Society of France Foundation Fellow of Inst. of Physics; Fellow of Roy. Soc. (1927); Indian Representative at Volta Centenary, Com. 1927; Fellow, Asiatic Soc. of Bengal, 1930; founded U.P. Academy of Sciences and elected First President; 1931; Dean of Science Faculty, Allahabad Univ., 1931. Member, Quinquennial Reviewing Committee, Indian Institute of Science, Bangalore (1930); Member of Governing Body, Indian Research Fund Association; Member of Council, Indian Institute of Science. President, Indian Science Congress, 1934; Director, Sitalpore

Sugar Works Ltd., Bihar. *Publications:* On the Fundamental Law of Electric Action deduced from the Theory of Relativity, 1918; On Measurement of the Pressure of Radiation, 1918; Selective Radiation Pressure, 1918; Theory of Thermal Ionisation and Physical Theory of Thermal Spectra, 1921-22; Explanation of Complex Spectra of Compounds, 1927; New X-rays, 1932; Author of a pamphlet "On the Need of a Hydraulic Research Laboratory in Bengal" and numerous Scientific papers, English, Continental and American. Author of a treatise on the Theory of Relativity; two text books on Heat. *Address:* Physics Laboratories, Allahabad University, Allahabad.

SAILANA, HIS HIGHNESS RAJA SAHIB BHARAT DHARMA NIDHI DILEEP SINGH BAHADUR OF *b.* 18 March 1891. Succeeded the Gadi, 14 July 1919. *m.* first to the *d.* of H. H. the Maharawat of Partabgarh and after her death to the *d.* of the Rawat of Meja in Udaipur. *Educ.:* Mayo College. Aimer. Salute 11 guns. General Secretary, All-India Kshatriya Mahasabha, President of Bharat Dharma Mahamandal, Benares and the Kurukshetra Restoration Society. *Address:* Sailana, C. I.

SAIYID ABDUR RAHMAN, KHAN BAHADUR, M.L.C., Retired Dy. Commissioner, Akola (Berar). *b.* 1864. *Educ.:* St. Francis de Sale's, Nagpur. Supdt., Commissioner's Office, Hoshangabad; Extra Asstt. Commissioner; Dy. Commissioner, Akola (Berar), 1919-1921; Dy. Commissioner, Yeotmal; Per. Asstt. to Commissioner of Berar in C. P. Commission; Official Receiver, Berar; President of many Municipalities and District Boards; Berar Mahomedan representative in C. P. Council. *Address:* Akola.

SAIYID MUHAMMAD HUSSAIN, KHAN BAHADUR, B.A., B.L., Minister of Education Bihar and Orissa. *b.* 1873. *Educ:* Patna College and B. N. College. Began as a pleader in Bihar Sariff in 1896 and became a Vakil of the Calcutta High Court and joined the District Bar, Patna in 1908; in 1924 appointed Government Pleader at Patna; in 1925 became Advocate of Patna High Court and has been Member of Bihar and Orissa Legislative Council since 1921; had been Municipal Commissioner of the Patna City Municipality from 1912-23 and Member of the Board of Secondary Education for several years. Member of Patna District Board and President, Madrasa Examination Board. Was co-opted a member of the Civil Justice Committee. *Address:* Patna.

SAKLATVALA, SIR NOWROJI BAPUJI, Kt. (1933), C. I. E. (1923), J.P., Chairman, Tata Sons, Ltd. *b.* 10 Sept. 1875, *m.* Goolbai, *d.* of Mr. Hormasji S. Batlivala. *Educ.:* at St. Xavier's College. Chairman, Bombay Millowners' Association 1916; Employers' Delegate from India to the International Labour Conference, Geneva, 1921; Member, Legislative Assembly; representing Bombay Millowners' Association, 1922. *Address:* Bombay House, Fort, Bombay.

SAKLATVALA, SORABJI DORABJI, B.A., J.P., Director, Tata Sons Ltd. *b.* March 1879, *m.* Meherbai *d.* of late Major Divecha, I. M. S.; *Educ.* at St. Xavier's College; Chairman, Bombay Millowners' Association, 1924: Vice-President. Indian Central Cotton Committee. 1929-30 and 1930-31; Member, Advisory Board of the Council of Agricultural Research. *Publications:* History of Millowners' Association, Bombay. *Address:* Bombay House, Fort, Bombay.

SAMALDAS, LALUBHAI—*see* LALUBHAI.

SAMIULLAH KHAN, M., B.A., LL.B., High Court Pleader. Vice-President, Government Press Employees' Union, (1929-1930) *b.* 1889. *m.* Miss Irasunnisa A. Jalil. *Educ.:* M.A.O. College, Aligarh. Worked on many war committees during the war; Secy., Prov. Khilafat Committee, C.P. 1920-24; Secy., Anjuman High School, Nagpur (1923); end 1931-32 and its General Secretary since 1932. Vice-Presdt., Nagpur Municipal Committee, 1921-28; one of the secretaries of the Silver Wedding Fund at its start; was Member, All-India Congress Committee and the Central Khilafat Committee from 1921-23; non-co-operated from practice from 1921-23: a member of Swaraj party. Member, Legislative Assembly, 1924-26: Whip of the Swaraj Party in the Legislative Assembly, 1925, and a Member of the Executive Committee of the Anjuman High School Institute since 1915. Hon. Secretary, District Bar Association, Nagpur 1927-32. President, Railway Mail Service Association (Branch) Nagpur, (1926). President, Nagpur Municipal Committee, since 1932. *Address:* Sadar Bazar, Nagpur, C.P.

SAMTHAR, H. H. MAHARAJA SIR BIR SINGH DEO, MAHARAJA OF, K.C.I.E. *b.* 8 Nov. 1865. *S.* 1896. *Address:* Samthar, Bundelkhand.

SANKARANARAYANA AYYAR, S., M.A., B.L., Advocate, Tinnevelly. *b.* 14 May 1896. *Educ:* Presidency Coll., Madras: Law Colleges, Madras and Trivandrum. Graduated in Arts 1920, and in Law 1922. *m.* Rukmani Amnal of Kodangudi, Tanj. Dist. (1926). Zamindar of Nayinaragaram, Tinnevelly District. Proprietor of Kayatar Estate, Tinnevelly Dist.; Winner of S.P.C.A. Gold Medal 1920. Special Lecturer, Elementary Teachers' Confce. at Tinnevelly, 1923. Chairman of the Reception Committee, first Tinnevelly Postmen's Confce., 1924. Witness, Tamil University Committee 1927; Author of several articles on Metaphysics, Law and Education, as "Do Finite Individuals have a Substantive or an Adjectival Mode of Being," "Maintenance to a widow—Quantum and Style of Life," "The Necessity for a Conscience Clause in Indian Educational Institutions," etc. Has contributed much to public discussion on the Madras Univ. Act, Madras Hindu Religious

Endowments Act, and other enactments of the legislature. *Address:* Zamindar of Nayinaragaram, Vannarpet, Tinnevelly.

SAPRU, SIR TEJ BAHADUR, M.A., LL.D., K.C.S.I. (1923). *b.* 8 Dec. 1875. *Educ.*: Agra College, Agra. Advocate, High Court, Allahabad, 1896-1926; Member, U.P. Leg. Council, 1913-16; Member, Imperial Leg. Council, 1916-20; Member, Lord Southborough's Functions Committee, 1918-1919; Member of Moderate Deputation and appeared as a witness before Lord Selborne's Committee in London, 1919; Member, All-India Congress Committee (1906-1917); Presdt., U.P. Political Confce., 1914; Presdt., U.P. Social Confce. (1913); Presdt., U.P. Liberal League, 1918-20; Fellow, Allahabad Univ., 1910-1920; Member, Benares Hindu University Court and Senate and Syndicate; Law Member of the Governor-General's Executive Council, retired (1922). Member of the Imperial Conference in London (1923): presided over the All-India Liberal Federation, Poona (1923); Member of the Reforms Enquiry Committee, 1924. *Publications:* has contributed frequently to the press on political, social and legal topics: edited the *Allahabad Law Journal*, 1904-1917. *Address:* 19, Albert Road, Allahabad.

SARDAR GHOUS BAKSH KHAN RAISANI, SIR, K.C.I.E., premier Chief of Sarawans, Baluchistan.

SARKAR, SIR, JADUNATH, Kt., C.I.E., M.L.C. (Bengal, 1929-32), M.A., (English Gold Medal), Premchand Roychand Scholar (Mouat Gold Medal). Hon. Member of Royal Asiatic Society of Great Britain (1923); Member of the Indian Hist. Record Comn.; Sir James Campbell Gold Medalist (Bom. Br. R.A.S.) Vice-Chancellor, Calcutta University 1926-28; Indian Educational Service (ret.) *b.* 10 December 1870. *m.* Kadambini Chaudhuri. *Educ.* Presidency Coll., Calcutta. Some time Univ. Professor of Modern Indian History, Hindu University of Benares (1917-19). Sir W. Meyer Lecturer, Madras University (1928). Reader in Indian History, Patna University (1920-1922 and 1932). *Publications*: India of Aurangzeb; Statistics, Topography and Roads (1901); History of Aurangzib, 5 Vols.; Shivaji and His Times: Mughal Administration; Studies in Mughal India; Anecdotes of Aurangzeb; Chaitanya: His Life and Teachings; Economics of British India; India Through the Ages; Fall of the Mughal Empire; Edited and continued W. Irvine's *Later Mughals* 2 Vols. *Address:* Auckland Road, Darjeeling.

SARMA, S. K., B.A., B.L., Vakil. *b.* 4 April 1880. *Educ*: S. P. G. College, Trichinopoly. Founded the *Wednesday Review* in 1905 and Asstt. Editor till 1917. Asstt. Editor and leader writer, *Indu Prakash*, Bombay, 1906-07; Leader-writer to the **Madras Standard** in 1911-12; Witness, Royal Commission on Indian Currency and Finance (1919) and Indian Taxation Inquiry Committee (1924), and Special Public Prosecutor to the Pudu Kotah Darbar in-charge of the Conspiracy case in 1931 and 1932. *Publications:* "Monetary Problems," "A Note on the Rise of Prices in India," "The Exchange Crisis" and "Towards Swaraj," *Address:* Teppakulam, P.O. Trichinopoly.

SARVADHIKARY, SIR DEVA PRASAD, Kt., C.I.E., C.B.E., M.A., B.L. (Calcutta), LL.D. (Aberdeen), LL.D. (St. Andrews), Suriratna (Navadwip), Vidyaratnakar (Dacca), Vidya Sudhakar (Bhattapalli), Bangaratna (Benares), Jnan Sindhu (Puri). Advocate and Solicitor. Fellow, Calcutta University, Benares, Dacca and Delhi Universities; Dean, Faculty of Law and late Vice-Chan. and Dean, Faculty of Arts, Calcutta Univ.; late Mem. of Council of State, late member of Indian Legislative Assembly, and Bengal Council. *b.* 1862. *m.* 1883, Nagendranandini. 2 *s.* Nirmal (B.L.) and Nikhel (M.B.) and 3 *d.* Nalini, Nihar and Niraja. *Educ.*: Ramsheshwarpore, Sanskrit College, Hare and Howrah Schools: Presidency College, Calcutta. For several years Mem. of Mun. Corpn. of Calcutta; Mem. of Imp. Lib. Vice-President, Calcutta Rotary Club, W.M. Lodge Anchor, and Hope. Trustee, Imp. Museum; Pres., various literary, social and philanthropic societies and President, Calcutta Licensing Board; Calcutta Temperance Federation, Anti-Smoking Society "The Refuge"; Calcutta, University Corps Committee. Incorporated Society of Law; Vice-President, Indian Association and National Council of Education, Sahitya Parishad, Asiatic Society, and President, Calcutta University Institute, Late Mem. Lytton Com. (Lond.) and Paddison Com. South Africa. Representative of India Government on the League of Nations, Geneva. Has travelled much all over India, Europe and South Africa, Twice represented Calcutta Univ. at the Congress of the Univ. of the Empire, held in England. *Publications*: "Notes and Extracts," "Three Months in Europe," "Prabash Patra," Travels in South Africa, Smiriti Rekha. *Address*: Prasadpur, 20, Suri Lane, Calcutta. Clubs, Calcutta and National Liberal, India.

SASTRI, THE RT. HON. V. S. SRINIVASA, P.C. 1921; C.H. (1930). *b.* Sept. 22, 1869. *Educ.*: at Kumbhakonam. Started life as a School-master; joined the Servants of India Society in 1907; succeeded the late Mr. G. K. Gokhale in its Presidentship in 1915; Member, Madras Legislative Council, 1913-16; elected from Madras Presidency to Imperial Legis. Council, 1916-20. Closely associated with Mr. Montagu during his tour in India in 1918; Member, Southborough Committee; gave evidence before Joint Parliamentary Committee on Indian Reform Bill, 1919; served on Indian Railway Committee; represented India at Imperial Confec., 1921, and at the meeting of the League of Nations at Geneva and the Washington Confce. on the reduction of naval armament during the same year. Appointed Privy Councillor and received the freedom of the City of London, 1921: undertook a tour in the Dominions as the re-

presentative of Government of India, 1922; elected Member, Council of State, 1921. delivered the Kamala Lectures to the Calcutta University on the "Rights and Duties of Indian Citizenship" since published in book form. High Commissioner for India in South Africa 1927-29; Member, Royal Commission on Labour 1929. *Address:* Servants of India Society, Bombay or Poona.

SAUNDERS, THE RIGHT REV. CHARLES JOHN GODFREY, M.A., Bishop of Lucknow. *b.* 15th Feb. 1888. *m.* Mildred Robinson Hebblethwaite; one *s.* and two daughters. *Educ.:* Merchant Taylors' School, London: Scholar of St. John's College, Oxford, Cuddeson College, Oxon. Deacon 1910; Priest 1911, Diocese of Lucknow; S.P.G. Mission, Cawnpore, 1911-16; Indian Ecclesiastical Establishment, Chaplain, 1917, at Roorkee, 17, Cawnpore, 1918; Chakrata, 1921; Staff Chaplain, Army Headquarters, India, 1921-24; Metropolitan's Chaplain, Calcutta, 1925-1928; Bishop of Lucknow 1928. *Address:* Bishop's Lodge, Allahabad.

SAUNDERS, COLONEL MACAN, D.S.O., Offg. Director, Military Operations, Army Headquarters, India. *b.* 9 Nov. 1884. *m.* Marjory, *d.* of Francis Bacon. *Educ.:* Malvern College; R.M.A., Woolwich. Lieut., Royal Field Artillery, 1903; Lieut., Indian Army, 1907; Capt., 1912: Major, 1918; Bt.-Lieut.-Col., 1919; Col. 1923, in India till 1914, except for a year in Russia; Staff Capt., 2nd Royal Naval Brigade, 1914, operations in Belgium and siege of Antwerp; Operations in Gallipoli, 1915, from 1st landing to evacuation; G.S.O. 3 in Egypt to March 1916; Brig-Major, Eastern Persian Field Force to April 1917; Operations in Mesopotamia, 1917-18; G.S.O. 2 and Intelligence Officer with Major-Gen. Dunstervilie's Mission through N. W. Persia to the Caucasus, 1918; G.S.O. 1, Caucasus Section, G.H.Q. British Salonika Force, 1919 (wounded, despatches five times, D.S.O. Bt.-Lt.-Col.); P.S.C. Camberley, 1920; Military Attache, Teheran, Persia, 1921-24. D.D.M.I., Army Headquarters 1924-29. *Address:* General Staff, Army Headquarters (India), Simla.

SAWANTWADI, HIS HIGHNESS MAJOR KHEM SAWANT V. *alias* BAPUSAHEB BHONSLE, RAJE BAHADUR RAJA SAHEB OF. *b.* Aug. 20th 1897. *m.* Princess Shri Lakshmi Devi of Baroda, *s.* Yuvraj Shiwram Sawant. *Educ.:* Malvern College, England. Served in the Great War at Mesopotamia from Oct. 1917 to March 1919; attached as Hon. Officer to 4/5th Mahratta Light Infantry. *Address:* Savantwadi.

SAYED MOHAMAD, Sahibzada Sir, Mehr Shah Nawab; Member, Council of State. Elected Member of the Punjab Legislative Council at the age of 25; elected twice as member of the Council of State; A delegate to the Round Table Conference. *Address:* Jalal, Pur Sharif, Jhelum District, Punjab.

SCOTT, JOHN GORDON CAMERON, M.A. (Cantab), Mediæval and Modern Languages Tripos (1911); Principal, Prince of Wales's Royal Indian Military College, Dehra Dun. *b.* 14 March 1888. *m.* to Audrey, youngest *d.* of Colonel J. Scully. *Educ:* Marlborough College, and Pembroke College, Cambridge. Appointed to the Chief's College Branch of the Indian Educational Service in 1912; Assistant Master, Daly College, Indore, 1912; Principal, Prince of Wales's Royal Indian Military College, October 1921. *Address:* Prince of Wales's R.I.M. College, Dehra Dun, U.P.

SCROOPE, ARTHUR EDGAR, B.A. (1903) and Scholar, Dublin University (1902) High Court Judge, Patna. *b.* 24 January 1881. *m.* Judith Agatha Horwood. *Educ:* Clongowes Wood College and Trinity College, Dublin. District and Session Judge, Bihar and Orissa, 1912-1922; Registrar, High Court, Patna; Judicial Secretary and Legal Remembrancer to Government of Bihar. *Address:* Patna, E.I.R.

SEAL, SIR BRAJENDRANATH, Kt., M.A., Ph. D., D.Sc., Vice-Chancellor, Mysore University, 1920-30; Prof. of Mental and Moral Science, Calcutta Univ., 1914-1920. Extra Member of Council, Mysore Government 1925-26. *b.* 3 Sept. 1864. *Educ.:* Gen. Assembly's Institution, Calcutta University: Del., Orientalist Congress, Rome, 1899; opened discussion at 1st Univ. Races Congress, London, 1921; Mem., Simla Committee for drawing up Calcutta Univ. Reg., 1905; Chairman, Mysore Constitutional Reforms Committee, 1922-23: Author of New Essays in Criticism, Memoir on Co-efficients of Numbers; Comparative Studies in Vaishnavism and Christianity; Race Origins, etc. *Address:* 98, Lansdowne Road, Calcutta.

SEN, JITENDRANATH, M.A.; Calcutta Univ. Sen. Prof. of Phy. Sc., City Coll., since 1903. *b.* 1875. *m.* 1899. *Educ:* Hindu Sch.; Presidency Coll.; City Coll. and Sc. Assoc., Calcutta. *Publications:* Elementary Wave Theory of Light and other small books. *Address:* City College. 102/1, Amherst Street, Calcutta.

SETALVAD, SIR CHIMANLAL HARILAL, K.C.I.E., (1924) LL.D., Advocate, High Court, Bombay. *b.* July 1866. *m.* Krishnagavri, *d.* of Nurbheram Rughnathdas, Govt. Pleader, Ahmedabad. *Educ.:* Elphinstone College, Bombay. Pleader, High Court, Bombay; Admitted as Advocate, High Court; Member, Southborough Reforms Committee, 1918; Member, Hunter Committee, 1919; Additional Judge, Bombay High Court, 1920; Member, Executive Council of Governor of Bombay, Jan. 1921 to June 1923; and Vice-Chancellor Bombay University 1917-1929. *Address:* Setalvad Road, Malabar Hill, Bombay.

SETALVAD, RAO BAHADUR CHUNILAL HARI LAL, C.I.E., Bar.-at-Law, formerly Chief Presidency Magistrate, Bombay. *Address:* Bombay.

SETH, RAI BAHADUR KUNWAR BISHESHWAR DAYAL, B.Sc., M.L.C., F.C.S. (London), M.R.A.S. (London), Taluqdar of Muizuddinpur. *Educ.:* at Canning College, Lucknow. Member of the Board of High School and Intermediate Education U. P.; Member of the Court of Lucknow

University; President of the Board of Trustees of Seth Jai Dayal High School Biswan; Member of the managing body of Colvin Taluqdars' School, Lucknow; Trustee of Raja Raghubar Dayal High School, Sitapur; Member of the Board of Agriculture, U. P.; Member of U. P. Cattle-breeding Committee; Member of U. P. Agricultural Research Committee; Member of the Court of Wards Advisory Committee, Sitapur; Member of the Executive Committee of British Indian Association of Oudh; Member of the Local Provinces Legislative Council as one of the representatives of British Indian Association of Oudh; Member of U. P. Finance Committee, 1928-29; Member of U. P. Simon Committee, Delegate to the Indian Round Table Conference in London; Hony. Special Magistrate. Gave evidence before the Indian Taxation Enquiry Committee in 1925. *Address*: Kotra, Biswan District Sitapur, Oudh.

SETHNA, The Hon. Sir Phiroze Cursetjee, Kt., B.A., J.P., O.B.E. (1918); Member, Council of State. *b.* 8 Oct. 1866. Manager for India, Sun Life Assurance Co. of Canada; Chairman, Central Bank of India, Ltd.; Member, Bombay Municipal Corporation; Past President, Bombay Municipal Corporation and Indian Merchants' Chamber. *Address*: Canada Building, Hornby Road, Bombay.

SETURATNAM IYER, The Hon. Mr. M. R., Minister for Development, Madras Government. *b.* 2nd January 1888. *Educ*: National High School and St. Joseph's College, Trichinopoly. Was nominated President of the Taluk Board, Karur; was elected President of the Taluka Board, Kulitalai; elected President of the Trichinopoly Dist. Board; elected President of the Trichinopoly District Educational Council. Assistant Secretary of the Trichinopoly National College and Hon. Assistant Registrar, Co-operative Societies, Trichinopoly Dist; elected member of the Madras Legislative Council from 1921. *Address*: Boa Bab, Eldams Road, Teynampet, Madras.

SEYMOUR-SEWELL, Robert Beresford, Lieut.-Colonel, Indian Medical Service. M.A., Sc.D., (Cantab.); C.I.E. (1933); leader of the John Murray Oceanographic Expedition to the Arabian Sea. *b.* 5th March 1880. *m.* Dorothy of William Dean of Chichester (deceased). *Educ.*: Weymouth College; Christ's College, Cambridge, St. Bartholomew's Hospital, London. Entered I.M.S. in Feb., 1908; Surgeon-Naturalist to the Marine Survey of India, 1910; Medical Officer 23rd Sikh Pioneers, 1914-18 (mentioned in despatches); Surgeon Naturalist 1921-25; Director, Zoological Survey of India, 1925-33; Fellow and Past President of the Asiatic Society of Bengal; Awarded Berkeley Memorial Medal by the A.S.B. in 1932; Past President of Indian Science Congress, (1931); *Publications*: Numerous papers on Zoology and Oceanography. *Address*: C/o The Imperial Bank of India Ltd., 25, Old Broad Street, London, E.C. 2.

SHADI Lal, Sir, M.A. (Punjab), 1895, B.A. Honours (Oxford) 1898; B.C.L. Hon. (Oxford) 1899; Boden Sanskrit Scholar (Oxford) 1896; Arden Law Scholar (Gray's Inn.) 1899; Honoursman of Council of Legal Education, 1899; Special Prizeman in Constitutional Law, 1899; appointed Member of the Privy Council. *b.* May 1874. *Educ.*: at Govt. Coll., Lahore, Balliol Coll., Oxford. Practised at the Bar 1899-1931 Offg. Judge, Punjab Chief Court, 1913 and 1914; Permanent Judge, 1917; Judge, High Court, Lahore, 1919; Chief Justice, May, 1920-1934. Elected by Punjab University to the Leg. Council in 1910 and 1913. Fellow and Syndic, Punjab University. *Publications*: Lectures on Private International Law, Commentaries on the Punjab Alienation of Land Act and Punjab Pre-emption Act, etc. *Address*: London.

SHAHAB-UD-DIN, The Hon'ble Khan Bahadur, Sir Chaudhri, Kt. (1930) B.A., LL.B., Advocate, High Court. President, Punjab Legislative Council; founder and Proprietor, "India Cases," and "Criminal Law Journal"; Member, Legislative Assembly for 3 years; President, Municipal Committee, Lahore, for 4 years and elected President, Punjab Legislative Council; re-elected President, Punjab Legislative Council in January 1927. *Educ*: Government Coll. and Law Coll., Lahore. Started Criminal Law Journal of India in 1904 and Indian Cases in 1909. Was first elected member, Lahore Municipal Committee in 1913; President of the Corporation in 1922. Elected member, Punjab Leg. Council; re-elected President, Lahore Municipal Committee, 1924. *Publications*: The Criminal Law Journal of India; Indian Case and two Punjabi poems. *Address*: "A Mumtaz". 3, Durand Road, Lahore.

SHAHPURA, Raja Dhiraj Umaid Singhji, Raja Saheb of. *b.* 7th March 1876. Succeeded to *gadi* in 1932. Permanent salute 9 guns. *Address*: Shahpura, (Rajputana).

SHAIKH, Mahmood Hasan Khan Haji, Khan Bahadur, Landlord, Magistrate, Barh, Dist. Patna, Bihar and Orissa. *b.* 1895. *m.* Musammat Bibi Mariam-un-Nisan *d.* of the late Mr. Ahmad Hussain, Barrister-at-Law and Subordinate Judge, Bihar and Orissa. *Educ*: at M.A.O. College, Aligarh, U.P. Was Chairman of the Barh Municipality for three years and Chairman of the Local Board for three years, Sec. of the Central Co-operative Bank, Barh; Director of the Provincial Co-operative Bank Bihar and Orissa; Member of the Patna District Board; Hony. Organiser on behalf of the Government for the Co-operative Societies, Bihar and Orissa. Family enjoys the hereditary title of "Khan" from the time of Shah Alam II, Moghul Emperor, and the family has been granted considerable landed properties with 10,000 cavalry and infantry. The late Ahmad Ali Khan, his great great-grand-father was the Commander-in-Chief to the Mogul Emperor. Was made a Khan Sahib in 1924 and Khan Bahadur in 1931. *Address*: Mahmood Garden, Barh, District Patna, Bihar and Orissa.

SHAKESPEAR, Alexander Blake, C.I.E., Merchant; Sutherland & Co., Cawnpore. *b.* 1873. *Educ.*: Berkhampstead. Was Sec., Upper India Chamber of Commerce, 1905-12. *Address*: Cawnpore.

SHAMSHER SINGH, SIR SARDAR, SARDAR BAHADUR, K.C.I.E., C.I.E.; Ch. Min., Jind State. *b.* 1860. *Educ.:* Jullundur and Hoshiarpur H. S. and Govt. Coll., Lahore. Served during Afghan War, 1879-80, with march from Kabul to Kandahar; Ch. Jud. of State High Court, 1899-1903. *Address:* Sangrur, Jind State.

SHANKAR RAU, HATTIANGADI, B.A., C.I.E., (1931); Deputy Controller of the Currency, Bombay. *b.* 29 September 1887. *m.* Uma Bai. *Educ:* Government College, Mangalore and Presidency College, Madras. Superintendent, Government of India, Finance Department, 1922-24: Indian Audit and Accounts Service, 1924; Assist. Secretary, Government of India, Finance Department, 1924; Under-Secretary, Government of India Finance Department, 1925; Deputy Secretary, Government of India, Finance Department, 1926; Budget Officer, Government of India, Finance Department, 1926-31; Member, Legislative Assembly, 1927, 1930 and 1931; Dy. Controller of the Currency, Bombay, 1931. *Publication:* Indian Thought in Shelley and Tennyson; Tales from Society; The Chitrapur Saraswat Directory, 1933. *Address:* 2. Laburnum Road, Bombay 7.

SHANKARSHASTRI, NARASINHSHASTRI PANDIT JOTIRMARTAND, Astronomer, Astrologer and Landlord. *b.* 19 Dec. 1884. *m.* Anna Purnabai, *d.* of Vedamurti Chendramadixit of Laxmeshwar Miraj Senior. *Educ.:* Hosaritti, Taluka Haveri, Dharwar. Compiler of the Annual Indian Calendar known as "Hossritti Punchang"; Publisher of the annual general predictions. *Publications:* Annual Indian Calendar; Bhamini-Dipika in Sanskrit (a treatise on Astrology); Kalachandrika in Sanskrit, Sanhita Tajak-Sara (a treatise on Astrology) with Commentary in Marathi; Daivanja Ratnakar in Sanskrit (a treatise on Astrology); Griha Ratna Mala in Sanskrit (a treatise on Astronomy), and booklets regarding the administrations of H. E. Lord Willingdon, Viceroy of India and of H. E. Sir Frederick Sykes, Governor of Bombay, and Life of Pant Bale-Kundri Maharaj of Belgaum. The History of Canopus (Agastya) in English. History of Ursa Major (Saptarushi-Malika) *Address:* Haveri, Taluka Haveri, Dharwar Dist.

SHARPE, WILLIAM RUTTON SEARLE, J.P., M. Inst. T., Chairman, Bombay Port Trust. *b.* Dublin 11 Dec. 1880 *m.* Kate, third *d.* of the late T. H. Marsh of Northwood, Max.; 1 *d. Educ:* City of London School and Neuveville Academy, Switzerland, Accountant and Branch Manager, Grindlay & Co., Ltd., 1902-1913; joined Bombay Port Trust, Dec. 1913; Chief Accountant, 1914-18; Secretary, 1918-1923; Deputy Chairman, 1923; Chairman, 1931; Late Captain, Bombay Battalion I.D.F.; Chairman, St. George's Hospital Nursing Association; Chairman, Royal Bombay Seamen's Society; Chairman, Indian Sailors Home; Chairman, St. John Ambulance Association, Bombay; Asst. Commissioner, St. John Ambulance Brigade Overseas, Bombay District; Member, Bombay Municipal Corporation; Improvements Committee; G. I. P. and B. B. & C. I. Railways Advisory Committees; Bombay Presidency Infant Welfare Society. *Publication:* "The Port of Bombay." *Address:* "North End," Cumballa Hill, Bombay.

SHASTRI, PRABHU DUTT, Ph.D. (Kiel), B. Sc. Litt. Hum. (Oxon.), M.A. B.T., Hon. M.O.L. (Punjab); Vidyasagar (Calcutta); Shastra-Vachaspati (Nadia); I.E.S.: Principal, Rajshahi College; Sen. Prof. of Mental and Moral Phil. in Presidency Coll., Calcutta, 1912-1933; offg. Principal, Hooghly Govt. College, 1927. *b.* 20 June 1885. *Educ:* Universities of Lahore, Oxford, Kiel, Bonn and Paris. Del. to and Sectional Pres. at 4th Int. Congress of Philosophy held at Bologna, 1911, Head of Dept. of Philosophy, since 1912; Calcutta Univ. Lect. in Phil. and Sanskrit, 1912-15; invited to lecture in Universities of Geneva, Florence and Rome, 1913-14. Visited the U. S. A. and Canada in 1920-22 and invited to address the Universities of Harvard, Cornell, Princeton, Yale, Johns Hopkins and Toronto. Invited as Sectional President at 5th International Congress of Philosophy, Naples, 1924. *Publications:* Several works and articles on philosophical, educational, literary, religious and social subjects. *Address:* Bharati-Bhawan, 3, Multan Road, Lahore or Principal's House, Rajshahi, Bengal.

SHEIKH, MAHAMADBHAI, C.I.E. (1931) MADAR-UL-MAHAM AMIR. *b.* 18th October 1901. First Class Amir of the Junagadh State, holding a hereditary Jagir. *Educ:* at the Mayo College, Ajmer; visited England in 1813-14 with His Highness the Nawab Saheb. Entered Junagadh State Service in 1920 as Military Secretary to His Highness the Nawab Saheb and subsequently was appointed Private Secretary to His Highness, and then Huzur Secretary; Dewan, Junagadh State, 1923-1932. Retired from Junagadh State Service in February 1932. *Address:* Agatrai, *via* Keshod, Junagadh State.

SHEPPARD, SAMUEL TOWNSEND, London Correspondent of *The Times of India. b.* Bath, Jan. 1880. *Educ.:* Bradfield and Trinity Coll., Oxford. *m.* 1921, Anne, *d.* of the late J. H. Carpenter. Joined the staff of *The Times* (London) as Secretary to the Editor in 1902. Assistant Editor, *The Times of India*, 1907-1923; Editor, 1923-1932; Temporary Capt. in the Army, 1917-18; employed on the staff of Bombay Brigade, Corresponding Member, Indian Historical Records Commission. *Publications:* Contributed to *The Times* History of the War in South Africa. "The Byculla Club: a history" "Bombay Place-names and Street-names," "A History of the Bombay Volunteer Rifles." *Address: The Times of India*, Salisbury Square, Fleet Street, London, E.C. 4.

SHIB SHEKHAREESWAR RAY, THE HON. KUMAR, B.A., M.L.C., Minister, Government of Bengal. *b.* 4th December 1887. *m.* to Annapurna Devi, *d.* of Rai S. N. Majumdar Bahadur of Bhagalpur. *Educ:* Central Hindu College, Benares and graduated from the University of Allahabad. Is the eldest *s.* of Raja Sasi

Shekhareswar Ray Bahadur of Tahirpur, Bengal. Elected member of Rajshahi District Board (1915); elected member, Bengal Legis. Council 1916 by the Landholders of Rajshahi Division; re-elected to Council by the same body in 1920, 1923 and 1929. Appointed senior Chairman of the Bengal Legislative Council in 1924 and became its first elected President in 1925. Has served on numerous official Committees and has been vice-President of the British Indian Association, and President, Bengal Hindu Conference. Appointed Minister, Government of Bengal, 1929. *Address*: P. O. Tahirpur, District Rajshahi.

SHILLIDY, GEORGE ALEXANDER, C.I.E. (1931), King's Police Medal (1922); Deputy Inspector-General of Police C. I. D., Poona. *b.* 7th March 1886. *m.* to Mabel Catherine, *d.* of Robt. Steven, J.P., Barnhill, Dundee, *Educ*: Campbell College, Belfast, Ireland. Joined Indian Police in 1906 as Asst. Superintendent of Police, promoted District Superintendent of Police 1916, and Deputy Inspector-General of Police in 1932. *Address*: Poona.

SHIRRAS, GEORGE FINDLAY, M.A., Principal, Gujarat College, *b.* Aberdeen, 16 July 1885. *m.* 1911, Amy Zara, *e.d.* of late George McWatters, Madras Civil Service; two *s*. *Educ*: Robert Gordon's College, Aberdeen; University of Aberdeen; University Prizeman in Economics; Professor of Dacca College, 1909, on special duty under Government of India, Finance Department, 1910-13; Member, Govt. of India Prices Inquiry Committee; on special duty in office of D.P.I., Bengal, 1913-14; Reader in Currency and Finance in Calcutta University, 1914; Member, Government of Bengal Statistics Committee, and of Board of Agriculture, India, 1918; on deputation Imperial Statistical Confce., London, on behalf of Govt. of India, Dec. 1919- Feb. 1920; on special duty India Office in connection with League of Nations work, March 1920; attached International Labour Office and Economic and Financial Section, League of Nations, Geneva, 1924 and Ministry of Labour, Industrial Court, and Home Office, London, Labour Departments, Washington, Boston and New York, 1925; Hon. Fellow, Royal Statistical Society, 1920; Major, 4th Gordon Highlanders, (1920 despatches); T.A. Reserve Regimental List, 1921; Director, Labour Office, Government of Bombay, 1921-25; formerly Director of Statistics with the Government of India; Member, Bombay Legislative Council; Fellow of the University of Calcutta; Fellow of the Univ. of Bombay. *Publications:* Some Aspects of Indian Commerce and Industry; Indian Finance and Currency, 3rd Impression, 1920; Some Effects of the War on Gold and Silver 1920; The Science of Public Finance, (Macmillan, 3rd Edition), Taxable Capacity and the Burden of Taxation and Public Debt (1925); The Future of Gold and Indian Currency Reform (Economic Journal, June 1927); A Central Bank for India, (Econ. Journal, Dec. 1927; Gold and British Capital in India (Econ. Journal, Dec. 1929); Financial Reform and the Indian Statutory Commission (Econ. Journal, Sept. 1930); The Re-adjustment of Central and Provincial Finance in Federal Constitutions (Economical, Political, Contemporanea-Padua, 1930). "Poverty and Kindred Economic Problems in India" [Calcutta Government of India Central Publication; Branch (1932)]; Gold and French Monetary Policy; articles on Finance and Indian Trade, etc. *Address:* Gujarat College, Ahmedabad.

SHUTTLEWORTH, GRAHAM DENNISON, Senior Partner, Croft & Forbes, Exchange Brokers, Bombay, *b.* 17 June 1889. *m.* Margaret Ellen Anderson (15 March 1917). *Educ*: St. Lawrence College, Ramsgate, and Royal Military College, Sandhurst. Commissioned as 2nd Lieut. to 2nd Bn. York and Lancaster Regt. 1909; resigned in 1914 on joining Messrs. Croft & Forbes, Exchange Brokers, Bombay. Enlisted in Lahore Signal Company as Corpl. Despatch rider and proceeded to France, Aug. 1914 with 1st Indian Expeditionary Force. Granted King's Commission as Captain in Middlesex Regt., January 1915; demobilised 1919 and rejoined Croft and Forbes. *Address:* "Waverley" Wilderness Road, Malabar Hill, Bombay.

SIFTON SIR JAMES DAVID, K.C.S.I. (1932); K.C.I.E. (1931); C.S.I. (1929); C.I.E. (1921); I.C.S., Governor of Bihar and Orissa, (1932). *b.* 17th April, 1878; *s.* of Thomas Elgood Sifton. *Educ.*: St. Paul's School and Magdalen Coll., Oxford. *m.* Harriette May, *d.* of Thomas William Shettle: two *s.* two *d.* I.C.S. (1901); served in Bengal to 1910. Transferred to Bihar and Orissa; Magistrate and Collector of Shahabad, 1915. Sec. to Govt. in Financial and Municipal Dept. 1917; Dy. Commissioner, Ranchi, 1923, Chief Secretary to Govt. of Bihar and Orissa, 1925-27; Acting Governor of Bihar and Orissa, 1929 and again 1930. Member of Executive Council, Bihar and Orissa, 1927-1931. *Publications:* Settlement Report of Hazaribagh District; Settlement Report of Parganas Barahabhum and Patkum in Manbhum Discrict. *Recreations:* Tennis and Golf. *Address:* Government House, Patna and Ranchi, Bihar, India. *Clubs:* East India United Service: Bengal United Service, Calcutta.

SIKANDAR HYAT KHAN, THE HON. CAPTAIN, Sirdar, Sir Ag. Governor of the Punjab. *b.* 5 June 1892. *Educ.*: M.A.O. College, Aligarh and Univ. College, London. During War was recruiting officer; commission in 2-67th Punjabis (now 1 /2nd Punjabis); served on N.W.F. and in the third Afghan War. Appointed to Brigade Headquarters Staff; was the first Indian to command a company on active service returned to the Punjab Legis. Council by landholders constituency; non-official member of Police Enquiry Committee, 1926; Pers. Asst. to Mela Officer during Prince of Wales' visit; elected by the Punjab Council to the Provincial Simon Committee which elected him as its Chairman; was connected with the Boards of 11 Companies includng Messrs. Owen Roberts, the Punjab Portland Cemet Co., Wah Stone and Lime Company, North India Constructional Engineers and the Frontier Mining Syndicate;

appointed Revenue Member, Punjab Government, 1929, for three months and became permanent Revenue Member in 1930; appointed to act as Governor, July to October 1932: M. B. E. 1920 K. B. E., 1933. *Address:* Government House, Lahore.

SIKKIM, MAHARAJA OF, H. H. MAHARAJA SIR TASHI NAMGYAL, K.C.I.E. (1923). *b.* 26 Oct. 1893; *s.* of late Maharaja Sir Thutob Namgyal, K.C.I.E. of Sikkim. *m.* grand-daughter of Lonchen Sholkhang (Regent of Tibet). *Educ.:* Mayo Coll., Ajmer; St. Paul's Sch., Darjeeling. *Address:* The Palace, Gangtok, Sikkim.

SIMHA, BEOHAR RAGHUBIR; Zamindar and Jagirdar. *Educ:* Government College, Jubbulpore. Hon. Magte., First Class, sitting singly, has been member of the C.P. Council on behalf of Zamindars for two terms; has been elected Member, Legislative Assembly, on behalf of C.P. Zamindars Title Beohar recognised by Government—hereditary distinction. Khas Am Darbari of H. E. the Governor, C. P. exempted from Arms Act. Is Chairman of the District Council and Member, Village Uplift Board, C.P. and Berar. Member of Communication Board, C.P. *Publications:* Hindi Shastra Siddhanta Sar. *Address:* Jubbulpore.

SIMLA, ARCHBISHOP OF, since 1911, MOST REV. ANSELM, E. J. KENEALY. *b.* 1864. Entd. Franciscan Order, 1879; Priest, 1887. Guardian of Franciscans, Crawley, Sussex 1898; Minister Provincial for England, 1902; first Rector of the Franciscan College, Cowley, Oxford. 1906; elected life member of Oxford Union, 1907; Definitor-General, Rome, representing English-speaking provinces, 1908. Visitator-General, Irish Province, 1910. *Address:* Archbishop's House, Simla E.

SIMPSON, TREVOR CLAUDE, C.I.E., King's Police Medal (1916), C.I.E. (1927), Inspector-General of Police, Bengal. *b.* 9th February 1877. *Educ:* St. Paul's School, London, W. Appointed to the Indian Imperial Police by the Secretary of State after open competitive examination in London in Novr. 1896; Superintendent of Police, 1906; Inspector-General of Police, 1919; Inspector-General of Police, 1923. *Address:* 16, Harington Mansions, Calcutta.

SINGH, LT.-COL. BAWA JIWAN, C.I.E. (1918) I.M.S. (retd.) *b.* May 6 1863. *Educ.:* Government and Medical Colleges, Lahore and St. Thomas' Hospital Medical Schools, London. Joined I.M.S., 1891. Served in Military Department to 1896; Civil Surgeon, Meiktila, 1896; Secretary, I.G. Prisons, with Civil Medical Administration, Burma, 1897-1899; Supdt., Central Jail, Insein, Burma, from 1899 to 1909 Inspector-Genl. of Prisons, E. Bengal and Assam, 1910-1912; Inspector-Genl. of Prisons, Bihar and Orissa, from 1912-1920; Director, Medical and Sanitation Departments, H.E. H. The Nizam's Govt., 1920-23; and Director, Medical, Sanitation and Jail Depts., H. E. H. the Nizam's Govt., 1923-24. *Address:* Ranchi, Chota Nagpur.

SINGH, GAYA PRASAD, B.A., B.L., M.L.A., Pleader, Muzaffarpur. *Educ.:* Muzaffarpur and Calcutta. Was a sub-deputy magistrate and collector for a few years but resigned subsequently: now practising as a pleader; was a member of the Muzafarpur Municipal Board: of the Sudder Hospital Committee; and of the Local Advisory Committee on Excise; an elected member of the Legislative Assembly since 1924; a Member of the Standing Finance Committee since 1924; one of the founder members of the Aero Club of India and Burma; a member of the Governing Body of the Indian School of Mines, Dhanbad. Presided over the 13th session of All-India (including Burma) Postal and R. M. S., Behar and Orissa Provincial Conference at Muzafarpur in March 1933; presided over the 5th session of the Burma Provincial Kshattriya Navyuvak Sangh in April 1933. *Publication:* "Pictorial Kashmir." *Address:* Muzaffarpur (Bihar).

SINGH, RAJA BAHADUR SURJ BAKSH, O.B.E. (1919), Taluqdar of Oudh. *b.* 15 Sept. 1868. *m.* grand-daughter of Raja Gangaram Shah of Khairigarh (Oudh). *Educ.:* at Sitapur and Lucknow. President, British Indian Assocn. of Taluqdars of Oudh from 1927-1930. Member, first Leg. Assembly. *Publication:* "A Taluqdar of the Old School" by "Heliodorus" and "Arbitration." *Address:* Kamlapur P. O., Sitapur Dist. (U.P.).

SINGH, THE HON. SIRDAR SIR JOGENDRA, Kt. (1929) Taluqdar, Aira Estate, Kheri District. Minister of Agriculture (1926) *b.* 25 May 1877. *m.* Winifred May of Donoghue. Contributes to several papers in India and England. Has been Home Minister, Patiala State. Fellow of the Punjab Univ.; Presdt. of Sikh Educl. Confce., served on Indian Sugar Committee, Indian Taxation Enquiry Commission and Skeen Committee, Member of Council of State, Editor of *East and West. Publications:* "Kamla"; Nurjahan; Nasrin, Life of B. M. Malabari and Kanu. *Address:* Aira Holme, Simla (East).

SINGH, SIR KUNWAR MAHARAJ, M.A. (Oxford), Bar-at-Law. C.I.E. Agent of the Govt. of India in South Africa *b.* 17 May 1878, *m.* to Miss Maya Das, *d.* of the late Rai Bahadur Maya Das of Ferozepur (Punjab). *Educ.:* Harrow Ball. Coll., Oxford; Bar.-at-Law, Middle Temple, 1902. Ent. U.P.C.S. as Dy. Coll., 1904; Asst. Sec. to Govt. of India. Dept. of Education, 1911; Mag. and Collr. of Hamirpur, U. P., 1917; Secy. to U.P. Govt., 1919: Dy. Secretary, Govt. of India, Education Dept., 1920-23. Dy. Commissioner, Bahraich, 1923; Commissioner, Allahabad, 1927; Commissioner, Benares, 1928; Allahabad, 1929; Vice-President, State Council, Jodhpur, 1931, and Agent to the Government of India, 1932. *Publications:* Annual Report on Co-operative Credit Societies in the U.P., 1908-1919: Reports on Indian Emigration to Mauritius and British Guiana and on Mission to East Africa and various contributions to the press. *Address:* South Africa.

SINGH, THE HON. RAJA SIR RAMPAL, K.C.I.E., (1916); Member, Council of State; Tangdar. *b.* 7 Aug. 1867. *m.* niece of Thakur Jagamohan

Singh, late Taluqdar of Dhanawan Estate in Gonda Dist. *Educ.*: at Rae Bareili High School and M.A.O. College, Aligarh. President-elect of the second U. P. Social Conference held in Lucknow in 1908 and of All-India Social Conference in 1910; presided over 5th All-India Hindu Conference at Delhi in 1918; elected President, British Indian Association of Oudh in 1921 and was re-elected in 1924. Was Fellow of Allahabad Univ. until 1909 and is Secretary of Kshattriya College, Lucknow; Member of the Executive Council of the Lucknow University and of the Court of the Hindu University of Benares; of the Board of Directors of Mahaluxmi Sugar Corporation, Lucknow, also Director of the Allahabad Bank; again elected President, British Indian Association, Oudh, 1931 and was Chairman of the Hindu Religious and Charitable Endowments Committee appointed by U. P. Government. *Publications*: Pamphlets entitled "Taluqdars and the British Indian Association" (1917) and "Taluqdars and the Amendment of Oudh Rent Law" (1921); and contributions to the press on social, political and religious topics. *Address*: Kurri Sudauli Raj, Dist. Rae Bareili, Oudh.

SINHA, THE HON. MR. ANUGRAH NARAYAN, M.A., B.L., Zemindar, July 3, 1889. *Educ*: Patna and Calcutta. Joined the High Court, Patna, as Vakil; appeared in the famous "Burma Case" of the Dumraon Raj as junior to Mr. C. R. Das, Mr. Srinivasa Ayengar and the late Sir Ashutosh Mookherji; joined Non-Co-operation Movement 1921, at present Chairman of Gaya District Board and Member, Council of State, representing Bihar and Orissa; Chairman, Reception Committee of the All-India Untouchable Conference held at Patna in 1926. *Publications*: Translated History of Ancient Magadha from Bengali into Hindi. *Address*: Villa Poiawan, P. O. Aurangabad, Dist. Gaya (Bihar and Orissa).

SINHA, BHUPENDRA NARAYANA, RAJA BAHADUR (1918), B.A., (Calcutta), of Nashipur and Zemindar. *b.* 15th Nov. 1888 *m.* first Rani Prem Kumari and on demise Rani Surya Kumari. *Educ.*: Presidency College, Calcutta. Member of the Dist. Board of Murshidabad for 12 years; 1st Class Hon. Magte; Vice-President, British Indian Association; President. All-India Cow Conference Association, Trustee of the Indian Museum; President of the India Art School; elected to the Bengal Council in 1926; elected as a co-opted member of the Royal Statutory Commission; Member of the Finance Committee; Member of the Public Committee; Member of the Revenue Committee; Member of the E. B. Railway Local Advisory Committee and Minister to the Govt. of Bengal. Re-elected to the Bengal Council in 1929. *Address*: 54, Gariahat Road, Ballygunge, P.O., Calcutta; or Nashipur Rajpbati, Nashipur P.O., Dist. Murshidabad, Bengal.

SINHA, KUMAR GANGANAND, M.A. (1921); M.L.A. (1924-1930); Hon. Research Scholar of the Calcutta University (1922-23); Proprietor, Srinagar Raj. *b.* 24 Sept. 1898. *Educ.*: at Monghyr Zilla School (1907-10); Purnea Zilla School, Presidency College (Calcutta); Government Sanskrit Coll., Calcutta; and Post-Graduate Department, Calcutta University. Elected to the Royal Asiatic Society of Great Britain and Ireland in 1921; Asiatic Society of Bengal in 1922, Bihar and Orissa Research Society in 1924 and to the Fellowship of the Royal Society for the encouragement of arts, manufacture and commerce, etc., in 1923; a Commissioner of the Purnea Municipality and a member of the Purnea District Board (1924-27); President of the Social and Religious Department of the Maithil Sammelana; one of the founders of the Nationalist Party in the Legislative Assembly. Joined the Swarajya Party in the Assembly (1925). Elected a Secretary of the Congress Party in the Assembly, 1928; a member of the Road Development Committee and its touring and drafting Sub-Committees, 1927-28. Life Member of the Empire Parliamentary Association; President of the Purnea District Congress Committee (1925-1929); President of the Bihar Provincial Hindu Sabha; Member of the Executive Committee of the All-India Hindu Sabha, 1926-1928; President of the Bihar Provincial Kavi Sammelana (1926); President of the Bihar Provincial Board of the Hindustani Sevadal (1929); visited Europe 1930-31; was in England during the first Round Table Conference. *Publications*: "The Place of Videha in the Ancient and the Mediæval India" (read in the second Oriental Conference); "A Note on the Janagala Desa"; and "Discovery of Bengali Dramas in Nepal" and "On some Maithili Dramas of the Seventeenth and Eighteenth Centuries" (published in the Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal); "Is Dharmat religion Buddhism?" (read in the Third Oriental Conference, Madras, 1924) joint editor of the typical selections from Maithili proposed to be published by the Calcutta University, an Editor of the "Barhut Inscriptions," published by the Calcutta University in 1926. *Address*: "Srinagar Darbar," P. O. Srinagar, Dist. Purnea, (Bihar).

SINHA, SACHCHIDANANDA, Barrister, First Indian Finance Member, Ex-Member Executive Council, Bihar and Orissa Government, 1921-1926; also President of Legislative Council, 1921-22. *b.* 10 Nov. 1871, *m.* the late Srimati Radhika, *d.* of the late Mr. Sewa Ram, of Lahore. *Educ.*: Patna College and City College, Calcutta. Called to the Bar (Middle Temple), 1893; Advocate, Calcutta High Court, 1893; Allahabad High Court, 1896; Patna High Court, 1916. Founded and edited *The Hindustan Review*, 1899-1921; Twice Elected Member, Imperial Legislative Council, Elected Legislative Assembly, 1920, also elected its first Deputy President, Feb. 1921. Established and endowed in 1924 the Srimati Radhika Institute in memory of his wife, which building contains, besides the largest public hall in Patna, the Sachchidananda Sinha Library, a splendid collection of classical and current works in English. Visited England in 1927 where he in writings and speeches made notable contributions to the discussion of Indian Reforms as embodied in the system known as Diarchy.

Resumed Editorship of the *Hindustan Review* in 1929. Became Managing Director of the *Indian Nation*, Patna, in 1931. Was especially invited while in England in 1933, to appear before the Joint Parliamentary Committee on Indian Reforms and submitted a lengthy memorandum on the White Paper from the standpoint of constitutional nationalists. *Publication*: "The Partition of Bengal or the Separation of Behar." *Address*: Patna, Behar.

SIRCAR, SIR NRIPENDRA NATH, KT., M.A., B.L., Law Member of the Government of India. *m.* Nabanalini Basu, *e. d.* of Durgadas Basu. *Educ.*: Presidency College, Calcutta, Lincoln's Inn. Practised at Bhagalpore in Bihar as pleader since 1897. Member of Subordinate Judical Service, 1902-05; First Honours man in Bar Final Michaelmas Term, 1907; Honours in Mathematics, Physics and Chemistry in B.A.; M.A., in Chemistry. Holder of Foundation Scholorship, Presidency College; Appointed Law Member, Government of India, 1934. *Address*: Government of India, Simla and New Delhi.

SIROHI, H. H. MAHARAJADHIRAJ, MAHARAO SIR SARUP RAM SINGH BAHADUR. G.C.I.E., K.C.S.I. *b.* Sept. 27, 1888. *s.* to the gadi, April 29, 1920. *Address*: Sirohi, Rajputana.

SITAMAU, H. H. SIR RAJA RAM SINGH, RAJA OF, K.C.I.E. *b.* 1880; descended from Rathore House of Kachi Baroda. *m.* thrice. *Educ.*: Daly Coll., Indore, Hindi and Sanskrit poet, and keen student of science and ancient and modern philosophy, is entitled to a salute of 11 guns. *s.* by selection by Govt. of India in default of direct issue, 1900. *Address*: Ramnivas Palace, Sitamau, C. I.

SIVAGNANAM PILLAI, DEWAN BAHADUR SIR TINNEVELLY NELLAIPPA, B.A. *b.* 1st April 1861. *Educ.*: Madras Christian College. Service under Government; Retired as Dy. Collector; President, Dist. Board, Tinnevelly, 1920-1923. Minister of Development, Madras. 1923-26. *Address*: 77, North Car Street, Tinnevelly.

SIVASWAMI AYYAR, SIR P. S., K.C.S.I., 1915; C.S.I. (1912); C.I.E. (1908), Retd. Member, Executive Council, Madras. *b.* 7 Feb. 1864. *Educ.* S. P. G. College, Tanjore; Government College, Kumbakonam; Presidency College, Madras; High Court Vakil, 1885; Asstt. Professor, Law College, Madras, 1893-99; Joint Editor, Madras Law Journal, 1893-1907; first Indian Representative of the University of Madras in the Madras Legislative Council, 1904-07; Advocate-General, 1907; Member of Executive Council, Madras, 1912-17; Vice-Chancellor, University of Madras, 1916-18; Vice-Chancellor of Benares Hindu University, 1918-19; Elected to the Indian Legislative Assembly by the districts of Tanjore and Trichinopoly, 1920; President of the Second and Ninth Sessions of the National Liberal Federation at Calcutta, 1919; and Akola, 1926. Member of the Indian Delegation at the Third Session of the Assembly of the League of Nations at Geneva, 1922; Nominated Member of the Indian Legislative Assembly, 1924. *Publication*: Indian Constitutional Problems (1928). *Address*: Sudharma, Edward Elliot Road, Mylapore, Madras.

SKEMP, FRANK WHITTINGHAM, M.A., Manc., B.A., Hist. Honours (1900); Indian Civil Service. Puisne Judge, Lahore High Court. *b.* 13 Dec. 1880. *m.* Dorothy Fraze. *Educ.*: University of Manchester; Peterhouse Cambridge. Joined I.C.S., (Punjab Commission) 1904; Officiating D.C. 1910-1913; Sessions Judge 1918-1927; Additional Judge, Lahore High Court 1927; Puisne Judge, 1933. *Publications*: Multani Stories. *Address*: 24, Race Course Road, Lahore.

SLADE, GEORGE ERIC ROWLAND, B.Sc. (Lond.); A.M.I.C.E.; Controller of Stores, B. B. & C. I. Railway. *b.* 26 Nov. 1885. *m.* Winifred E. Reed. *Educ.*: Cranleigh School and University College, London. After practical training in England joined the B. B. & C. I. Railway, 1910, as Assistant Engineer; transferred to Stores Department, 1914. *Address*: Pali Hill, Bandra.

SLOAN, TENNANT, M.A., C.I.E. (1930); Joint Secretary, Home Department, Government of India. *b.* 9 November 1884. *m.* Glady Hope *d.* of R. Hope Robertson, Glasgow. *Educ*: Glasgow Academy, Glasgow University, and Christ Church, Oxford. Joined Indian Civil Service, 1909; served as Assistant Magistrate and Collector, Assistant Settlement Officer, Under-Secretary to Government, Magistrate and Collector, Deputy Secretary and Secretary to Government in United Provinces and also as Under-Secretary, Deputy Secretary and Joint Secretary in Home Department of Government of India. *Address*: Home Department, Simla.

SMITH, ARTHUR KIRKE, M.A. (Cambridge), Solicitor to Government of India, 1932. *b.* 20th August 1878. *Educ*: Charterhouse, Trinity College, Cambridge. Articled to Freshfields, Solicitors, London, and admitted a Solicitor in 1903; joined Little & Co., Bombay, in 1908; Solicitor to Government and Public Prosecutor, Bombay, 1925-1932. *Address*: Delhi and Simla.

SMITH, SIR OSBORNE ARKELL, Kt. (1928); K.C.I.E. (1932); Managing Governor, Imperial Bank of India, Calcutta. *b.* 26 December 1877. *m.* Dorothy Lush. *Educ.*: Sydney Grammar School. Bank of New South Wales, Commonwealth Bank of Australia, and Imperial Bank of India. *Address*: 3, Theatre Road, Calcutta.

SMITH, SIR THOMAS, Kt. (1921), V. D. (1914), Chevalier of the Order of the Crown (Belgium) (1919), Managing Director, Muir Mills Co., Ltd., Cawnpore. *b.* 28 Aug. 1875. *m.* Elsie Maud. *d.* of Sir Henry Ledgard in 1907; 2 *s.* 1 *d.* Member of the Hunter Committee on Punjab disorders, 1919. Presdt., Upper India Chamber of Commerce, 1918-1921; Member, U. P. Leg. Council, 1918-26; Fellow of Allahabad University, 1913-22; Commandant, 16th Cawnpore Rifles, 1913-20. Representative of Employers in India at International Labour Conference, Geneva, 1925. *Address*: Westfield, Cawnpore., and Merjewood, Virginia Water, Surrey.

SMITH, WALTER ROBERT GEORGE, Commissioner of Police, Bombay. *b.* 5th Nov. 1887. *m.* Ellen *d.* of the late John Cochrane. *Educ:* Grove Park School, Wrexham and Gray's Inn. Joined Police Service, Dec., 1908, as Assistant Superintendent; Superintendent of Police, March 1921; Dy. Commissioner of Police, Bombay, 1932; Offg. Deputy Inspector-General of Police, March 1932; Commissioner of Police, Bombay, 1933; awarded King's Police Medal, 1933. *Address:* Police Headquarters, Bombay.

SOLA, THE REV. MARCIAL, S. J., Ph. D., M.A. Former Principal of the Ateneo de Manlia Institution from 1916-1920. Professor of Logic and Philosophy at St. Xavier's College, Bombay. *b.* Nov. 7, 1872 in the province of Barcelona, North of Spain. Ordained at St. Louis, Mo. U. S. A. in 1906. *Educ.*: Vich, Spain and at St. Louis University, Mo. U. S. A. Went to the Philippines. On the staff of the Manila Observatory under the Spanish and the American Governments from 1897 to 1903. A Delegate to the World's Fair held in St. Louis, U. S. A., in 1904. Prof. for several years at the Ateneo de Manila, Philippines, and Principal of that Institution from 1916 to 1920. On the Staff of St. Xavier's College, Bombay, since 1922. *Publications:* Author of "The Meteorological Service of the Philippine Islands." "A Study of Seismic Waves". Contributor to the monthly review "Razon y Fe" edited at Madrid. Author of "A Compendium of the Science of Logic." *Address:* St. Xavier's College, Cruickshank Road, Fort, Bombay.

SOLOMON, CAPT. WILLIAM EWART GLADSTONE, Kaisar-I-Hind Medal (First Class). Member, Royal British Colonial Society of Artists. Director, Sir J. J. School of Art, Bombay; Curator, Art Section, Prince of Wales Museum, Bombay. *b.* Sea Point, Cape Town, 1880. *s.* of late Saul Solomon, M.L.A., *m.* 1906, Gwladys, *d.* of Rev. G. W. Cowper Smith, Tunbridge Wells; one *s. Educ.:* Bedford Grammar School, University School, Hastings and abroad. Studied under Sir Arthur Cope, R.A., and J. Watson Nicol, and at the Royal Academy schools, London. Took the highest prizes and medals for figure painting and decorative painting. Took the Gold Medal and Travelling Scholarship for Historical Painting. Exhibited many pictures and portraits at Royal Academy; appointed Principal, Sir J. J. School of Art, Bombay, 1919; founded the class of Mural Painting under H. E. Lord Lloyd's direction, 1920; Directed the mural decoration of part of new Delhi Secretariat by School of Art students 1929; organized exhibition of Bombay School of Art student's work at India House, London, 1931. Served in Gallipoli, Mesopotamia and India, 1914-1919. *Publications:* "The Charm of Indian Art," "The Bombay Revival of Indian Art," "The Women of the Ajanta Caves," etc. *Address:* School of Art Bungalow, Bombay.

SORABJI, CORNELIA. Kaisar-i-Hind Gold 1st class medal (1909). Bar 1st Class (1921), Legal Adviser to Purdahnishins, Court of Wards, Bengal, Behar and Orissa, and Assam, and Consulting Counsel from 1904-to 1922. *Educ.:* Somerville Coll., Oxford, Lee and Pembertons, Lincoln's Inn Fields, London; Bachelor of Civil Law, Oxford, 1892; Bar-at-Law, Lincoln's Inn, 1923. Practising High Court, Calcutta. *Publications:* "Sun Babies" (1904); "Between the Twilights" (1908); "The Purdanishin" (1916); "Sun-Babies" (2nd Series Illustrated), 1920; "Therefore" (1924); *Gold Mohur Time*, (1930); "Susie Sorabji—Lie" (1932), contributions to the *Nineteenth Century*, *Westminster Gazette*, *The Times*, other newspapers and magazines. *Address:* Helcyon Club, 14, Cork Street, London, W. 1.

SOUTER, CHARLES ALEXANDER, C.S.I. (1933); I.C.S.; Member, Board of Revenue, Madras. *b.* 13th June, 1877. *m.* Charlotte Dorothy Jesson. *Educ:* Caius College, Cambridge. Arrived in India, 1901, and served in Madras as Asstt. Collr. and Magistrate; Asstt. Secy. to Govt., 1906; Under-Secretary, Revenue Department, 1909; Sub-Collector and Joint Magistrate, 1910; Offg. Commissioner, Coorg, 1916; Commissioner, Coorg, 1918-1923; Collr. and Dist. Magistrate 1924; Offg. Secy. to Govt., Public Works Department, 1928; 3rd Member, Board of Revenue, 1930; 1st Member, 1931. *Address:* Taylor's Gardens, Adyar, Madras.

SPACKMAN, LIEUT.-COL. WILLIAM COLLIS, I.M.S., M.R.C.S., L.R.C.P., M.B., B.S. (Lond.), F.R.C.S. (Ed.), M.C.O.G. (Eng.), F.C.P.S. Professor of Midwifery and Gynalcology, Grant Medical College, Bombay. *b.* 23 Sept. 1889. *m.* Audrey Helen Eden Smith. *Educ:* Trent College, and St. Bartholomew's Hospital, London. War Service 1914-18, Mesopotamia and Turkey (Prisoner of War 1916-18). Wounded: twice mentioned in dispatches; Frontier Medal 1923. Transferred to Civil Employ, 1924, Bombay Presidency. *Publications:* numerous articles on professional subjects in various Journals. *Address:* Rocky Hill, Malabar Hill, Bombay; Rustom Building, Churchgate Street, Bombay.

SPENCE, SIR REGINALD ARTHUR, Kt., Managing Director, Phipson & Co., Ltd. *b.* March 1, 1880. *Educ.:* Christ's Hospital. Arrived in India Feb. 1901; formerly Lieut., Bombay Light Horse; Hon. Secretary, Bombay Natural History Society and Pechey Phipson Sanitarium, Nasik; Chairman of Committee, Bombay Education Society; was Chairman, Bombay Branch European Association, 1929-1930; Dist. Grand Master Masons, E.C., Bombay and Dist. Grand Mark Master, E.C., Bombay; was member Indian Legislative Assembly, 1921-1923 & Sheriff of Bombay 1929; Member of Council of State, July 1930; M.L.C., Bombay, August 1930. Editor, Journal of Bombay Natural History Society; Officer of the Order of St. John of Jerusalem (1930). *Address:* Byculla Club, Bombay.

SPRAWSON, CUTHBERT ALLAN, MAYOR-GENERAL I.M.S., M.D. (Lond.), B.S., F.R.C.P., D. Litt. C.I.E. (1919); K.H.P.(1933); Officer of Order of St. John of Jerusalem (1930), Director-General, Indian Medical Service, from Nov. 1, 1933. *b.* 1 March 1877. *Educ:* King's Coll., London and King's Coll., Hospital. Indian Medical Service, 1900; Professor of Medicine, Lucknow, 1913-29; Consulting Physician, Mesopotamian Expeditionary Force, 1917-20; Inspector-General,

Civil Hospitals, U.P., 1929-30. Surgeon-General with the Government of Madras. *Publications:* Joint author of "A Guide to the use of Tuberculin," 1914; "Tuberculosis in Indians"; "Moore's Family Medicine," 8th and 9th editions. *Address:* New Delhi.

SRINIVASA IYENGAR. *b.* 11 Sept. 1874. *m.* a daughter of late Sir V. Bhashyam Iyengar. *Educ.*: Madura and Presidency College, Madras Vakil (1898) Advocate and Member, Madras Bar Council. Member of Madras Senate 1912-16; President, Vakils' Association of Madras; President, Madras Social Reform Association, 1916-20; Fellow of the Madras University; Member, All-India Congress Committee; Member, Indian Legislative Assembly; Advocate-General, Madras, 1916-20; President, Indian National Congress, 1926-27. *Publications*: "Law and Law Reform" (1909); Swaraj Constitution for India, 1927. *Address:* Mylapore, Madras.

SRINIVASA RAO, Rai Bahadur Patri Venkata, B.A., B.L., High Court Vakil, Guntur, and Member, Legis. Assembly. *b.* 1877, *m.* to *d.* of Rao Bahadur Baru Ramanarsa Pantulu Garu. *Educ.*: Town High School and Noble College, Masulipatam, and Christian Coll. and Law Coll., Madras. Joined Cocanada Bar, 1903, and Guntur Bar in 1906. Vice-President, Guntur Dist. Board, for 6 years; was Municipal Councillor for some years; was member, Kistna Flood Committee; Secretary of the First Dt. Congress Committee. *Address:* Guntur.

SRIVASTAVA, Ram Chandra, B.Sc., Sugar Technologist to the Imperial Council of Agricultural Research, India. *b.* 20th Sept. 1891. *m.* to the late Radha Pyari Srivastava, and again to Nawal Kishori Srivastava. *Educ.*: Muir Central College, Allahabad; Municipal School of Technology, Manchester; Royal Technical College, Glasgow and University College, London; Manager, Cawnpore Sugar Works Distillery; Manager, Behar Sugar Works, Pachrukhi; and Deputy Director of Industries, U.P. *Address:* Civil Lines, Cawnpore.

STANDLEY, Alfred William Evans, Associate of Coopers Hill College, Member of Council of the Institution of Engineers (India); Chief Engineer and Secretary, P. W. D., Bikaner State. *b.* 20 Nov. 1866. *m.* Una, *d.* of H.F.D. Bunington, I.C.S. (retd.) *Educ.*: Royal College of Mauritius and then at Royal Indian Engineering Coll., Coopers Hill. Joined P. W. D. in U.P., Irrigation Branch, as Asstt. Engineer in 1891; Construction of Gangao Dam, Upper E. J. Canal in 1895; services lent to Benares Municipality in 1896 as Resident Engineer for construction of drainage and sewerage and water-works. Promoted Ex. Engineer in 1899; services lent to Bikaner State, 1903-06, during which several irrigation schemes, water works and central electric power station were designed and constructed; also originated the investigation of the feasibility of irrigating the North tracts of the State from the Sutlej river which has eventually led to Bikaner getting a share of the water in the Sutlej Valley Project now under construction; Sanitary Engr. to Govt., U.P. in 1908 and 1909. Promoted to Superintending Engineer, 1912, and then Chief Engineer and Secretary to Government, P.W.D., Irrigation Branch, U. P. in 1918 and retired in 1921. *Publications:* Papers on "Subsoil Percolation" and "Flood Absorption of Reservoirs" in the Journal of the Institution of Engineers (India), Vol. II. *Address:* Bikaner, Rajputana.

STANLEY, Lieut.-Colonel Right Hon. Sir George Frederick, P.C. (1927) G.C.I.E. (1929), C.M.G. (1916), Governor of Madras (1929). *b.* 14 October, 1872. *m.* 1903, Lady Beatrix Taylour, C.B.E., 1920, *y.d.* of Marquess of Headfort; one *d. Educ.*: Wellington, Woolwich. Entered R.H.A., 1893; Captain 1900; served S. Africa, 1899-1900; European War 1914-18 (despatches, C.M.G.); Adjutant, Hon. Artillery Company, 1904-9; Controller of H. M.'s Household, 1919; Financial Secretary to the War Office 1921-22; M. P. (C.) Preston, 1910-22; Parliamentary Under-Secretary, Home Office, 1923-23; Parliamentary Secretary, Ministry of Pensions, 1924-29 Officiating Viceroy and Governor-General May-August 1934. *Address:* Government House, Madras.

STEIN, Sir Aurel, K.C.I.E., Ph.D., D. Litt. (Hon. Oxon.), D. Sc. (Hon. Camb.), D. O.L. (Hon. Punjab); Fellow, Brit. Acad., Correspondant de l' Institut de France, Gold Medal list, R. Geogr. Soc., R. Asiatic Society, etc.; Indian Archæological Survey, Officer on special duty. (retired) *b.* Budapest; 26 Nov. 1862. *Educ.*: Budapest and Dresden; studied Oriental Languages and Antiquities at Vienna and Tubingen Universities and in England, 1888-99. Principal, Oriental College and Registrar, Punjab University; app. to I. E. S. as Princ. of Calcutta Madraseh, 1899. Inspector-General of Education, N. W. P. and Baluchistan, 1904. Carried out archæological explorations for Indian Govt., in Chinese Turkestan, 1900-1; and in C. Asia and W. China, 1906-08; transferred to Archæological Survey, 1909; carried out geographical and archæological explorations in C. Asia and Persia, 1913-16; on N. W. Frontier and in Baluchistan, Kharan and Kalat, 1926-28; retired 1929. Explored in Persian Baluchistan, and in Persian Golf Coast, 1932-1933 *Publications:* Kalhana's *Chronicle of the Kings of Kashmir:* Sanskrit text, 1892; trans., with commentary, 2 vols.. 1900; *Sand-buried Ruins of Khotan*, 1903-1921; *Ancient Khotan*, 1908 (2 vols.): *Ruins of Desert Cathay*, 1912 (2 vols.); *Serindia*, 1921 (5 vols.); *The Thousand Buddhas; Memoir on Maps of Chinese Turkestan and Kansu* (2 vols.); *Innermost Asia*, 1928 (4 vols.); "*On Alexander's Track to the Indus*": *On Ancient Central-Asian Track*, 1932, and numerous papers on Indian and Central Asian Archæology and Geography. *Address:* Srinagar, Kashmir; E. I. United Service Club, London.

STEPHENS, Ian Melville, Director of Public Information, Government of India. *b.* February 1903. *Educ.*: at Winchester (1916-21) and King's College, Cambridge (1921-26). Took 1st Class honours in the Natural Science Tripos, 1924, and 1st Class honours in the Historical Tripos, 1925.

Exhibitioner, King's College, 1922; Reginald John Smith Research Student, King's College, 1925; Supervisor in History, King's College, 1925-26. Private Secretary to Sir Ernest Clark, K.C.B., 1926-28; Private Secretary to Sir Ernest Debenham, Bart., 1928-30. Appointed Deputy Director of Public Information with the Government of India in March 1930. On Special duty as Publicity Officer to the Indian Franchise Committee, 1932. Appointed Director of Public Information in August of that year, after having officiated in the post for a short period. *Address:* Home Department, Government of India, Simla and New Delhi.

STEPHENSON, SIR HUGH LANSDOWN; K.C.S.I. (1927); K.C.I.E. (1924) Governor of Burma, since 1932. *b.* 8 April 1871. *m.* 1905 Mary Daphne, *d.* of late John M. Maidlow, barrister. *Educ.:* Westminster; Christ Church Oxford. Entered Indian Civil Service 1895; Under Secretary to Govt. of Bengal, 1899-1902; Registrar, Calcutta High Court, 1902; Acting Chief Secretary 1902; PrivateSecretary to Lieutenant Governor; Sec etary to the Board of Revenue, Calcutta; Financial Secretary to Government of Bengal, and additional Secretary; Member, Southborough Reform Committee; Chief Secretary 1920; member of Executive Council, Bengal, 1922-27; Acting Governor of Bengal, 1926 and 1930; Governor of Bihar and Orissa, 1927-1932; Governor of Burma, since 1932. *Address:* Governor's Camp, Burma.

STILL, CHARLES, C.I.E., Indigo Planter. *b.* 1849. *Educ.:* privately. *Address:* Sathi Factory, Chumparum.

STOKES, HOPETOUN GABRIEL, C.S.I., C.I.E., B.A. Member, Executive Council, Madras. *m.* Alice Henrietta. *d.* of the late Sir Henry Lawrence, Bart., Dec. 1922. 1st Member, Madras Board of Revenue, 1925; Dy. Sec., Govt. of India, Home Dept., 1908-11; Fin. Dept., 1911-13 Fin. Mem., Imp. Delhi Committee, 1913-15; Priv. Sec. to Governor of Madras, 1915; Pol. Ag., Banganapalli, Madras; Secry. to Madras Govt., Local and Municipal Dept., 1918-19; Administrative Adviser, Klagenfurt Plebiscite Commission, 1920; Member, Board of Revenue, Madras, 1921; Secy. to Madras Govt., Development Dept., 1922; 3rd Member, Board of Revenue, Madras, 1924; Ch. Secretary to Government of Madras, 1929. *Educ.:* Clifton; Oriel Coll., Oxford, Ent. I.C.S., 1896. *Address:* c/o Binny & Co., Madras.

STOW, VINCENT AUBREY STEWART, M.A. (Oxon.); V.D., Literae Humaniores, (1906) (July 1931); Principal, Mayo College, Ajmer. *b.* 27 July 1883. *m.* Marie Elinor Morier (1912). *Educ.:* Winchester Coll., and Exeter Coll., Oxford. Asst. Master, Marlborough Coll., 1906; appointed to Chiefs' Colleges cadre, I.E.S., 1907; Asst. Master, Daly Coll., Indore, 1907; Principal, Rajkumar Coll., Raipur, 1912; I. A. R. O., Active Service, M. E. F. 1918; attached to Civil Administration, Iraq, 1919; Principal, Rajkumar Coll., Raipur, 1919; Principal, Mayo College, Ajmer, July 1931. *Publications:* Educational Works. *Address:* Mayo College, Ajmer, Rajputana.

SUBBARAYAN, DR. PARAMASIVA, M.A., B.C.L. (Oxon.), LL.D. (Dublin), Zemindar of Kumaramangalam. *b.* 11 Sept. 1889. *m.* Radhabai Kudmal. *d.* of Rai Sahib K. Rangarao of Mangalore. Three *s.* one *d. Educ.:* Newington School, Madras, the Presidency and Madras Christian Colleges and Wadham College, Oxford. Was Council Secretary for a few months in the first reformed Legislative Council; has been a member of Madras Legislative Council representing South Central Landholders from 1920. Was a member of All-India Congress Committee, in 1920. Was Chief Minister, Government of Madras, 1926-30. President, Madras Olympic Association, Indian Cricket Federation, Madras, and Madras Hockey Federation. *Address:* "Tiruchengodu", Salem; District "Fairlawns," Egmore, Madras.

SUBEDAR, MANU, B.A. (Bombay), Dakshin. Fellow of the Elphinstone College, B.Sc. (Eco.), London, First Class honours in Public Finance, Banking and Currency, Barrister-at-Law, Gray's Inn, 1912; Managing Director Acme-Bala Trading Co., Ltd. *Educ.:* New High School, Bombay, First in Matric from the School, Elphinstone College, Bombay; James Taylor Scholar & Prizeman, London School of Economics, London University, South Kensington, Gray's Inn. Returned to India in 1914. Lecturer in Economics, Bombay University. Professor of Economics, Calcutta University. Examiner for M.A., Bombay and Calcutta. Secretary, Sholapur Spinning and Weaving Mills Co., Ltd. (1917); Secretary, Morarji Goculdas Spinning and Weaving Mills Co., Ltd.; Managing Director, Western India Small Industries Corporation Ltd., (1919); Partner, Lalji Naranji & Co., Managing Agents of Jupiter General Insurance Co., Ltd.; Representative of the Indian Merchants' Chamber on the Bombay Port Trust; sent to England by the Government of India to give evidence on behalf of the Indian Commercial Community before the Babington-Smith Committee; Managing Agent of the Pioneer Rubber Co. (1920); Director of the Peninsular Locomotive Co., Ltd. (1924); Managing Director, Acme-Bala Trading Co., Ltd. (1925); Representative of the Indian Merchants' Chamber on the Advisory Board of the Development Department. Wrote separate dissenting report on Back Bay Reclamation Scheme and also on Housing Scheme. Representative of the Indian Merchants' Chamber on the Bombay Improvement Trust Committee; appointed member of the Indian Central Banking Enquiry Committee. Official adviser in various matters of technical finance to the States of Mysore, Junagadh, Jodhpur, and Cutch. Nominated by Government of Bombay to the Municipal Corporation (1930). Wrote separate Minority Report on the Indian Central Banking Enquiry Committee, 1931, Vice-President, Indian Merchants' Chamber, 1932. *Address:* Kodak House, Hornby Road, Fort, Bombay.

SUBRAHMANYAM, RAO BAHADUR CALAGA SUNDARAYYA, B.A., B.L., Landowner; *b.* Nov. 1862. *Educ.:* Kumbakonam and Madras Presidency Colleges. *m.* Balambamma,

d. of C. Munakshaiya, Bar-at-Law and Judge in Mysore. Practised as Vakil at Bellary; Chairman, Bellary Municipality, 1904-10 Vice-President, District Board, Bellary, 1911-1918: Member, Liberal League, Madras; has taken interest in co-operative work and social and political movements; elected to the Legislative Assembly, 1920. Apptd. President of Bench of Hon. Magistrates, Mayavaram Town in 1923. *Publications:* Pamphlets on Bubonic Plague and Irrigation Problems of the Ceded Districts. *Address:* Mayavaram, S. India.

SUHRAWARDY, SIR, HASSAN, Kt. (1932); Lt-Colonel, I. T. F., O.B.E. (1927), Kaisar-i-Hind Medal 1st Class (1930), L. M. S., M. D., F. R. C. S. I., D. P. H., L. M. Rotunda. Vice-Chancellor, Calcutta University. Chief Medical Officer, (Indian State Rlys. E.B.R. Adminstrn.) *b.* Dacca, 17-11-1884. *s.* of Moulana Obaidullah el Obaidy Suhrawardy, Pioneer of Anglo-Islamic Studies & Female Education in Bengal. *m.* Shahar Banu Begum, daughter of Hon. Nawab Syed Mohamed of Dacca. *d.* one. *Educ.:* Dacca Madrasah, Dacca College, Calcutta Med. College. Postgraduate—Dublin, Edinburgh and London. Member, Bengal Legislative Council 1921-24; Deputy President, 1923; Member, Beng. Industrial Unrest Committee, 1921. Member, Court of Muslim Univ., Aligarh. Member, Court & Exectv. Council, Dacca Univ. Leader, Indian Delegation, British Empire Univ. Congress, Edinburgh, 1931. President, Board of Studies, Arabic & Persian; President, Board of Studies, Medicine (C. U.) Commanding Officer, Calcutta University Corps. Associate Officer of the Order of St. John. President, Bengal I. T. F. Committee, 1922-25. Organising Member, Indian Field Ambulance Bays Water, London, 1914 (Founded by Mahatma Gandhi). Bengal Field Ambulance, 44th Bengali Regiment. President & Founder, Servants of Humanity Society, Social Hygn. & Uplift work. Bengal Govt. Delegate, British Empire Social Hygn. Congress, London, 1927. First Class Hony. Presidency Magistrate. *Publications:* Mother & Infant Welfare for India; Calcutta and Environs; Manual of Post Operative Treatment; Manual of First Aid for India; The Economic Effects of Venereal Diseases on Industries in India; Establishment of more Medical Schools in Bengal; Revival and Development of the Indigenous Tibbi System of Medicine. Several pamphlets on Public Health and Social Hygiene. propaganda. *Address:* 2, Belvedere Park, Alipore, Calcutta, India.

SUHRAWARDY, SIR ZAHHADUR RAHIM ZAHID, M.A., B.L., Kt., Bar-at-Law, President, Railway Rates Advisory Committee, Government of India; late Judge, Calcutta High Court. *b.* 1870. *Educ:* Dacca and Calcutta. *Address:* 3, Wellesley 1st Lane, Calcutta.

SUKHDEO PERSHAD, SIR, B.A., Rao Bahadur (1895); Gold Kaisar-I-Hind Medal (1901); C.I.E. (1902); Kinght Bachelor (1922). *b.* March, 1862. *m.* Mohanji, *d.* of Parannath Hukkoo. *Educ.:* at Agra College. Settlement Ambala, 1885; Judicial Secretary, Marwar 1886; Member of Council, 1887; Senior Member, 1901; Minister Marrwa, 1908; Chief Minister, Udaipur, 1914-18; Revenue Member, Regency Council, Marwar, 1919-21; officiated as Vice-President, 1920. Political Judicial and Finance Member, 1922-26. Musahib Ala, Udaipur, from 1930. A Sirdar of first rank with judicial powers in Marwar. Holds three villages in Jagir of an annual rental of Rs. 25,000. *Publications:* Famine Report, 1899-1900; Origin of the Rathors; Agricultural Indebtedness. *Address:* Sukh Ashram, Jodhpur, (Rajputana.)

SUKTHANKAR, VISHNU SITARAM, M.A. (Cantab.) Ph.D. (Berlin), Kaisar-i-Hind Medallist, Corresponding Member, Oriental Institute in Prague Czechoslovakia, Fellow Nowrosjee Wadia College, Poona. Lecturer in the Post-graduate Department of the Bombay University. *b.* 4th May 1887. *m.* Eleanora Bowing (died 6th Aug., 1926). *Educ.:* Maratha High School and S. Xavier's College, Bombay; St. John's College, Cambridge (England); and Berlin University. Formerly Asstt. Superintendent, Archæological Survey, Western Circle; Secretary, Mahabharata Editorial Board of Bhandarkar Oriental Research Institute, Poona. *Publications:* Die Grammatik Sakatayanas, Leipzig, 1921; Vasavadatta, Oxford Univ. Press, 1923; First Critical Edition of the *Mahabharata*, 1927; Studies in Bhasa; Epic Studies. Contributor to Journal, American Or. Soc; Ind. Antiquary; Epigraphia Indica; Journal, Bombay Branch, Royal As. Soc.; Journal, German Or. Soc; etc. Editor-in-Chief Journal of the Bombay Branch Royal Asiatic Society. *Address:* Shantaram House, Malabar Hill, Bombay; and Bhandarkar Oriental Research Institute, Poona

SULTAN AHMAD KHAN, SIRDAR SAHIBZADA, SIR, Kt. (1932) MUNTAZIM-UD-DEULA, C.I.E. (1924), M.A., LL.M. (Cantab.), Barrister-at-Law, son of Imtiaz-Ud-daula Nawab Ghulam Ahmad Khan Bahadur Ahmadi; Appeal Member since 1918. *b.* 1864. *m.* 1912. Lucy Pelling Hall, of Bristol. *Educ.:* at the Aligarh Mahomedan Anglo-Oriental College and Christ's College, Cambridge (called to the Bar at the Inner Temple, London, April 1894; B.A., LL.B., June 1894, M.A. and LL.M. (1909); was Chief Justice, Gwalior State, 1905-9, Law Member of Council, 1909-12, Finance Member, 1912-16, and Army Member, 1917; a Member of the Hunter Committee to inquire into causes of Disturbances in Delhi, Punjab, and Bombay, 1919-20. A delegate to the Round Table Conference, specially to represent Gwalior State, 1930-31. *Address:* Gwalior, India.

SUNDARA RAJ, DR. B., M.A., (Madras) Ph.D., (Liverpool); Director of Fisheries Madras. *b.* 1888. *Educ.:* Madras and Liverpool. Assistant to the Piscicultural Expert 1915; Asst. Director of Fisheries, (Inland), 1920. *Publications:* The occurrence of the Bank Myna, (Acridotheres Ginginianus) near Madras, Bombay Natural History Society Journal, XXIII; Note on Trygon hunhlii, Mulln and Henle Records of the Indian Mus. Vol. X; Note on the Breeding of Chiloseum, grisem, Mull. and Henle. Records of Indian Museum

Vol. XII; Remarks on the Madras Species of Haplochilus, read before the Indian Science Congress, 1915; Notes on the Fresh Water Fishes of Madras. Records of Indian Museum, Vol. XII; On the habits of Hilsa (Clupea ilisha) and their artificial propagation in the Coleroon. Asiatic Society Journal, Vol. XIII, 1917; The value of fish as natural enemies of mosquitoes in combating malaria, Leaflet issued by Fisheries Department. A new genus of Lernæid fish parasite from Madras, read before the Science Congress, Nagpore; 1920; A new Copepod parasite from the gills of Wallago Attu, (Fisheries Bulletin 17); General Editor of the Madras Fisheries Bulletins since 1923; Littoral Fauna of Krusadai Island in the Gulf of Mannar. (Madras Government Museum Bull. New Series, Natural History Section, Vol. I, No. I. 1927. Reports on Hydrozoa, (Siphonophon) Cirripedia, Amphipoda, (Caprellidæ) Decapod (Paguridæ) Pycnogonida and Appendix I. The Vertebrate Fauna of Krusadai Island; Fish Statistics for 1925-26 (Fisheries Bulletin, No. 22) for 1926-27 and 1927-28; Presidential Address—15th Indian Science Congress—Zoological Section, 1928; Systematic Survey of Deep Sea Fishing grounds by S. T. 'Lady Foschen' 1927-28. Report III of Fisheries Bulletin, No. 23 and Article "Pisciculture" in Allahabad Farmer, November 1933. *Address:* "Nowroj Gardens," Chetput, Madras.

SURAJ SINGH, Captain Bahadur, O.B.I., I.O.M., Marshal of the Legislative Assembly. *b.* on Feb. 1878. *m.* Ratankour. *Educ.:* under private tutors. Entered army in 1893 as a private soldier; served in Somaliland 1903-04; mentioned for good service; Viceroy's Commission 1907; served as Indian Staff Officer of the Cavalry School, Saugor, 1910-14 and 1919-21; served on the staff of General Sir M. F. Remington, Commander of the Indian Cavalry Corps in France 1914-16; France to 1918; Egypt and Palestine to 1919; Afghan War 1919; retired on amalgamation of the Forces in 1921; granted hon. rank of Captain 1923; apptd. Marshal of Indian Legislative Assembly, 1921. *Publications:* Khialat Marcus Aurelius (Thoughts of Marcus Aurelius in Urdu); Guide to Physical Training for Youths; Other Military books in 1901, 1907, 1910 and 1911. "Modern Saints of the Sikhs" Series, Vols. I and II in Gurumukhi, 1927-1928. *Address:* Kucha Khai, Katra Karam Singh, Amritsar.

SURANA, Shubhkaran. *b.* 13th Aug. 1896. *m.* in 1910 and again in 1926. Senior Partner, Messrs. Tejpal Bridichand, Calcutta. Senior Member, Calcutta University Institute since 1918. Member Legislative Assembly (Bikaner State), 1928. Founder, "Surana Library", Churu (Rajputana). Asst. Secretary, Jain Swetambari Terapanthi Sabha, Calcutta 1930. Hon. Magistrate, Churu, 1931. *Address:* 7/1, Armenian Street, Calcutta; Churu (Rajputana).

SURVE, Dadasaheb Appasaheb, Prime Minister of Kolhapur. *b.* 7th February 1903. *m.* Kumari Shantadevi, *d.* of the late Akojirao Nimbalkar, Inamdar of Nej. *Educ:* Baldwin High School, Bangalore. Chief Secretary to H. H. 1925 to 1929; Acting Dewan 1929-31. Appointed Dewan 1931. Prime Minister Jan. 1932. Rao Saheb, 1930. Attended Indian Round Table Conference in London as Adviser to States' Delegation. *Address:* New Palace, Kolhapur.

SUTHERLAND, Lieut.-Col. David Waters, C.I.E., I.M.S. (Retired). late Prof. of Medicine, Med. Coll., Lahore. *b.* Australia, 18 Dec. 1871. *m.* 1915, Princess Bamba Duleep Singh, *d.* of late Maharaja Duleep Singh. *Educ.:* Melbourne and Edinburgh Univ. M.D. (Edin.), M.B. C.M. (Edin.), F.R.C.P. (Lond.), F.R.S. (Edin.), Fell. Roy. Soc., Med., London. *Address:* 28, Jail Road, Lahore.

SUTHERLAND, Rev. William Sinclair M.A., B.D. (Glasgow University); Kaiser-I-Hind Gold Medal (1930); Missionary Superintendent, Lady Willingdon Leper Settlement, Chingleput, S. India. *b.* 15 July 1877, in Invernesshire, Scotland. *m.* Elsie Ruth Nicol M.A. of Melbourne, Australia. *Educ.:* Garnethill School, University of Glasgow and Theological College of the United Free Church of Scotland at Glasgow. Missionary of the Church of Scotland in Chingleput District since 1905; appointed Supdt. of Lady Willingdon Leper Settlement in 1925. *Address:* Lady Willingdon Leper Settlement, Chingleput, S. India.

SWETACHALAPATHI RAMKRISHNA RANGA RAO Bahadur, Sri Rajah Ravu, Rajah of Bobbili. *b.* 20 Feb. 1901. *Educ:* Bobbili, privately. Ascended gadi in 1920; Member, Council of State, 1925-27; Member Madras Legislative Council, 1930. Hon. A.D.C. to H. E. the Governor of Madras from Jan. 1930; Pro-Chancellor, Andhra University from 1931. *Address:* Bobbili, Madras Presidency.

SYED ABUL AAS: Zamindar. *b.* 27th Septr. 1880. *m.* Bibi Noor-i-Ayesha. *Educ.:* Govt. City School, Patna; studied privately English, Arabic, Persian and Urdu: has always taken keen interest in matters educational. Apptd. Hon. Magte. at Patna 1906, served 20 years as Hon. Magte., 1906-26; elected member, Patna Municipal Board 1906 and 1909; elected member, Asiatic Society of Bengal, 1908; elected member of Bihar and Orissa Research Society, Nov. 1916; member of Council of All-India Muslim League; Hon. Asstt. Secry., Bihar and Orissa Provincial Muslim League; Apptd. Member of the proposed London Mosque Committee, 1911; apptd. Member of the first Universal Race Congress held at Univ. of London, 1911; joined Muslim Deputation which waited upon Lord Hardinge in 1914; elected Member of Aligarh Muslim University Assocn., 1914; elected Vice-Presidents of Bihari Students' Association and Anjumani-Islamia, Patna, 1914; served 2 years as Director, Bihar and Orissa Provincial Co-operative Bank, Patna, 1917-18; nominated non-official member, Mental Hospital, Patna, 1923. *Address:* Abulaas Lane, Bankipur, Patna.

SYED, Mobinur Rahman, B.A., LL.B., M.R.A.S., F.R.S.A. (London)., M.L.C., High Court Pleader, Akola; born at Saugor, 1893, educated at Aligarh and Allahabad; Senior

Vice-President, Akola Municipal Board (the premier Municipality of Berar), 1925-1928; Officer-in-Charge of the Akola Municipality 1928; Chairman, School Board, Akola Municipality, 1925-1927; Member, Governing Body, Government High School, Akola. (1928-30); Member, C. P. Legislative Council sinc 1926; nominated to the Panel of Chaerman, C. P. Council, Deputy Leader, Demiocratic Party, (Majority Party) C.P. Legislative Council (1928); Member, Governing Body C. P. and Berar, Literary Academy; Member, Executive Council, All-India Muslim League and All-India Muslim Conference; President, President several Anjumans and Political Organizations in Berar; Member, Central Khilafat Committee; some time Hon. Editor, the *Al-Haq*, Nagpur; Member Historical Records Commission, (1928); Chairman, Reception Committee, Berar, Muslim Educational Conference, (1928); President, C. P. and Berar All Parties Muslim Conference, 1928. President Muslim Education Society, Akola, re-elected Senior Vice-President, Akola Municipality, 1932; Member, Governing Body, King Edward Memorial Society of C. P. and Berar. A Constant Contributor to several leading journals in India and England. Selected by Government to give evidence before Lothian Committee on behalf of Mussalmans of Berar (1932); Member C. P. Educational service Selection Committee; Member Standing Committee on Education C. P. Council; Member several select Committees C. P. Council; *Publications:* "Miratul Berar" and "Nighadasht Atfal," etc. *Address:* Akola.

SYED MUHAMMAD SA'ADULLA, THE HON. M.A., (Chemistry) 1906; B.L. 1907; Finance Member, Assam Government. *b.* May 1886. *Educ:* Cotton College, Gauhati, Assam (F.A.); Presidency College, Calcutta (M.A.), Ripon College, Calcutta (B.L.) Asst. Lecturer in Chemistry Coiton College, Gauhati, 1908; Practised as a lawyer in Gauhati courts, 1909-19; in the Calcutta High Court, 1920-24; Member, Assam Legislative Council, 1913-20; again since 1923; Minister, Assam Government in charge of Education and Agriculture 1924-29; Member, Executive Council, Assam Government in charge of Law and Order and P.W.D., 1929-30 Member in charge of of Finance and Law and Order since November 30. *Address:* Gauhati, Assam; Shillong, Assam.

SYED, SIRDAR ALI KHAN. created Nawab Sirdar Nawaz Jung. Bahadur, 1921; Postmaster General of H. E. H. the Nizam's Dominions, 1922-1929 (retired) *b.* 26th March 1879. eldest surviving *s.* of late Nawab Sirdar Diler Jung Sirdar Diler-ud-Dowla, Sirdar Diler-ul-Mulk Bahadur, C.I.E., some time Home Secretary at Hyderabad. *m.* 1896; six *s.* two *d. Educ.*; privately. Entered the Nizam's service, 1911: has held several responsible positions, including the Commissionership of Gulburga Province; presented Georgian and Queen Mary Historical Furniture to the National Collection at Victoria Memorial Hall, Calcutta, 1908. *Publications*: Lord Curzon's Administration of India, 1905; Unrest in India, 1907; Historical Furniture, 1908; India of To-day, 1908; Life of Lord Morley, 1923; The Earl of Reading, 1924; British India, 1926, The Indian Moslems, 1928; contributions to the English and Indian Press with regard to the Indian political situation. *Address:* Hyderabad, Deccan.

SYED RAZA ALI, C.B.E. Member, Public Service Commission (1926); B.A., LL.B. (Allahabad Univ.) *b.* 29 April 1882. *m. d.* of his mother's first cousin. *Educ.:* Government High School, Moradabad and Mahomedan College, Aligarh. Started practice at Moradabad in 1908 and was a radical in politics; returned to U.P. Legis. Council 1912; took prominent part in Cawnpore Mosque agitation; elected Trustee of Aligarh Colleged gave evidence before Islington Commission and Southborough Committee; returned unopposed to U.P. Council in 1916 and 1920; was one of those responsible for introducing separate Moslem representation in Municipal Boards in U.P.; took active part in negotiating the Congress League Compact in 1916; same year settled at Allahabad; identified himself with Swaraj and Khilafat movements but strongly differing from non-co-operation programme; became independent in politics 1920, member of Council of State 1921-1926, elected member of Delhi University Court; was member of North West Inquiry Committee and signed majority report; headed two deputations of Moslem members of Indian Legislature to Viceroy in 1922 and 1923 in connection with Turkish question; gave non-party evidence before Reforms Inquiry Committee in 1924; President, All-India Moslem League, Bombay Session, Decr. 1924. Member, Govt. of India's Deputation to South Africa (1925-1926). Substitute Delegate Government of India's Delegation to Assembly of League of Nations, Geneva, 1929. *Publications:* Essays on Moslem Questions (1912); "My Impressions of Soviet Russia," (1930). *Address:* Delhi and Simla.

SYEDNA TAHER SAIFUDDIN SAHEB, His HOLINESS SARDAR (Mullaji Saheb), High Priest of Dawoodi Bohra Shia Mahomedan community and First Class Sardar of Deccan. Fifty-first incumbent of the post of Dai-ut Mutlaq, which has been in existence for nearly 900 years having been founded in Yemen where his predecessors were once Sultans. They have enjoyed many privileges and received high honours from various Ruling Princes in India from time to time and also from the British Government. *Address*: Surat; and Saifi Mahal, Malabar Hill, Bombay.

SYMNS, JOHN MONTFORT, M.A., I.E.S. Director of Public Instruction Burma. *b.* Jan. 11th, 1879. *Educ:* Aldenham School (Junior and Senior Platt Scholar.) Gonville and Caius College. Cambridge, (Open Classical exhibitioner). Major, Army Head Quarters, Simla and Delhi during the War. Appointed Burma Commissioner for British Empire Exhibition. Wembley. *Publications:* Horace in Burma. The Pagoda and the Poet. The Mark of the East. Songs of a Desert Optimist. J.M.S. of Punch. *Address:* Rangoon.

TAGORE, ABANINDRA NATH, C.I.E.; Zemindar of Shazādpur, Bengal; *b.* 1871. *Educ.:* Sanskrit Coll., Calcutta, and at home Designed Memorial Address to Lady Curzon Casket presented to King by Corp. of Calcutta 1911; principal work consists in reviving School of Indian Art. *Address:* 5 Dwarkanath Tagore's Lane, Calcutta.

TAGORE, MAHARAJA BAHADUR SIR PRODYOT COOMAR, KT. *b.* 17 September 1873, *Educ.:* Hindu Sch., Calcutta; afterwards privately: Sheriff of Calcutta, 1909; Trustee, Victoria Mem. Hall; Trustee, Indian Museum; Fellow, Royal Photographic Society of Great Britain. Mem. of Asiatic Soc. of Bengal; formerly Mem., Bengal Council. *Address:* Tagore Castle, Calcutta.

TAGORE, SIR RABINDRANATH, KT., D.Lit. (Calcutta Univ.); *b.* 1861. *Educ.:* privately. Lived at Calcutta first; went to country at age of 24 to take charge of his father's estates; there he wrote many of his works; at age of 40 founded school at Santiniketan, Bolpur, in 1921, this has been his life-work ever since; visited England 1912, and translated some of his Bengali works into English; Nobel Prize for Literature, 1913. *Publications:* In Bengali about 35 political works, dramas, operas about 38; Story books Novels 19; over 50 collections of Essays on Literature, Art, Religion and other subjects. and composed over 3000 songs published periodically in small collections with notations. In English—Gitanjali, 1912, The Gardener, 1913. The Crescent Moon, 1913. Chitra, 1913. The King of the Dark Chamber, 1914. Post Office, 1914. Sadhana, 1914. Kabir's Poems, 1915. Fruit-Gathering, 1916. Hungry Stones and other Stories, 1916. Stray Birds, 1916. My Reminiscences, 1917. Sacrifice and other Plays, 1917. The Cycle of Spring, 1917. Personality, 1917, Nationalism, 1917. Lover's Gift and Crossing, 1918. Mashi and other Stories, 1918. Stories from Tagore, 1918. The Parrot's Training, 1918. The Home and the World, 1919, Gitanjali and Fruit-Gathering 1919, The Fugitive, 1921. The Wreck, 1921, Glimpses of Bengal, 1921. Thought Relics. 1921. Creative Unity, 1922. Greater India, 1923. Gora, 1924. Letters from Abroad 1923. Red Oleanders, 1924. Talks in China, 1924. Broken Ties, 1924. Red Oleanders, a drama, 1925, Fireflies, 1928. ; Letters to a Friend (Unwin) 1929, Thoughts from Tagore (Macmillan), 1929, The Tagore Birthday Book, 1929. Contributes regularly to the Viswa, Bharati Quarterly issued from Santiniketan. *Address:* Santiniketan, Bolpur.

TAIRSEE, LAKHMIDAS ROWJEE (See Lakhmidas.)

TAMBE, SHRIPAD BALWANT, B.A., LL.B., *b.* 8 Dec. 1875. *Educ:* Jabalpur (Hitkarini School), Amraoti, Anglo-Vernacular and High School and Bombay Elphinstone College and Govt. Law School. Pleader at Amraoti, Member and Vice-President of Amraoti Town Municipal Committee: President, Provincial Congress Committee; Member, C. P. Legis. Council 1917-1920 and 1924; President, C. P. Legis. Council, March 1925. Home Member, Central Provinces Government. Ag. Governor, Central Provinces, 1929. Member, Indian Franchise Committee, 1932. *Address:* Nagpur, C. P.

TANNAN, MOHAN LAL, M. Com. (Birm.), Bar.-at-Law, I.E.S., J.P., Principal, Sydenham College of Commerce and Economics, Bombay, on deputation to the Government of India, Commerce Department, as Secretary, Indian Accountancy Board and Under Secretary. *b.* 2 May 1885. *m.* Miss C. Chopra. *Educ.:* at Govt. High School, Gujrat, Forman Christian Coll., Lahore, and the University of Birmingham. Official Liquidator of the Industrial Bank of India, Ltd., in liquidation and the Jt. Official Liquidator, the Indian Army Uniforms Supplying Co., Ltd., in liquidation (both of Ludhiana, Punjab), President, 10th Indian Economic Conference, 1927. Vice-President, the Indian Economic Society, 1921-23; Member of the Finance Sub-Committee of the Indian Merchants' Chamber and Bureau, Bombay (1921-22); Syndic of the Bombay University, 1923-24 to 1927-28; Secretary, Accountancy Diploma Board, Bombay, from 1st March 1923; Director, Bombay Central Co-operative Bank, Ltd., Bombay, 1924 Member Council Indian Institute of Bankers; Member, Auditors' Council, Bombay; Principal and Prof. of Banking, the Sydenham Coll. of Commerce and Economics, Bombay; Chairman, Ex. Committee of the Seventh Indian Economic Confce. (Bombay). *Publications:* "Banking Law and Practice in India," Indian Currency and Banking Problems" jointly with Prof. K. T. Shah, B.A. (Bom.), B.Sc. (Econ.), London. and several pamphlets such as the "Banking Needs of India," "Indian Currency and the War, Regulation of Banks in India, etc. *Address:* Commerce Department, Government of India, Simla and New Delhi.

TAYLOR, JAMES BRAID, M.A., Barrister-at-Law (Lincoln's Inn); C.I.E. (1932); Additional Secretary, Finance Department, Government of India. *b.* 21 April 1891. *m.* Betty Coles. *Educ:* Edinburgh Academy and University. Indian Civil Service, 1914; Under Secretary, Central Provinces Government, 1920; Commerce Department, Government of India, 1920-22; Deputy Controller of Currency, Calcutta, 1924; Bombay 1925. *Address:* Government of India, New Delhi.

TEHRI, MAJOR, H. H. RAJA SIR NARENDRA SHAH SAHEB BAHADUR, K.C.S.I., of Tehri-Garhwal State. *b.* 3 Aug. 1898. *m.* 1916. Heir-apparent born 1921. Succeeded 1913. *Educ.:* Mayo College, Ajmer. *Address:* Narendranagar, (Tehri-Garhwal State).

TEMPLE, LIEUT.-COL. HON. COL. FREDERICK CHARLES M. Inst. C.E., C.I.E., (1931); V.D., A.D.C., M.I.C.E., M.I.M.E., District Grand Secretary, District GrandLodge of Bengal. *b.* 25 June 1879 *m.* Francis Mary Copleston. *Educ:* Rugby School and Balliol College Oxford. Asst. Engineer, Birmingham Welsh Waterworks; Military Works Services, India; Punjab Canals; District Engineer, Muzaffarpur; Superintending Engineer, Public Health, Bihar and Orissa. Chief Town Engineer and

Administrator, Jamshedpur. *Publications:* "Manual for Young Engineers in India," and "Sewage Works." *Address:* 19 Park Street, Calcutta.

THAKORRAM KAPILRAM, DIWAN BAHADUR, B.A., LL.B., C.I.E., Vakil, High Court and Dist. Govt. Pleader and Public Prosecutor. *b.* 16 April 1868. *m.* Ratangavri, *d.* of Keshavrai Amritrai. *Educ:* at Bhavnagar, Alfred High School and Elphinstone College, Bombay. Apptd. teacher in Govt. Sorabji J. J. High School of Surat and began practice at Surat in 1894, Entered Municipality in 1904; became Chairman, Schools Committee 1907-1909 and 1911 and Chairman, Managing Committee in 1908 and 1917-18. Vice-President of the Municipality in 1911 to 1914 and President in 1914-17; and again in 1928 for the triennium 1928-31. Appointed Chairman, Committee of Management in 1922-25; Chairman of School Board in 1925 and again in 1931 and 1932. Chairman of the Raichand Deepchand Girl's School Committee, the Chairman of the People's Co-operative Bank Ltd., Appointed a member of the Pratt Committee; and witness before the Royal Reforms Commission 1919. Vice-President, Surat Sarvajanik Education Society, 1927-28. Government Advocate in the Bardoli Inquiry, 1931. Member of the Managing Committee of Andrews Library since 1898; and President of the Home for Destitute children since 1921; admitted as an Advocate O. S. 1933. *Address:* Athwa Line, Surat.

THAKUR, RAO BAHADUR KASHINATH KESHAV, I.S.O.; Sen. Div. and Sess. Judge, Nagpur since 1911; *b.* 15 Feb. 1860. *Educ.:* Saugor and Jubbulpore H. S.; Muir Central Coll., Allahabad. *Address:* Nagpur.

THULRAI, TALUQDAR OF, RANA SIR SHEORAJ SINGH BAHADUR OF KHAJURGAON, K.C.I.E., Rai Bareli District. *b.* 1865. *m.* 1st, *d.* of Babu Amarjit Singh, *y. b.* of the Raja of Majhouli; 2nd *d.* of Raja Somesurdatt Singh: a Raja of Kundwar; 3rd *d.* of the Raja of Bijapur District. *Educ.:* Govt. H. S., Rai Bareli. *S.* father, 1897; descended from King Salivahan, whose Sumvat Era is current in India. *Heir:* Kunwar Lal Elma Natt Singh Bahadur. *Address:* Thulrai, Khajurgaon.

TODHUNTER, SIR CHARLES GEORGE, K.C.S.I. (1921), Fellow of the Royal Statistical and Royal Historical Societies; *b.* 16 Feb. 1869. *Educ.:* Aldenham Sch. and King's Coll., Cambridge, Members' prizeman, Cambridge University, 1888; *m.* Alice, O.B.E., K.-i-H. *d.* of Captain C. Losack, 93rd Highlanders. Served in I.C.S., Madras; also conducted special inquiries into Customs and Excise matters in Kashmir, the C.P. and C.I. States. Sec., Indian Excise Committee, 1906; I.G. of Excise and Salt to the Govt. of India, 1909-1910. President, Life Saving Appliances Committee, 1913; Secretary to Govt. of Madras, 1915; Member of Board of Revenue, 1916; Member of Executive Council, 1919-24. President, Indian Taxation Enquiry Committee, 1924-25; Member, Council of State, 1926; Private Secretary to H. H. the Maharaja of Mysore. *Address:* Vasantha Mahall, Mysore.

TONK, H.H. SAID-UD-DAULA, WAZIR-UL-MULK, Nawab Hafiz Muhammad Saadat Ali Khan Bahadur Saulat Jang. *b.* 1879, *s.* 1930. State has area of 16,34,061 acres and population of 317,360. *Address:* Tonk, Rajputana.

TOTTENHAM, GEORGE RICHARD FREDERICK, C.I.E. (1930); Secretary, Army Department, Government of India. *b.* Nov. 18, 1890, *m.* Hazel Joyce, 2nd *d.* of the late Major Gwynne, R. W. Fuslrs. *Educ:* Harrow and New College, Oxford. Joined I.C.S. in 1914; served in Madras Presidency as Asst. Collr. and Sub-Collr. and as Under and Dy. Secretary to Govt. till April 1924; with Army Department of Govt. of India, as officer on special duty, Deputy Secretary and Secretary since 1929 except for one year with Govt. of Madras as Retrenchment Secretary, 1931-32. *Address:* C/o Messrs. Grindlay & Co., Ltd., 54, Parliament Street, London, S. W. 1.

TRAVANCORE AND COCHIN, SOUTH INDIA, BISHOP IN, RT. REV. E. A. L. MOORE, M.A. *b.* Nov. 13, 1870. *Educ.:* Marlborough Coll., and at Oriel. Coll., Oxford. Curate at Aston, Birmingham, 1894-96; Missionary of the C.M.S. in S. India from November 1896; C.M. S. Divinity School, Madras, 1896-1914; C.M.S. College, Kottayam, 1902-1903; Chairman, C.M.S., District Council, Tinnevelly, 1915-1924: Consecrated Bishop on 24 Feb. 1925. *Address.* Bishop's House, Kottayam.

TRAVERS, SIR (WALTER) LANCELOT, Kt., *cr.* 1931; C.I.E. 1925; O.B.E. 1918; *s.* of Walter Benward Travers and *g.s.* of Rev. J. B. Travers, Mumby, Alford and Fairfield Lodge, near Exeter; *b.* 1880; unmarried. *Educ:* Alford, Lincolnshire. Manager and Inspector of tea gardens in North India since 1900; Chairman, Dooars Planter's Association, 1914-20; Vice-Chairman, 1921-25; member of many committees associated with tea industry; Member Jalpaiguri District Board, 1914-25; Member Bengal Legislative Council, 1920-31; Leader, British Party on Council; President, European Association, 1929 and 1930; Capt. Northern Bengal Mounted Rifles; associated with many War Committees, etc.; twice received mention by Commander-in-Chief. *Recreation:* shooting. *Address:* Baradighi, Jalpaiguri.

TRENCH, WILLIAM LAUNCELOT CROSBIE, B.A., M. Inst. C.E., Chief Engineer, P.W.D. *b.* 22 July 1881, *m.* Margaret Zephanie Huddleston. *Educ:* at Leys School and Dublin University, Indian Service of Engineers. *Address:* Chief Engineer in Sind, Karachi, (Sind).

TUBBS, THE RIGHT REV. DR. NORMAN HENRY, Classical Tripos, (1900); Theological Tripos, (1902); M.A. (1905); D.D. (Hon. causa), 1923, Cambridge University; Bishop of Rangoon. *b.* 5th July 1879. *m.* Norah Elesita Lunt. *d.* of Prebendary Lunt, Walcot, Bath. *Educ:* Highgate School and Camb. University. Curate, Whitechapel, 1903-05; Church Missionary Society, U.P. 1090-17. Principal of Bishop's College, and Hon. Secretary, S.P.G., Calcutta, 1917-23; Bishop of Tinnevelly, 1923-28; Bishop of Rangoon since 1928. *Address:* Bishopscourt, Rangoon.

TURNER, CHARLES WILLIAM ALDIS, B.A., C.S.I. (1933), C.I.E. (1928), I.C.S., Chief Secretary to Government, Bombay. *b.* July 30, 1879. *Educ:* King Edward VI. School, Norwich and Magdalen Coll. Oxford. *m.* in 1930 Eileen Dorothy Kirkpatrick from whom he obtained divorce in 1930; 1 daughter. Appointed Asst. Collector, Bom. Presidency, in 1903; Settlement Officer, Dharwar Dist., 1909-10; Under-Secretary, Revenue and Finance Departments, Bombay, 1912-15; Cantonment Magte., Ahmednagar, 1917-1919; Collector, Ahmednagar, 1919-21; Personal Asst. to Lord Lee, Chairman, Public Services Commission, 1923-24; Ag. Secretary, Political Department, 1924; Secretary, General Department, 1924-1929; and Secretary, Political Department and Reforms Officer in addition, 1930. Ch. Secretary, Political and Reforms Department, 1933. *Address:* Secretariat, Bombay.

TWISS, MAJOR-GENERAL WILLIAM LOUIS OBERKIRCH, C.B. (1930); C.B.E. (1919); M.C. (1915); Military Secretary, Army Headquarters, India. *b.* 18 Jan. 1879. *m.* Nora Muriel, *d.* of J. E. Wakefield, J.P. 1915, (died 1929); Isabel Vivian, *d.* of T. C. Drake Esq. (1932). *Educ:* Bedford School, 1890-96, R.M.C., Sandhurst, 1896-1897. First Commission, Jan. 1898; Joined Indian Army, 1899; Boxer Expedition (North China), 1900-01, Medal with clasp, mentioned in despatches; Tibet Expedition, 1903-04, (Medal); Great War, served in France from 1914-17, C.B.E., M.C., Brevt.-Lieut.-Col., 1917; Legion of Honour (French); Order of Sacred Treasure (Japanese), mentioned in despatches 5 times; appointed 9th Gurkha Rifles, 1901; commanded 2-9th Gurkha Rifles, 1921-23; appointed Colonel, 9th Gurkha Rifles, 1930; appointed Colonel 511st Punjab Regiment 1932; Staff College, Camberley, 1006-07, General Staff, War Office, London, 1908-12; Brigade-Major, Nowshera Brigade, 1913-14; General Staff, France, 1914-17 and General Staff, Army Headquarters, India, 1917-19 (Director of Military Intelligence); General Staff, War Office, 1919-21; Director of Military Intelligence, Army Headquarters India, 1923-24; Director of Military Operations, Army Headquarters, India, 1924-27, Commander, Jullundar Brigade Area, 1927-1931; Offg. Commander, Lahore District, 1931; Military Secretary, Army Headquarters, India, 1932. Fellow of Royal Geographical Society, Founder Member, Royal Institute of International Affairs (Chatham House); Founder Member and Hon. Secretary, Himalayan Club; Bronze Medal of Royal Humane Society (1903); Officer of Norwegian Military Order of St. Olaf (1909); Member of American Military Order of the Dragon (1901). *Address:* Army Headquarters, Simla or Delhi.

TYABJI, HUSAIN BADRUDDIN, M.A. (Honours), LL.M. (Honours), Cantab. 1896; Bar-at-Law, Second Judge, Presidency Court of Small Causes, Bombay. Acted Chief Judge. Retired. *b.* 11 October 1873. *m.* Miss Nazar Mohammad Fatehally. *Educ.:* Anjumane-Islam, Bombay; St. Xavier's School and College; Downing College, Cambridge. Practised in the Bombay High Court. *Address:* Marzbanabad, Andheri.

TYLDEN-PATTENSON, ARTHUR ERIC, Agent, G. I. P. Railway, Bombay. *b.* 15 Nov. 1888. *m.* Dorothy Margaret McIver. *Educ:* "Grasshams, Holt, Norfolk. Had three years' training, Great Northern Railway, England. Joined as probationer in Traffic Dept. of G. I. P. Railway in 1908, was in charge of Gwalior Light Railway and subsequently worked as District Traffic Superintendent, G. I. P. Was Claims Superintendent from 1922 to 1924; officiated as Deputy Traffic Manager and from 1925 to 1927 was Officiating Chief Traffic Manager; in 1928 was selected by Railway Board to organise the new department of State Railways Publicity and was Chief Publicity Officer; in 1929 he went on deputation to Europe and America to supervise the inauguration of extensive publicity schemes on behalf of Indian Railways; in March 1930 was appointed Chief Transportation Superintendent and in 1931 was made Agent. *Address:* "Glenogle", Mount Pleasant Road, Malabar Hill, Bombay.

TYMMS, FREDERICK, M.C. (1916); Chevalier, Order de la Courrancne (1917); Belgian croix de Guerre (1917); Associate Fellow of the Royal Aeronautical Society; Director of Civil Aviation in India. *b.* 4 August 1889. Home Civil Service; South Lancas hire Regiment; Royal Flying Corps and Royal Air Force during war; Air Ministry Civil Aviation Department, 1919. Air Ministry Superintendent of the Cairo-Karachi Air Route, 1927 Chief Technical Assistant, Civil Aviation Department, 1928; Director, Civil Aviation, India, 1931. *Publications:* Part author "Commercial Air Transport," 1926; "Flying for Air Survey Photography" Scientific papers on Air Navigation and Air Routes for Royal Aeronautical Society. *Address:* Simla and Delhi.

UJJAL SINGH, SARDAR, M. A. (Punjab). Landlord and Millowner. *b.* 27 Dec. 1895. *Educ:* Govt. College, Lahore. Went to England in 1920 as member of Sikh Deputation to press the claims of the Sikh community before the joint Parliamentary Committee; has been member of Shromani Gurdwara Committee since 1921; member of Sikh League, Khalsa College Council and Managing Committee; Member, Indian Central Cotton Committee and Provincial Cotton Committee since 1925; elected member, Punjab Legis. Council; was member and Hon. Secretary of Punjab Simon Committee which co-operated with the Simon Commission; served on Punjab Unemployment Committee; Hydro-Electric Enquiry Committee; Punjab Retrenchment Committee; Punjab Compulsory Primary Education Committee; Presided over non-Government Schools Conference, Punjab, 1928; was selected delegate for Round Table Conference, 1930; served on Federal Structure Committee; on the Business Committee of the Round Table Conference; was invited in 1931 to attend meetings of Federal Structure Committee and Minorities Committee of the R. T.

Conference. Presided over Punjab Sikh Political Conference 1932; was appointed Member, Consultative Committee, 1932; Presided over Sikh Youths Conference, 1933. *Address:* Mianchanu, Punjab.

UMAR HAYAT KHAN TIWANA, THE HON, COLONEL NAWAB RANA MALIK, SIR, K.C.I.E., C.B.E., M.V.O., Member, Council of State Member of the Council of the Secretary of State for India, Landlord. *b.* 1874. *Educ:* Aitchison Chiefs' College, Lahore, was given Hon. Commission in 18th K.G.O., attended King Edward's Coronation Durbar at Delhi; served in Somaliland; joined Tibet Expedition; was attached to the late Ameer of Afghanistan; attended King George's Coronation Durbar at Delhi; saw active service in the world war in France and Mesopotamia: Mons. Star 1914; Member, Provincial Recruiting Board; represented Punjab, Delhi War Conference in 1918, served in the 3rd Kabul War (mentioned in despatches), made Colonel; Member, Esher Committee, 1920; has been President of the National Horse Breeding and Show Society of India. *Address:* Kaira, Dist. Shahpur, Punjab.

URQUHART, DR. WILLIAM SPENCE, M.A., D. Litt. (Abdn.), D.D. (Hon. Abdn.); Doctor of Law; D.L. (Hon. Calcutta); Vice-Chancellor, Calcutta University, 1928-1930; Principal, Scottish Church College since 1928. *b.* 1877. *m.* Margaret Macaskill, *d.* of Rev. Murdoch Macaskill, Dingwall. *Educ.:* Aberdeen University; New College, Edinburgh; Marburg University, Göttingen University; Professor of Philosophy, Duff. College, Calcutta, 1902; Scottish Churches College, 1908; Member, Indian Universities Congress, 1924 and 1929; Dean of the Faculty of Arts, Calcutta University, 1927 and 1931; Vice-Chancellor, Calcutta University, 8th August 1928 to Aug. 7th, 1930; Chairman of the Inter-University Board, India, 1931-32. Principal, Scottish Church College, since 1928. *Publications:* The Historical and the Eternal Christ, (1916); Pantheism and the Value of Life, (1919); Theosophy and Christian Thought, (1922); Vedânta and Modern Thought, (1928); Contributor to Encyclopædia of Religion and Ethics. *Address:* Principal's House, Scottish Church College, Calcutta.

USMAN, THE HON. SIR MAHOMED, K.C.I.E. (1933) B.A., Vice-President of the Executive Council, Madras. *b.* 1884 *m. d.* of Shifa-ul-Mulk Zynulabudin Sahib Bahadur, B.A. *Educ:* Madras Christian College. Councillor, Corporation of Madras, 1913-1925; Hon. Pres. Magte., 1916-20; Fellow of the Madras University; Member, Town Planning Trust, 1921-25; Chairman of Committee on Indigenous Systems of Medicine, 1921-23; Member, Publicity Board, 1918 and 1921-22; President, Muthialpet Muslim Anjuman, Madras; President, Board of Visitors to the Govt. Mahomedan Coll. and Hon. Visitor, Government School of Arts and Crafts, 1923-25; Member, Madras Excise Licensing Board, 1922-25; Gave evidence before the Reforms Committees and the Jail Committee. Elected Member, Madras Legis. Council, 1921-23; Sheriff of Madras (1924); President of the Corporation of Madras, 1924-25; President, Madras Children's Aid Society, 1926-28; President, Madras Discharged Prisoners' Aid Society, 1925-1928; Chairman, H. R. H. The Prince of Wales' Children's Hospital Fund; Chairman, the British Empire Leprosy Relief Association, Madras, 1925; President, Mahomedan Educational Association of Southern India. Khan Sahib, 1920; Khan Bahadur, 1921; Kaisar-i-Hind Second Class, 1923. Knighted, 1928; K.C.I.E. (1933). Officiating Governor of Madras, May-August 1933. *Address:* Teynampet Gardens, Teynampet, Madras.

VACHHA, JAMSHEDJI BEJANJI, Khan Bahadur, B.A., B.SC., C.I.E., Commissioner of Income Tax, Bombay Presidency. *b.* 26 May 1879. *m.* Roshan Ardashir Karanjawalla, B.A. *Educ:* Elphinstone College, Bombay. Entered Government Service as Deputy Collector, 1902. *Publications:* The Bombay Income Tax Manual. *Address:* Banoo Mansion, Cumballa Hill, Bombay.

VAIL, CHARLES EDWARD, B.A., M.D., F.A.C.S., K.I.H. (Silver), 1930; K.I.H. (Gold), 1932. Medical Missionary. *b.* July 11, 1880. *m.* Elizabeth Crane. *Educ:* Blair Hall Academy, Blairstoun, N. Y., U. S. A.; Princeton University, Princeton, N. Y., Columbia Univ., School of Tropical Medicine, London; American Presbyterian Mission Hospital, Miraj, S.M.C., since 1910. *Publications:* Arthoplasty of the Elbow-joint; Gastro-enterostomy under local anaesthesia, Acute Intestinal Obstruction, Cataract Extraction. *Address:* Mission Hospital, Miraj, S.M.C.

VAUX, MAJOR HENRY GEORGE, C.S.I. (1928), C.I.E. (1921), M.V.O. (1922), Military Secretary to the Governor of Bombay. *b.* 1883. *m.* The Baroness Edna von Stockhausen, (American), 1915. *Educ.*; St. Lawrence School. Joined the Army, 1900; A.D.C. to Governor of Victoria, 1908-11; A.D.C. to Governor of Madras, 1911; A.D.C. to Governor of Bengal, 1912-14; Military Secretary to Lord Carmichael, 1914-17: Mil. Secretary to Earl of Ronaldshay, 1917-22: Mil. Secretary to Earl of Lytton, 1922: Mil. Secretary to Sir George Lloyd, 1922-23; Mil. Secretary to Sir Leslie Wilson, 1923-28; Military Secretary to Sir Frederick Sykes since 1928-1933. Military Secretary to Lord Brabourne, 1933. *Address:* Government House, Bombay.

VAZIFDAR, LIEUT-COLONEL SOHRAB SHAPOORJEE, M.R.C.P. (Lond), M.R.C.S. (Eng.), I.M.S, J.P., Professor of Medicine, Grant Medical College; Senior Physician and Superintendent, J. J. Hospital; Superintendent, B. J. Hospital for Children, Bombay. *b.* 1 August 1883. *m.* to Mary Hormusji Wadia *Educ:* Grant Medical College, Bombay; St. Bartholomew's Hospital, London. Entered I. M. S. in 1908. During the Great War served in German E. Africa and subsequently in South Persia and Mesopotamia. Appointed Professor of Pathology, Grant Medical College, in 1923; Second Physician, J. J. Hospital and Professor of Materia Medica, Grant Medical College in April 1923; First Physician, J. J. Hospital and Professor of Medicine, G. M.

College in 1925; and Superintendent, J. J. Hospital in 1926. *Address*: 3, Rocky Hill Flats, Land's End Road, Malabar Hill, Bombay.

VELINKER, SHRIKRISHNA GUNAJI, B.A., LL.B. (Bombay), J.P. (1903); Holder of Certificate of Honour, Council of Legal Education, Trinity (1909); of the Honourable Society of Lincoln's Inn; Bar-at-Law, Trinity, (1909). *b.* 12 April. 1868. *m.* to Prabhavatibai, *d.* of Rao Bahadur Makund Ramchander, Executive Engr., Bombay. *Educ.*: St. Xavier's College, Bombay. Enrolled as pleader, High Court, Bombay, in January 1893; called to the Bar in June 1909. In prominent practice in the High Court at Bombay and criminal courts of the Presidency. One of the Commissioners appointed under the Defence of India Act to try culprits in Ahmedabad and Viramgam arson and murder cases, 1919; President, Tribunal of Appeal under City of Bombay Improvement Act, Sept. 1921 to April 1923. Elected Member, Bombay Bar Council, since 1931. Secry., P.J. Hindu Gymkhana, 1897-1908. *Publications:* Law of Gaming and Wagering and the Law of Compulsory Land Acquisition and Compensation. *Address*: Ratan House, 425, Lamington Road (South), Bombay.

VENKATA, REDDI, SIR KURMA, Kt., B.A., Member of the Executive Council, Madras Government. *b.* 1875. *m.* R. Laxmi Kantamma. *Educ.*: Arts College, Rajahmundry, Madras Christian College, and Madras Law College. Led the non-Brahmin deputation to the Joint Parliamentary Committee on Indian Constitutional Reforms in 1919; Member of the Imperial Legislative Council, 1920; Minister of Agriculture and Industries to the Madras Government, 1920-23; Member of the Madras Legislative Council, 1920-26; Member of the Senate of the Madras University, 1924-26; Member of the Syndicate of the Andhra University, 1924-26; appointed Indian Delegate to the League Assembly at Geneva, 1928, and Agent to the Government of India in S. Africa, 1929-32; Member of Executive Council of the Governor of Madras, 1934. *Address*: Secretariat, Madras.

VENKATASUBBA RAO, THE HON. MR. JUSTICE M., B.A., B.L., Judge, High Court, Madras. *b.* 18 July 1878. *Educ.*: Free Church Mission Institution, Madras Christian College and Madras Law College. Was enrolled High Court Vakil in 1903; Practised from 1903-1921 in partnership with Mr. V. Radhakrishnaiya under the firm name of Messrs. Venkatasubba Rao and Radhakrishnaiya. Had a large and leading practice on the Original Side of the High Court. Election Commissioner, 1921-22; apptd. to the High Court Bench, 17 Nov. 1921: President, Annadana Samajam. The Madras Seva Sadan, and Dist. Scout Council; Vice-President, Provincial Scout Council. *Address*: Spur Tank Houses, Spur Tank Road, Egmore, P.O., Madras.

VERRIERES, ALBERT CLAUDE, C.I.E.; Joint Chief Engineer (1920), P.W.D. *m.* 1899, Mabel Blanche, *d.* of the late Francis Moore. *Educ.*: St. Peter's Coll. Agra; Thomason Civil Engineering Coll., Roorkee. Ent. P. W. D., 1893, Under-Secy. to Govt., P. W. D., Naini Tal, 1911-14; Exe. Eng., Dehra Dun, 1915-16; Supdtg. Eng., 1916-18; Sanitary Eng., 1918-19; Offg. Chief Engineer, United Provinces, 1920-21. *Address*: "Dar-ul-Shafa", Lucknow.

VIEIRA DE CASTRO, MOST REV. THEOTONIUS MANOEL RIBEIRO, D.D., D.C.L.; R. C. Bishop of San Thome de Mylapore, since 1899-1929; Archbishop of Goa and Patriarch of the East Indies since 1929. *b.* Oporto, 1859. *Educ.*: Gregorian Uni., Rome. *Address*: Nova Goa.

VIJAYARAGHAVACHARYA, DIWAN BAHADUR SIR T., K.B.E. (1926); Vice-Chairman, Imperial Council of Agricultural Research from 1929. *b.* August 1875. *Educ.*: Presidency College, Madras. Joined Provincial Service, 1898; Revenue Officer, Madras Corporation, from 1912 to 1917; Secretary to the Board of Revenue, 1917-18; Director of Land Records, 1918; Deputy Director of Industries, 1918-19; Diwan of Cochin. 1919-32; Collector and District Magistrate, 1920; Commissioner for India, British Empires Exhibition, 1922-25; Member, Legislative Assembly, 1925-26; Director of Industries, 1926; also Director of Fisheries, 1926; opened Canadian National Exhibition, August 1926; Member, Public Service Commission, 1926-29. *Address*: Simla.

VIRA-VALA, DARBAR SHRI, Political Secretary, Rajkot State since October 1931. *b.* 29 January, 1888. *Educ.*: at Rajkumar College, Rajkot. Wing Master, Rajkumar College; Adviser to the Thakore Saheb, Chuda, Deputy Political Agent, Palanpur; Manager, Lathi State; Dewan, Porbandar State; Dewan, Junagadh State; District Deputy Political Agent, Rewa Kantha, up to 1st April 1927; Huzur Personal Assistant to His Highness the Thakore Saheb of Rajkot up to October 1931. *Address:* Bagasra, Kathiawar.

VISVESVARAYA, SIR MOKSHAGUNDUM, K.C.I.E., LL.D., D.Sc., M.I.C.E., late Dewan of Mysore. *b.* 15 Sept. 1861. *Educ.*: Central Coll., Bangalore, and Coll. of Science, Poona. Asst. Engineer, P.W.D., Bombay, 1884; Supdt. Eng., 1904; retired from Bombay Govt. Service, 1908. Apptd. Sp. Consulting Eng. to Nizam's Govt., 1909; Ch. Eng. and Sec., P.W. and Ry. Depts., Govt. of Mysore, 1909; Dewan of Mysore, 1912-1918. Chairman, Bombay Technical and Industrial Education Committee (appointed by the Government of Bombay), 1921-22; Member, New Capital Enquiry Committee, Delhi, 1922; Retrenchment Adviser to the Bombay Municipal Corporation, 1924; Chairman, Indian Economic Enquiry Committee (appointed by the Government of India), 1925; Member, Bombay Back Bay Inquiry Committee (appointed by the Government of India), 1926. Toured round the world in 1919-20 and has also otherwise travelled extensively. *Publication*: "Recon-

structing India" (P. S. King & Son, Ltd., London). *Address:* Uplands, High Ground, Bangalore.

WACHA, SIR DINSHA EDULJI, Kt., J.P., a Governor of the Imperial Bank of India (1920); Member, Bombay Leg. Council (1915-16) and of Imperial Leg. Council, 1916-20. Member, Council of State (1920); Member of the firm of Messrs. Morarji Goculdas & Co., Agents, Morarji Gokuldas S. & W. Co., Ltd. and Sholapur S. & W. Co., Ltd., 1892-1931, ex-Director, The Central Bank of India, Director, Berar Co. (1928) and Ex-Director, the Scindia Navigation Company. *b.* 2 Aug. 1844. *m.* 1860, but widower since August 1888. *Educ:* Elphinstone Coll., Bombay; in Cotton Industry, since 1874; for 30 years Bombay Mun-Corpn. (President, 1901-02); for 44 years, Mem., Bombay Millowners' Association Committee since 1889 and President in 1917 and member, Bombay Imp. Trust since its formation in 1898 up to 1919; Pres. of 17th National Congress, Calcutta, 1901; and of Belgaum Prov. Conference, 1894; gave evidence before Royal Commission on Indian expenditure in 1897; Trustee of Elphinstone Coll.; also ex-Chairman, Indian Merchants' Chamber and Bureau; was Gen. Sec., Indian National Congress for 17 years from 1894; Trustees of Vic. Jubilee Technical Institute since 1902 and Hon. Sec. from 1909 to 1923; President, Western India Liberal Association from 1919-27. Was Secretary, Bombay Presidency Association from 1885 to 1915 and President from 1915 to 1918. Was President of the First Bombay Provincial Liberal Conference in 1922; is Chairman and Trustee of People's Free Reading Room and Library since 1917. *Publications:* Pamphlets on Indian Finance, Currency and Economics, Agricultural Condition of India, Railways, Currency, Temperance, Military Expenditure, etc.; formerly large contributor to leading Indian newspapers and journals for 45 years from 1875; also had published History of Share Speculation of 1863-64; Life of Premchand Roychand; Life of J. N. Tata; the Rise and Growth of the Bombay Municipal Government, four papers on Indian Commerce and Statistics and My Recollections of Bombay (1860-75). *Address:* Jiji House, Ravelin Street, Fort, Bombay.

WADIA, ARDESHIR RUTTONJI, B.A. (Bom. and Cantab.), Bar-at-Law, Professor of Philosophy, University of Mysore and Secretary, Inter-University Board, India. *b.* 4 June 1888. *m.* Tehmina Homeji Postwalla. *Educ:* St. Xavier's High School and Wilson College, Bombay; at the Middle Temple, London, for Bar; at St. Catherine's, Oxford, for Diploma in Economics and Political Science (with distinction); at Fitz William Hall for Moral Science Tripos. Professor of English and Philosophy at Wilson College, Bombay, 1914; Lecturer in Psychology, University of Bombay, 1914-16. Professor of Philosophy, Mysore University since 1917. Dean of the Faculty of Arts, Mysore University, 1927-30; Offg. Director of Public Instruction in Mysore, 1930-31; President of the All-India Federation of Teachers' Associations at Patna, 1926; President, Indian Philosophical Congress at Dacca in 1930. Delegate of the Mysore University to the Fifth Congress of the Universities of the British Empire, London and Edinburgh, 1931. President, Fourth All-Karnataka Hindi Prachar Conference, 1932. Secretary, Inter-University Board since April 1932. *Publications:* The Ethics of Feminism; A Text-Book of Civics; A Handbook of Moral Instruction for Teachers; Civilisation as a Co-operative Adventure (The Principal Miller Lectures in the University of Madras 1932). Articles in Mind, Philosophical Review, Monist, International Journal of Ethics, The Journal of Philosophical Studies, The Philosophical Quarterly, The Aryan Path. Edited the Mysore University Magazine, 1928-30. *Address:* The University, Mysore.

WADIA, BOMANJI JAMSETJI, the Hon. Mr. Justice, M.A., LL.B. (Univ. of Bombay), Bar-at-Law. Judge, Bombay High Court. *b.* 4 Aug. 1881. *m.* Rattanbai Hormusji Wadia and subsequently to Perin Nowroji Chinoy of Secunderabad. *Educ:* St. Xavier's College, Bombay, and at the Inner Temple, London, for the Bar, 1904-6, was Principal, Govt. Law College, Bombay, 1919-1925. Acting Puisne Judge of the High Court of Bombay for two months from 5th June 1928, and again from January to October 1929, and from 1st Feb. to October 1930. Additional Judge, 1930-31; confirmed as Puisne Judge, High Court, in June 1931 *Address:* Quetta Terrace, Chowpatty, Bombay.

WADIA, SIR CUSROWN., Kt. (1932); C.I.E. (1919), Millowner. *b.* 1869. *Educ:* King's Coll., London. Joined his father's firm, 1888. Chairman, Bombay Millowners' Association (1918). *Address:* Pedder House, Cumballa Hill, Bombay.

WADIA, JAMSETJI ARDASEER, J.P., 1900 Merchant. *b.* 31 Oct. 1857. *Educ.:* Elphinstone Sch. and Coll. and served apprenticeship in Dickinson Akroid & Co. of London; Promotor and Director of Cotton and other industrial concerns; Member of Bombay Mun. Corpn. from 1901-1921. *Publications:* Writer on Industrial and Economic subjects: published two pamphlets against closing of the Mints. *Address:* Wilderness Road, Malabar Hill, Bombay.

WADIA, SIR NUSSERWANJI NOWROSJEE, K.R.E., C.I.E., M.I.M.E., M.I.St.E., J.P., F.C.P.S. (Hon.) Millowner *b.* 30 May 1873. *m.* Evylene Clara Powell. *Educ:* St. Xavier's College. Chairman of the Bombay Millowners' Association, 1911 and 1925. *Address:* Strachey House, Pedder Road, Bombay.

WADIA, PESTONJI ARDESHER, M. A., Professor of Philosophy and History, Wilson College, Bombay. *b.* 16 Dec. 1878. *Educ.:* Elphinstone College, Bombay. *Publications:* The Philosophers and the French Revolution: Zoroastrianism and our Spiritual Heritage; Inquiry into the Principles of Theosophy; The Wealth of India; Money and the Money Market in India, An Introduction to Ivanhoe and History of India. *Address:* Hormazd Villa, Malabar Hill, Bombay.

WALI MAHOMED HUSSANALLY, KHAN BAHADUR, B.A., LL.B., son of the late Hon'ble Khan Bahadur Hussanally Bey Effendi, Majidi, Turkish Consul and Founder of the Sind Madressah-tul-Islam, Karachi; was Member, Legislative Assembly for several years and Fellow, Bombay University; was Municipal Councillor Karachi for about 20 years; member and Chairman, Municipal and District School Board, Karachi; served as first President Shahi Jirgah, Jacobabad, for about 8 years; was President, Mulala Schools Committee; member, War League; Secretary, Sind Mahomedan Association; member, D. J. Sind College Board; has been Member, Sind Madressah Board; for about 17 years Retired Deputy Collector; is Special First Class Magistrate, since 1915; Landed Proprietor; was President of Educational Conference 1931. *b.* 5 Dec. 1860. Widower. *Educ:* Elphinstone College and Govt. Law School, Bombay. Served Govt. in various departments for 33 years; retired in 1915. *Address:* Barkat Manzil, Bunder Road Extension, Karachi.

WALKER, GEORGE LOUIS, Govt. Solicitor and Public Prosecutor, and Government Prosecutor, Bombay, *b.* 25 September, 1879, *m.* to Agnes Muriel Porter, *d.* of Col. R. S. Porter, Dy. Lieutenant for County of Lancaster. *Educ:* Liverpool College. War Service, France and Belgium, 4th Aug. 1914 to November 1919: promoted Lieut.-Col. R.F.A. Retired, 1921. Partner, Messrs. Little and Co., *Address:* Byculla Club.

WALWYN, VICE-ADMIRAL SIR HUMPHREY THOMAS, K.C.S.I., C.B., D.S.O., Flag Officer Commanding Royal Indian Marine, Bombay. *b.* 25th January 1879, 2nd *s.* of the late Col. J. Walwyn, Croft-of-Bwla Monmouth. *m.* 1912 Eileen Mary van Straubenzee; one *s. Educ.:* H.M.S. Britannia, Dartmouth. Went to sea in H. M. S. Camperdown, January 1895; qualified as Gunnery Lieut. 1904 and obtained the Egerton Memorial Prize; Gunnery Lieut. of H. M. S. Drake under Prince Louis, H.M.S. Superb, Neptune; Commander, 1912; H. M. S. Warspite, 1915-17 (D.S.O.), Capt. 1916; in command destroyer flotillas and Senior Officer, Mediterranean Destroyers, 1923; Director of Gunnery Division, Naval Staff, Admiralty, 1924-26; Naval A.D.C. to the King, 1927; Flag Officer Commanding Royal Indian Marine, Bombay, 1928; C.B. 1928; K.C.S.I. 1933. *Address:* Admiral's House, Bombay.

WATSON, HERBERT EDMESTON, D.Sc. (Lond.), F.I.C., M. I. Chem. E. Fellow of University Coll. London, Professor of General Chemistry Indian Institute of Science. *b.* 1886. *m.* 1917 Miss M. K. Rowson. *Educ.:* Marlborough Coll., London, Berlin, Geneva and Cambridge Universities. Asstt. Prof., Indian Institute of Science, 1911, apptd. Prof. of General Chemistry in 1916. *Publications:* Numerous papers on physical Chemistry and allied subjects. *Address:* Indian Institute of Science, Hebbal, Bangalore.

WAZIR HASAN, THE HON. SIR SAIYID, KT., B.A., LL.B., Chief Judge of Oudh. *Educ.:* Government High School, Balba; Muir Central College, Allahabad; M. A. O. College, Aligarh. Joined the Lucknow Bar in 1903; Secretary, All-India Moslem League from 1912-19; was instrumental in bringing about Hindu-Moslem Pact of 1916; appointed Judicial Commissioner of Oudh in 1920, and Chief Judge of Oudh, February 1930. *Address:* Wazir Hasan Road, Lucknow.

WEBB, SIR MONTAGU DE POMEROY, Kt. (1921), C.I.E., C.B.E., Member of Council of the East India Association; Vice-President Anti-Slavery and Aborigines Protection Society. Chairman, *Daily Gazette* Press Ltd., Karachi. *b.* Clifton, 1869 *m.* 1908 Catherine Frances (whom he divorced). *Educ:* Privately. Member of Indian Fiscal Committee, 1921-22; late member of the Indian Legislative Assembly and late Chairman, Karachi Chamber of Commerce. *Publications:* Britain Victorious; India and The Empire; Britain's Dilemma; Around the World, etc. *Address:* Karachi.

WEIR, LIENT.-COLONEL JAMES LESLIE ROSE, C.I.E. (1933); Agent to Governor-General for the Gujarat States and Resident at Baroda. *b.* 29 Jan. 1883. *m.* Thyra Letitia Alexandra Sommers. *Educ:* Wellingborough and Royal Military Academy, Woolwich. Joined Royal Artillery, 1900; transferred to Indian Army (5th Cavalry), 1904; joined Political Department, 1908; has been H.B.M's Consul at Kermanshah and Shiraz; Resident in Kashmir; Political Officer of Sikkim, Tibet and Bhutan,' and Resident at Baroda. *Address:* The Residency, Baroda.

WESTCOTT, RT. REV. F., *see* Calcutta, Bishop of.

WHEELER, THOMAS SHERLOCK, Ph. D. (Lond.), B.Sc. (Lond.); F.I.C., F.R.C.Sc.I., F. Inst. P. A.M.I. Chem. Eng. J.P. Principal and Professor of Organic Chemistry, Royal Institute of Science, Bombay. *b.* 30 April 1899. *m.* Una Brigid, *d.* of the late John Sherlock, B.A. *Educ:* O'Connell School, Dublin and the Royal College of Science, Dublin. Demonstrator in Organic Chemistry, Royal Technical College, Glasgow; Research Chemist at the Royal Naval Cordite Factory, Dorsetshire and at the Research Department, Woolwich Arsenal, London; Senior Research Chemist with Imperial Chemical Industries Ltd. *Publications:* about 50 research papers and 20 patents on chemical subjects; two text-books, "Systematic Organic Chemistry" and "Physico-Chemical Methods." Also translations into English of some German text-books. *Address:* Royal Institute of Science, Mayo Road, Bombay.

WHITE, MAJOR FREDERICK NORMAN, C.I.E., M.D.; Asst. Dir.-Gen., I.M.S. (Sanitary) 1914; Sanitary Commsr., Govt. of India, Simla. *Address:* c/o Grindlay & Co., Bombay.

WHITTAKER, HARRY, CAPTAIN, late R.E., B.Sc., A.R.C.Sc., A.M.Inst.C.E., A.M.I. Mech.E., A.M.I.E.E., M.Soc. Ing. Civ. de France., M. of Council Jun. Inst. Eng., Principal, The Maclagan Engineering College, Lahore. *b.* 23rd Feb. 1879. *m. d.* of John Siddall. *Educ:* Bury and Royal College of Sc., London. With J. H. Riley & Co., Engineers, Bury; Jackson Bros., Bolton; Demonstrator in Mathematics and Mechanics under Prof. John Perry in the Royal Coll. of Science, London; University Lecturer in Engineer, City and Guilds (Eng.), College, South Kensington; Head of Engineering Dept., Wandsworth Technical Inst.; R. E. Vols. and Terr., 1902 to 1914; Joined regular Army December, 1914; Comm. March 1915; with the 13th Corps in France 1916-19. Joined present Indian appointment March, 1923. *Publications:* Papers on Hydro-Electric Work, pub. I.M.E., & J.I.E. *Address:* The Maclagan Engineering College, Lahore.

WHITTY, JOHN TARLTON, C.S.I. (1932); C.I.E., I.C.S., Member of Executive Council, Bihar and Orissa. *Educ:* Clifton Coll., New Coll., Oxford; Univ. Coll., London. Was Asst. Magistrate and Collector; Transferred to Bihar and Orissa in 1912; Manager, Bettiah Wards Estate, 1916; appointed Commissioner in 1925; Temporary Member of Executive Council in 1929. *Address:* Patna, Bihar and Orissa.

WHITWORTH, CHARLES STANLEY, C.I.E. (1927). Chief Mining Engineer to the Government of India (Railway Department). *b.* 14th June 1880. *m.* Mabel Webb of Bray, 1932. Attached to Mining Department, North Western Railway, 1909-12; Asst. Coal Superintendent, Indian State Railways, 1913-14; service lent to G. I. P. Railway, 1914-17; officiated as Mining Engineer and Technical Adviser to Coal Controller 1918-20; Appointed Chief Mining Engineer, Railway Board, 1921; Member, Indian Coal Committee, 1925; President, Indian Coal GradingBoard, 1927-33; President, Indian Soft Coke Cess Committee, 1929-33. *Address:* Bengal Club, Calcutta; Oriental Club, London.

WIGRAM, GENERAL SIR KENNETH, K.C.B. (1930); C.S.I. (1921); C.B.E. (1919); D.S.O. (1917); Aide-de-Camp General to H. M. the King (1933); Belgian Order of the Crown; Belgian War Cross; Legion of Honour; Order of the Crown of Siam; General Officer Commanding-in-Chief, Northern Command. *b.* 5th December 1875. *Educ:* Winchester, Sandhurst. Served N. W. Frontier, 1897-98, Tirah, 1897-98. N. W. Frontier (Waziristan), 1901-02. Tibet (March to Lhasa), 1903-04. European War, 1914-18. Director of Staff Duties Army Headquarters, India, 1919-21; Commander, Delhi Brigade Area, 1922-24; Deputy Adjutant and Quartermaster General, Northern Command, India, 1924-26; Commander of the Waziristan District, 1926-29; Chief of the General Staff, India, 1931-34; General Officer Commanding-in-Chief, Northern Command, India, May 1934. *Address:* Headquarters, Northern Command, India, Rawalpindi/Murree.

WILBERFORCE-BELL, LIEUT. COLONEL HAROLD, C.I.E., Foreign and Political Department, Government of India; Agent to the Governor-General for the Deccan States and Resident at Kolhapur. *b.* 17 Nov. 1885. *m.* Margaret, *d.* of late Capt. Michael Festing, formerly of the 20th Regiment (The Lancashire Fusiliers). *Educ:* Ellesmere College, Shropshire, and Pembroke College, Oxford, Gazetted to The Connaught Rangers, 1905; transferred to Indian Army 1908 and to Political Department, 1909; returned to the Army for the period of the War and saw active service in France and India; Was Asst. Mil. Secretary to Commander-in-Chief in India, 1918-19; has served in Political Department in Western India, Central India, Punjab and the Deccan; was Dy. Secretary to Government of Bombay in Political Department in 1920; Dy. Political Secretary to Government of India, 1928-1930; and Ag. Political Secretary to Government of India in 1930. *Publications:* "The History of Kathiawar"; "Some Translations from the Marathi Poets"; "A Grammatical Treatise of the Marathi Language"; "War Vignettes;" and other monographs and articles in various periodicals. *Address:* The Residency, Kolhapur (Deccan).

WILES, GILBERT, M.A. (Cantab.), C.I.E. (1926); C. S.I. (1931). *b.* 25 March 1880. *m.* Winifred Mary Pryor. *Educ.:* Perse Schoo; and S. Cath. College, Cambridge. Joined I.C.S. in India, 1904; Asst. Collector and Asst. Political Agent; Supdt., Land Records, 1910; Asst. Collr. and Collector 1916-17; Chairman, Cotton Contracts Board, 1918-1920; Deputy Secretary, Home Department, 1921-22; Secy. General Department, 1923; Secy., Finance Department, from 1923-32; President, Bombay Art Society, 1926-32; Member, Indian Tariff Board, Sept. 1933. *Address:* Secretariat, Bombay.

WILKINSON, HECTOR RUSSELL, B.A., C.I.E. (1927); I.C.S., Secretary, Education Department, Government of Bengal. *b.* March 11, 1888. *m.* Theodora Daintree. *Educ.:* Clifton and Queen's College, Oxford. Entered Indian Civil Service in 1912 and posted to Bengal. Private Secretary to H. E. the Governor of Bengal, 1922-27. *Address:* United Service Club, Calcutta.

WILKINSON, SYDNEY ARTHUR, M.R.C.S. (Eng.), L.R.C.P. (Lond.), D.T.M., and D.T.H. (Liverpool, Uni.); Medical Officer, B. B. & C. I. Rly. Co., Ajmer. *b.* 17 March 1881. *m.* Dorothy Neave Kingsbury, 1915. *Educ.:* City of London School, Queen's Coll., Taunton, and St. Thomas' Hospital, London. Fellow of the Royal Society of Tropical Medicine and Hygiene (1922); A Serving Brother of the Venerable Order of St. John of Jerusalem (1930); Hon. Magte., Ajmer-Merwara; was Vice-Chairman, Ajmer Municipality, and President, Rajputana Branch of the European Association. *Publications:* "A Malaria Survey of Ajmer City 1930". *Address:* Ajmer.

WILLIAMS, George Bransby, M. Inst. C. E., M. I. Mech. E., F. R. San. I., F.R.G.S., Member of Council, Institution of Engineers (India), late Chief Engineer, Public Health Department, Bengal; Consulting Engineer, Member of firm of Williams and Temple. *b.* 7 April 1872; *m.* Dorothy Maud, *d.* of E. Thorp of Cheadle Hulme, Cheshire. *Educ.:* Clifton. Articled to Mr. James Mansergh, F.R.S., P. Pres. Inst. C.E., 1891; Asst. on York Main Drainage Works, Birmingham Waterworks; Resident Engineer-in-Charge, Whitby Waterworks; Served S. Africa, 1900-01, Railway Staff Officer; Asst. District Engineer, Imperial Military Railways; Pers. Asstt. to Mr. G. R. Strachan, Inst. C.E., 1902-06, Croydon Waterworks, Shrewsbury Waterworks; Consulting Engineer to Colonial Office, 1906-08; Nairobi Drainage and Waterworks. Naivasha, Nakuru and Zanzibar sanitation; designed Sketty Sewerage Works, &c., Sanitary Engineer, Bengal (1909); designed nearly 200 schemes of water supply, drainage and sewerage of which about 80 have been carried out including Jberia, Gaya, Hooghly, Chinsurah, Kallimpong, Serampore, Monghyr, Comilla, Raneegunge, Midnapore, Suri and Cooch-Behar waterworks, Gaya. Burdwan, Dacca, Kurseong and Tittaghur main drainage schemes. *Publications:* Sewage disposal in India and the East; Elementary Sanitary Engineering (three editions); Practical Sanitary Engineering; Modern Sewage Disposal, R. E. Journal, 1909, "Rainfall of Wales," Geographical Journal, 1909; Flood discharge and Spillways in India, "Engineer," 1922; Recent Progress in Sanitary Engineering in Bengal; Public Health in India "XIXth Century" February 1928, &c. *Address:* 28 Victoria Street, Westminster S. W. 30 Hill Street, S. W. Tower House, Calcutta; and United Service Club, Calcutta.

WILLIAMS, Capt. Herbert Armstrong, D.S.O., I.M.S.; Resident Medical Officer, Rangoon General Hospital, since 1907. *b.* 11 Feb. 1875. *Address:* General Hospital, Rangoon.

WILLIAMSON, Sir Horace, Kt. (1934); C.I.E. (1922); M.B.E. (1919); Director, Intelligence Bureau, Government of India *b.* July 16, 1880. *m.* Joan Emma Doran Holtz. *Educ.:* Cheltenham College. Joined Indian Police, United Provinces, 1900; Superintendent, 1913; Assistant to Inspector-General, 1917; Secretary, Indian Disorders Inquiry Committee, 1919-20; Deputy Inspector-General, 1923; Officiating Inspector-General, 1928; Director, Intelligence Bureau, Home Department, Govt. of India, 1931. *Address:* New Delhi and Simla.

WILLINGDON, 1st Earl of, *cr.* 1931, **1st Viscount,** *cr.* 1924; **1st Baron of Ratton.** *cr.* 1910; **Freeman Freeman-Thomas,** G.M.S.I. (1931); G.M.I.E. (1931); G.C.M.G. (1926); G.B.E. (1917); Viceroy and Governor-General of India, 1931. *b.* 12 Sept. 1866. *s.* of Frederick Freeman Thomas and Mabel; *d.* of 1st Viscount Hampden; *m.* 1892. Hon. Marie Adelaide (C.I., G.B.E., *cr.* 1924)., *d.* of 1st Earl Brassey; one son. A.D.C. to Lord Brassey when Governor of Victoria, 1895; M.P. (L.) Hastings, 1900-1906; Bodmin Division of Cornwall, 1906-1910. Junior Lord of Treasury, 1905-1912; J.P.; Governor of Bombay, 1913-1919; of Madras, 1919-1924; was present as Delegate for India at the Assembly of the League of Nations, 1924; Chairman of the Delegation from the Boxer Indemnity Committee which visited China, Jan.-July, 1926; Major, Sussex Imperial Yeomanry; Lord-in-Waiting to H.M. the King; Governor-General of Canada, 1926-1931; appointed Governor-General and Viceroy of India, 1931. *Address:* The Viceroy's House, New Delhi and Viceregal Lodge, Simla.

WILLIS, Col. Sir George Henry, Kt. (1928), C.I.E. (1918), M.V.O. (4th) 1911, M.I. Mech. E., M.I.E. (Ind.) Master Security Printing India. *b.* 21 Oct. 1875; *Educ.:* St. Paul's Sch., London: R. M. A., Woolwich; R.E., 1895; Major, 1914, Lt.-Col., 1921; Col., 1925. Arrived India, 1900: Deputy Mint Master, 1907; Master of the Mint, October 1915 to February 1926. Past President of Council Institution of Engineers (Ind.), *m.* 1900. 3 daughters. *Address:* Caxton House, Nasik Road, G. I. P. Railway.

WILLMOT, Roger Boulton, H. M. Trade Commissioner at Calcutta. *b.* 16 Oct. 1892. *Educ.:* Berkhamsted. In business in London 1911-1915. Joined Royal Naval Volunteer Reserve in 1915; transferred to Army with a commission in R. G. A. (S.R.) in July 1916; in Government service in London, 1920-1924. *Address:* Bengal Club, Calcutta.

WINGATE Ronald Evelyn Leslie, C.I.E. B.A. I.C.S., Offg. Political Secretary, Government of India. *b.* 30th Septr. 1889. *Educ.:* at Bradfield and Balliol College, Oxford Arrived in India 1913 and served in the Punjab as Asst. Commissioner; transferred to Delhi as City Magistrate, 1916; special duty on staff of Lieutenant-Governor, Punjab, 1917; special duty under Civil Commissioner of Occupied Territories, Mesopotamia, 1917; Political Agent and H. M.'s Consul at Maskat, 1919; special assistant to Resident in Kashmir, 1921; Political Agent and H. M.'s Consul, Maskat, 1923; Secretary to Agent to Governor-General in Rajputana, September 1924; ditto Baluchistan, 1927; Political Agent and Deputy Commissioner, Quetta-Pishin, 1928; Political Agent, Sibi, 1931; Deputy Secretary to the Government of India, Foreign and Political Department, 1932; Officiating Secretary, October 1932. *Address:* Government of India, Delhi and Simla.

WINTERBOTHAM, Geoffrey Leonard, B.A. (Cantab.). Merchant, Partner, Messrs. Wallace & Co. *b.* 7 Oct. 1889. *m.* Hilda, youngest *d.* of D. Norton, C.S.I. *Educ.:* Malvern Coll. and Magdalene Coll., Cambridge. Business in India since 1912; apptd. Consul for Siam at Bombay, 1926; Member, Legislative Council, Bombay, 1926-27; Vice-President, Bombay Chamber of Commerce, 1927. President, Bombay Chamber of Commerce, 1929.

President, Associated Chambers of Commerce of India and Ceylon, 1929. Member, Legislative Assembly, 1929. *Address*: Monte Rosa, Dady Sett Hill, Bombay 6.

WOODHEAD, JOHN ACKROYD, THE HON. MR. B.A., B.Sc., C.I.E. (1931); Finance Member, Government of Bengal. *b.* 19 June 1881. *m.* Alice Mary Wadsworth. *Educ.*: Bradford Grammar School, Xian College, Cambridge. Entered Indian Civil Service, 1904; Asst. Magistrate and Collector, Mymensingh; Sub-Divisional Officer, Harlakandi, 1905-6; Joint Magte., Chittagong, 1908-09; Magistrate and Collector, 1909-10; Magistrate and Collector, Faridpur, 1911-15; Magistrate and Collector, Mymensingh, 1916-17; Addl. Judge, Alipur, 1917-18; First Land Acquisition Collector, Calcutta Improvement Trust, 1918-22; Offg. Chairman, Improvement Trust, 1919-20; Financial Secretary, Government of Bengal, 1924-27; Joint Secretary, Commerce Department, Govt. of India, 1927-28; Secretary, Commerce Department, Government of India, 1928-33; Officiating Commerce Member, Government of India, 1931; Represented Government of India on Burma Round Table Conference; Finance Member, Government of Bengal, 1932. *Address*: Writer's Buildings, Calcutta.

YAIN, THE HON. SIR LEE AH. K·i·H., Bar-at-Law, M. L.C., Ex-President, Rangoon Corporation, Fellow of Rangoon University, Minister of Forests. *b.* April 1874, *Educ.*: Rangoon College and Cambridge. *Address*: Rangoon Secretariat, Rangoon.

ZAFRULLAKHAN, CHAUDHURI MUHAMMAD, B.A. (Honours) Punjab, LL.B. (Honours) London; Barrister-at-Law (Lincoln's Inn). *b.* 6 Feb. 1893. *m.* Badrun Nissa Begam, eldest *d.* of the late Mr. S. A. Khan, I.C.S. (Bihar and Orissa). *Educ.*: Government College, Lahore; King's College, and Lincoln's Inn, London. Advocate, Sialkot, Punjab, 1914-16; practised in Lahore High Court, 1916-31; Editor, "Indian Cases," 1916-32; Law Lecturer, Univ. Law College, Lahore, 1919-1924; Member, Punjab Legis. Council, 1916-1932; Member, Punjab Provincial Reforms Committee; Delegate, Indian Round Table Conference, 1930 and 1931; Member, Consultative Committee; President, All-India Muslim League, 1931; Crown Counsel, Delhi Conspiracy Case, March 1931 or June, 1932. Member of the Governor-General's Executive Council, 1932. *Publications*: "Indian Cases"; the Criminal Law Journal of India; Reprints of Punjab Criminal Ruling Vol. IV; and Fifteen Years' Digest. *Address*: Turner Road, Lahore.

WHO'S WHO

AMONG

INDIAN PRINCES CHIEFS

AND

NOBLES

1934-35

SHRIMANT VIJAYASINHRAO FATTESINHRAO RAJE BHOSLE, Raje Saheb of Akalkot.

Born: 1915.

Is a minor, 18 years old.

Passed the Diploma Examination of the Rajkumar College, Rajkot, and attended for some time the Deccan College, Poona, and is at present receiving general education.

Area of State: 498 square miles.

Population: 92,605.

Capital Town: Akalkot (Sholapur District).

The State for the purposes of administration is divided into a Taluka—Akalkot—and two Pethas—Piliv and Kurla. Owing to minority the State is at present administered by the Dowager Rani Saheb Tarabai as Regent with the help of a Government Adviser and exercises wide powers as Regent.

Judicial: An independent High Court Bench established in 1931.

Educational: Primary education free to backward and depressed classes and girls of all castes and creeds. Free secondary education to girls. Scholarships and freeships for secondary and higher education.

Local Self-Government: Municipality at Akalkot and Taluka District Local Board.

General: A New Water Works Scheme costing 8 lakhs, a new Girls' School costing Rs. 30,000 and many other improvements are in hand. State's Reserve Balance Rs. 17,52,090 earmarked for programmes of public works and needs of the Raje Saheb's family.

Government Adviser: RAO BAHADUR A. N. PRADHAN, B.A. He is also on the High Court Bench.

Dewan: MR. V. B. PARULEKAR, B.A. He is also the District and Sessions Judge.

Chief Police Officer: RAO BAHADUR S. R. JAGDALE.

THAKORE SHREE KESHRISINHJI the present Thakore Saheb of Ambaliara is aged about 47 years and completed the Silver Jubilee of his reign in the month of May 1933. The rulers of Ambaliara State are Chowhan Rajputs, tracing their direct descent from Rajputs of Sambhar or Ajmer.

The State was acquired by the valour of the ancestors of the present Chief, during the reign of Aurangzeb (1658 to 1707) and they were famous for the heroic resistance they made more than once to the Gaikwar's troops. The State is entitled to receive tributes in the nature of Ghasdana and Giras Haks from various States as also from the British Treasury.

The State comprises of 36 villages covering an approximate area of 67 square miles, *Population :* nearly 11,000, *Revenue :* of Rs. 96,000.

The State possesses Civil Powers to decide suits upto Rs. 10,000, and Criminal Powers of giving imprisonment upto 2 years and fine upto Rs. 5,000.

Owing to recent changes, the State has been brought under the direct control of the Government of India along with the other Mahi Kantha States.

At present the Thakore Saheb has three sons, the eldest of whom Dada Saheb *alias* Sardarsinhji, is getting his educational training at the Scott College, Sadra.

Primary education is imparted free throughout the State and Medical Relief is also given free to the State people.

Chief Officers of the State :—

(1) K. S. TAKHATSINHJI JALAMSINHJI, *Chief Karbhari and Revenue Officer.*

(2) Mr. THAKORLAL C. DESAI, *Nyayadhish.*

(3) Mr. LAXMANSINH D. CHOWHAN, *Chief Medical Officer.*

RAJA SHRI KISHORE CHANDRA-DEO, Ruling Chief of the Athmallik State, Orissa.

Born: November 10th, 1904.

Succeeded to the Gadi: On the 3rd November 1918. Was invested with full Ruling powers on the 24th December 1925.

Educated: At the Rajkumar College, Raipur, (C.P.)

Married: In 1923, Srimati Lakshmi Priya Devi, the daughter of the Chief of Keonjhar, (Orissa), who died in 1927. Married second time in 1929, Srimati Srimanta Manjori Devi, a princess belonging to the illustrious Bhanja House of Mayurbhanj, (Orissa).

Area of the State: 711 square miles.
Population: 64,274.
Revenue: Rs. 2,10,000.

CHIEF EXECUTIVE OFFICER.

Diwan & Sessions Judge: MR. B. MISRA, B.A.

OTHER PRINCIPAL OFFICERS.

Assistant Diwan: MR. S. MOHANTY, M.A., B.L.
Forest Officer: MR. B. K. JOSHI.
Engineer: MR. B. C. MOHANTY, B.E.
Revenue Officer: MR. K. C. MISRA, B.A.
Domestic Devottar & Khamar—Manager: MR. K. M. HOTA.
Mutation Officer & Office Superintendent: MR. K. C. TEJ.
Chief Medical Officer: DR. T. GHOSE.

SHRIMANT BHAVANRAO SHRINIWASRAO *alias* BALASAHEB PANT PRATINIDHI, the Ruler of Aundh, is a graduate of the Bombay University and a treaty Chief. His age is 65 and is married to Shrimati Saubhagyawati Ramabai Saheb *alias* Maisaheb from the Rode family of Poona.

Heir-Apparent: SHRIMANT BHAGWANTRAO *alias* BAPUSAHEB is 14 years of age.

Shrimant Pantsaheb is alive to the rapid progress going on in the civilized world. A Legislative Assembly was established in the State in 1924. Its strength consists of 39 members with a predominating popular element. The notable feature of the Assembly is that it includes two female members. The Assembly is competent to discuss any subject and pass resolutions without restrictions, while the Annual Budget is passed item by item.

By the Aundh State Act passed in 1931 a Darbar has been formed to run on the administration. It is a miniature executive council and consists of the Dewan of Aundh and the High Court Judge. An elected representative of the people is to be a member of the Darbar from 1935. He takes considerable interest in Rural Uplift and has been making vigorous efforts in that direction.

Shrimant Pantsaheb is a keen student of drawing and painting and has edited Picture Verul, Pictorial Ajanta, Pictorial Ramayana and life of Shivaji in three picture volumes. He also takes great interest in physical exercise and has written in English a book on the subject called "The Surya Namaskaras."

The State possesses an independent High Court. Most of the villages have got Village Panchayats.

MAJOR HIS HIGHNESS RUKUND-DAULA, NUSRAT-I-JANG MUKHLISUD-DAULA, HAFIZUL-MULK NAWAB SIR SADIQ MOHAMED KHAN SAHIB BAHADUR ABBASI V, F.C.I.E., K.C.S.I., K.C.V.O, Nawab Ruler of Bahawalpur.

Born: in 1904. Succeeded in 1907. *Educated:* in Aitchison Chief's College, Lahore. *Married:* in 1921. Invested with full Ruling powers in 1924. A member of the Standing Committee of Indian Princes Chamber. A.D.C. to Prince of Wales during his Indian tour, 1921. Hony. Major in the 21st K.G.O., Central India Horse. Visited Europe and England, 1913-14, 1924, 1931, 1932 and 1933. Received by King Emperor on each occasion.

Largest Mohammedan State in the Punjab. Direct descendant of Abbaside Kaliphs of Baghdad and Cairo. *Heir:* SAHIBZADA MOHAMMED ABBAS KHAN SAHIB BAHADUR.

Area: 22,000 square miles.

Population: 1,000,000

Revenue: Rs. 85 lakhs.

Salute: 17 guns.

CABINET.

Prime Minister.

IZZAT NISHAN IMADUL-MULK, RAISUL-WUZRA KHAN BAHADUR MR. NABI BAKHSH MOHAMMED HUSAIN, M.A., LL.B., C.I.E., Bo.-C.S.

P. W. & Revenue Minister.

MR. C. A. H. TOWNSEND, C.I.E., I.C.S.

Minister for Law & Justice.

LIEUT.-COLONEL MAQBOOL HASSAN KUREISHY, M.A., LL.B.

Home Minister.

UMDAT-UL-UMARA AMINE-UL-MULK SARDAR HAJI MOHAMMED AMIR KHAN.

Army Minister.

MAJOR-GENERAL SAHIBZADA HAJEE MOHAMMED DILAWAR KHAN ABBASI, C.A.O., C.H.O.

Minister for Commerce.

DIWAN SUKHA NAND.

NAWAB MIR FAZLE ALI KHAN BAHADUR, the present Ruler of Banganapalle, the only Muslim State in South India.

Born: 1901.

Installed on the Masnad of his ancestors on the 6th July 1922.

Educated: At St. George Grammar School, Hyderabad, Deccan. The Newington Institution, Madras, and the Mayo College, Ajmere. Passed the Diploma Examination in 1920.

Married: The only daughter of his paternal uncle, Nawab Mir Asad Ali Khan Bahadur in 1924.

After the death of his first Begam Sahiba in the year 1928, the Nawab Sahib Bahadur re-married in the year 1930, a lady from the family of Nawab Salar Jung Bahadur.

Recreation: Polo, Tennis and Cricket.

The Ruler exercises full control over the administration of the State. During the short period of his rule, the present Nawab Sahib Bahadur has given practical proof of his keen interest in every branch of the administration and is striving hard to do everything that can be done for the welfare of his loving subjects. The Nawab Sahib Bahadur is a member of the Chamber of Princes.

Heir-Apparent: NAWAB MIR GHULAM ALI KHAN BAHADUR. Born 12th October 1925.

Salute: 9 guns. *Area of the State:* 275 square miles.

Population: 40,000. *Annual Revenue:* Rs. 4 lakhs.

There are diamond deposits in the State, also copper and coal mines. The chief food grain is cholum.

PRINCIPAL OFFICERS.

Dewan.

KHAN BAHADUR MOULVI MAHAMMED HABIBULLA KHAN SAHIB, B.A.

Munsiff: KHAZI GHULAM MAHAMOOD SAHIB.

Tahsildar: SYED IMAM SAHIB, B.A.

Magistrate: SYED ALI NAQUI SAHIB.

HIS HIGHNESS MAHARAWALJI SHREE INDRASINHJI PRATAPSINHJI, Ruler of the Bansda State in Gujarat, belongs to the Solanki clan of Rajputs and traces his descent from Sidhraj Jaysinh, the famous and illustrious Emperor of Gujarat in the twelfth century.

Born : 16th February 1888.
Educated : at the Rajkumar College, Rajkot.
Accession to Gadi : 11th November 1911.
Married : A. S. Shreemati Anandkunverba Sahiba, daughter of Raolji Shree of Mansa.
Clubs : Willingdon Club, Bombay; Hindu Gymkhana, Bombay; Shree Digvir Club, Bansda.

Heir : YUVRAJ SHREE DIGVIRENDRASINHJI SAHIB, born on the 1st October 1927.
Area of State : 215 Square Miles. *Population :* 48,807.
Revenue : Rs. 7,58,538. *Salute :* 9 Guns.
His Highness is a member of the Chamber of Princes in his own right.

RELATIVES.

Brother : RAJKUMAR SHREE PRAVINSINHJI.
Nephews : K. S. NARENDRASINHJI, K. S. GNANSHYAMSINHJI, K. S. VIKRAMSINHJI, K. S. BHUPENDRASINHJI, K. S. PRADUMANSINHJI, K. S. NRUPENDRASINHJI.

PRINCIPAL OFFICERS.

Dewan : H. P. BUCH, B.A., LL.B.
Chief Medical Officer : DR. V. B. MOHILE, L.M.&S.
Private Secretary : MR. G. I. PUROHIT.
Palace Physician : DR. B. L. TRIVEDI, M.B.B.S., D.T.M.
Nyayadhish : R. M. PUROHIT, B.A., LL.B.
Revenue Officer : MR. V. K MOHILE.
Treasury Officer : MR. T. B. UPADHYAY.
Head Master, Shri Pratap High School : T. P. BUCH, B.A.
Forest Officer : B. H. UPADHYAY, D.D.R.
Police Superintendent : MR. H. B. DURANI.
Riyasat Officer : MR. F. R. JADEJA.
Garden Superintendent : A. S. MAHFUZE, F.R.H.S. (London).
State Engineer : MR. D. I. UPADHYAY.
Mechanical and Electrical Engineer : MR. DHANJI MAVJI.
Abkari Supervisor : MR. G. K. DESAI.
Auditor : R. M. GANDHI, F.C.S. (London).

MAJOR HIS HIGHNESS MAHARAOL SHREE SIR RANJITSINHJI, K.C.S.I., Ruler of Baria.

Born : 10th July 1886.

Educated : At Rajkumar College, Rajkot; Imperial Cadet Corps College, Dehra Dun, and in England.

Married : In 1905 to Shrimant Taktakunverba Saheb, daughter of His late Highness the Maharaja of Rajpipla.

In 1918 to Shrimant Dilharkunverba Saheb, a niece of His late Highness the Maharaja Saheb of Rajpipla.

Succeeded to the Gadi : 20th February 1908. Assumed full Ruling Powers May 1908.

Served in France and Flanders during the Great European War (1914-18) and also during the Third Afghan War (1919).

Second Son : RAJ KUMAR SHREE HEERASINHJI.

Grandson, eldest son of Heir-Apparent : RAJ KUMAR SHREE JABBARSINHJI.

Family : Chohan Rajputs lineal descendants of the renowned Pava-paties, Rulers of Gujrat with their capital at Champaner.

The State pays no tribute either to the British Government or any other State, and receives Chouth of Dohad, Kalol and Halol Talukas of the Panch Mahals from the British Government.

Area of State : 813 square miles. *Population :* 1,59,429.

Gross Average Revenue : Twelve lacs.

Salute : Permanent 9 ; Personal 11.

Recreation : Pig-sticking, Polo, Tiger-hunting, etc.

ADMINISTRATION.

Dewan : RAO BAHADUR MOTILAL L. PAREKH, M.A., LL.B.

Officer Commanding State Forces : LT.-COL. MAHARAJ NAHARSINHJI.

Rajkharch Officer : SARDAR Z. N. GOHEL.

Personal Staff Officer : Captain KALLIANSINH.

Sar Nyayadhisha and First Class Magistrate : U. J. SHAH, ESQ., B.A., LL.B.

Nyayadhisha and First Class Magistrate : M. V. SHETH, ESQ.

Medical Department : Dr. J. H. KUMBHANI, M.B.B.S., D.T.M., F.C.P.S.

Electrical Department : M. L. PATEL, ESQ., D.F.H. (London).

P. W. D. Department : C. S. MALKAN, ESQ., B.E. (Civil), A.M.I.E.

Education Department : G. L. PANDYA, ESQ., M.A., B.T.

Banking Department : CHANDULAL N. SHAH, ESQ.

HIS HIGHNESS FARZAND-I-KHAS-I-DOWLAT-I-ENGLISHIA MAHARAJA SIR SAYAJI RAO GAEKWAR SENA KHAS KHEL SAMSHER BAHADUR, G.C.S.I., G.C.I.E., LL.D., Maharaja of Baroda.

Born : 1863. Ascended the gadi 1875; Invested with full powers in 1881.

Educated : Privately.

Married : In 1880 Shri Chimnabai Saheb, a princess belonging to the House of Tanjore, who died in 1885.

Married : Second time in 1885, Shri Chimnabai Saheb of the Ghatge family of the Dewas State.

Attended the Round Table Conference, 1930, 1931. The Minister was deputed to the third session of the Round Table Conference by His Highness, 1932.

Publications.

(1) From Cæsar to Sultan; (2) Famine notes; (3) Speeches; (4) Selected letters.

Recreation : Billiards, tennis, shooting, tiger-hunting, etc.

Address : Baroda, Gujerat, Western India.

Heir : SHRIMANT YUVARAJ PRATAPSINH GAEKWAR.

Area of the State : 8,164 square miles.

Population : 2,443,007 (1931).

Revenue : Rs. 276.98 lakhs.

Salute : 21 guns.

EXECUTIVE COUNCIL.

President.

SIR V. T. KRISHNAMA CHARI, KT., C.I.E., Dewan.

COUNCILLORS.

SHRIMANT YUVARAJ PRATAPSINH GAEKWAR (*Karma Sachiv*).

MR. RAMLAL HIRALAL DESAI, B.A. LL.B. (*Mantra Sachiv*).

COLONEL KUMAR SHIVRAJ SINGH, B.A. (*Mantra Sachiv*).

MR. RAMCHANDRARAO SHAMRAO PATIL (MANE), B.A., LL.B. (*Ex-Officio Member*).

HIS HIGHNESS DEVISINGHJI, RANA SAHEB of Barwani (Minor), Central India.

Born: On 19th July 1922.

Ascended the gadi on 21st April 1930.

Sisodia Rajput and a descendant of the Udaipur Ruling House. None of the rulers of Barwani was ever a tributary of any of the Malwa Chiefs.

Being educated: At Daly College, Indore.

Area of State: 1,178 square miles.

Population: 1,41,110.

Revenue: About Rs. 12 lacs

Salute: 11 guns.

State Council appointed by Government to carry on Minority Administration.

Dewan and President.

DIWAN BAHADUR H. N. GOSALIA, M.A., LL.B.

Revenue Member.

KHAN SAHEB MEHERJIBHOY HORMUSJI.

Judicial Member.

M. S. DUTT CHOWDHARY, ESQ. B.A., LL.B.

SHRIMANT RAGHUNATHRAO SHANKARRAO *alias* BABASAHEB PANDIT PANT SACHIV, MADAR UL-MAHAM (most faithful) Ruler of Bhor.

Founder of Dynasty :— Shankaraji, member of Cabinet (ministry) of eight, Chhatrapati Rajaram's time 1698.

Present Ruler : Born, 1878. Education, Collegiate. Ascended Gadi, 1922. Representative member of Princes' Chamber (7 years). Trip to England and Continent of Europe, 1930. Audience with King-Emperor.

Heir : SHRIMANT SADASHIVRAO *alias* BHAUSAHEB, B.A.

State Matters : Area 910 sq. miles. *Population* : 141,546.

Revenue : Rs. 6,77,880. 9 guns Dynastic Salute bestowed for excellent administration and loyal and whole-hearted co-operation with British Government, 1927. Ruler enjoys full Internal Powers. Reforms and improvements :—

Administrative : Executive Council system started, 1925. Legislative Council established, 1928 and non-official majority and non-official Vice-President granted, 1933. Privy purse moderately fixed.

Judicial : An Independent High Court's Scheme inaugurated, 1928.

Educational : Primary Education made free, 1922. Scholarships and Freeships for higher education founded. Library built at Bhor, 1928. Shrimant Babasaheb is President of Poona Boy Scouts' Association.

Local Self-Government Institutions : Bhor Municipality reconstituted and election-right granted, 1929. Taluka Local Boards established, 1932.

General : A big bridge over Nira built, 1932. The State rendered varied and valuable help to Government in construction of Lloyd Dam at Bhatghar.

HIS HIGHNESS BHARAT DHARAM-INDU MAHARAJA SAWAI SIR SAWANT SINGH BAHADUR, K.C.I.E., of Bijawar.

Born: 25th November 1877, ascended the Gadi in June 1900, was married first into the Bundelkhandi Ponwar family of Sonrai in Jhansi district and secondly in 1913 into that of Diwan Gajraj Singh, a jagirdar of Datia State who belongs to Karahiya family.

Son: MAHARAJ KUMAR AMAN SINGHJI.

Area of the State: 973 square miles.

Population: 115,852. *Gross revenue:* 3½ lakhs.

Salute: 11 guns.

Railway Station: Harpalpur, G.I.P. Railway, 57 miles lorry service.

ADMINISTRATION.

Diwan:
SARDAR BASHESHAR SARUP.

Chief Secretary:
PANDIT MAHADEO RAO.

Private Secretary:
M. RAFAT ALI QURRESHI.

Revenue Officer:
M. ULFAT RAI.

Nazim:
M. RAFAT ALI QURRESHI (*Acting*).

Superintendent of Police:
M. GULAB KHAN.

LIEUTENANT-GENERAL HIS HIGHNESS MAHARAJADHIRAJ RAJ RAJESHWAR NARENDRA SHIROMANI MAHARAJAH SRI SIR GANGA SINGHJI BAHADUR, G.C.S.I., G.C.I.E., G.C.V.O., G.B.E., K.C.B., A.-D.-C., LL.D., Maharajah of Bikaner.

Born: On 13th October 1880.

Succeeded to the Gadi: On 31st August 1887, and assumed full ruling powers in 1898.

His Highness was educated at the Mayo College, Ajmer.

His Highness was married in 1897 to the daughter of His late Highness the Maharawat of Partabgarh, who died on the 19th August 1906. His Highness also married the daughter of the late Thakur of Sanwatsar in the Bikaner State, who also died in 1922. Subsequent to the demise of the first Maharani, His Highness married in 1908 the daughter of the Tazimi Pattedar of Bikamkore in Marwar.

Heir-Apparent: MAHARAJ KUMAR SRI SADUL SINGHJI BAHADUR, C.V.O.

Area of State: 23,317 square miles. *Population:* 936,218.

Revenue: Rs. 1,14,00,336.

Salute: Permanent 17 guns, local 19 guns and personal 19 guns.

Prime Minister and Chief Councillor.

SIR MANUBHAI NANDSHANKER MEHTA, KT., C.S.I., M.A., LL.B.

Public Works and Home Minister.

COL. RAO BAHADUR THAKUR SADUL SINGHJI OF BAGSEU, C.I.E.

Army Minister.

MAJOR-GEN. RAO BAHADUR THAKUR HARI SINGHJI OF SATTASAR, C.I.E., O.B.E.

Revenue and Finance Minister.

MAJOR MAHARAJ SRI MANDHATA SINGHJI SAHIB.

HIS HIGHNESS NAZAMUD-DAULAH MUMTAZ-UL-MULK MOMIN-KHAN BAHADUR DILAVERJUNG NAWAB MIRZA HUSAIN YAVER KHAN BAHADUR, Nawab of Cambay. (A First Class State with powers to try capital offences) is a Mogul of Shiah Faith, of the Nazam-i-Sani Family of Persia.

Born: 16th May 1911.

Succeeded to the Gadi on 21st January 1915. Ascended 13-12-30 (With full powers).

Educated: At Rajkumar College, Rajkot, till April 1928; spent a year in Europe accompanied by his tutor and companion.

Area of State: 392 sq. miles.

Population: 87,761 (Census 1931).

Revenue: 10 lakhs (Normal). *Salute* 11 guns.

Political Relations:—With the Government of India, through Agent to the Governor-General, Gujarat States, Baroda.

His Highness has prescribed a schedule of subjects in which His Highness has got plenary powers of disposal for joint deliberations with the Dewan and the Private Secretary. Thus a miniature Cabinet form of Government has been introduced as a first step towards reform.

Dewan.

DEWAN BAHADUR NARMADASHANKER DEVSHANKER MEHTA, B.A.

Private Secretary.

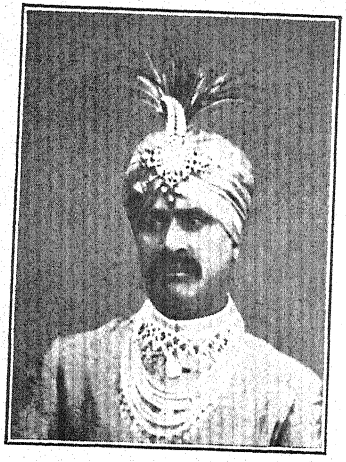
LT.-COLONEL H. S. STRONG, C.I.E.

Chief Revenue Officer.

RAO SAHEB PURSHOTTAM JOGIBHAI BHATT, B.A., LL.B.

Sar Nyayadhish.

SHANUBHAI MATUBHAI MAZUMDAR, M.A., LL.B.



HIS HIGHNESS RAJA RAM SINGH, the present Ruler of Chamba State, is a Rajput of the Surajbansi Race and the progenitors of the dynasty have ruled in Chamba for fourteen hundred years.

Born: 17th October 1890; *ascended the Gadi* in September 1919; *installed* in May 1920.

Educated: In Chamba and in the Aitchison College, Lahore.

Married: The daughter of Raja Raghunath Singh of Jaswan in 1912.

Recreation: Shooting, Tennis, Cricket, Hockey and Football.

Heir-Apparent: Shri Tikka Lakshman Singh, born December 1924.

Salute: 11 guns.

Address: Chamba, Punjab, India.

Chief Secretary: RAI BAHADUR LALA MADHO RAM.

Area of the State: 3,216 square miles.

Population: 1,46,870.

Revenue: Rs. 9,00,000.

Chamba is one of the oldest principalities in India and has been ruled by the same dynasty since its foundation in A.D. 550.

HIS HIGHNESS SRI RAMA VARMA, Maharaja of Cochin.

Born: 30th December 1861.

Ascended the Musnad: 25th March 1932.

Educated: Privately.

Heir: His Highness Kerala Varma, Elaya Raja.

Cochin is a maritime Indian State lying in the south-west corner of India. It has an area of 1,480.28 sq. miles and a population of 1,205,016. It is bounded on the north by British Malabar, on the east by Malabar, Coimbatore and Travancore, on the south by Travancore and on the west by Malabar and the Arabian Sea.

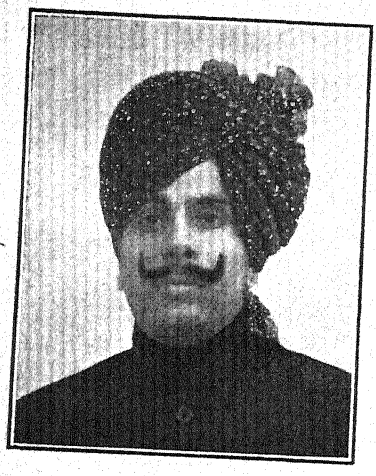
In point of Education the State takes the 2nd place among the Indian States and Provinces. It owns 3 Colleges, 44 High Schools, 102 Lower Secondary Schools and 923 Primary Schools.

The State maintains 52 Hospitals and Dispensaries. Local administration is carried on by four Municipalities in the four important towns and 86 Panchayats in the Villages.

The Government of the State is carried in the name and under the control of His Highness the Maharaja who is the fountain head of all authority in the State. The Chief Minister and Executive Officer of the State is the Diwan. To help the Government a Legislative Council with a predominant non-official majority has been constituted.

His Highness enjoys a salute of 17 guns.

The present Diwan of the State is C. G. Herbert, Esquire, I.C.S.



HIS HIGHNESS MAHARANAJI SHRI BHAWANI SINGHJI SAHEB BAHADUR, Danta State, Rajputana.

Born : 13th September 1899 A.D. The Ruling family of Danta belongs to the celebrated clan of Parmar Rajputs. The founder of the State, His Highness Maharanaji Shri Jasrajji came from Sind and established the State by way of conquest in 1068 A.D.

Educated : At the Mayo College, Ajmer.

Ascended the Gadi : 10th March 1926.

Area of the State : 347 sq. miles. *Population :* 26,172.

Revenue : Rs. 1,77,075. *Salute :* 9 guns hereditary.

The State enjoys full plenary powers, and the Ruler is a Member of the Chamber of Princes in his own right. Succession to Gadi is governed by primogeniture.

Heir-Apparent : Maharajakumar Shri Prithiraj Singhji Saheb Bahadur, *born* 22nd July 1928.

Junior Maharaj Kumar Shri Madhusudan Singhji, born 31st May 1933.

Places of interest : Shri Ambaji, Shri Koteshwarji and Shri Kumbhariaji are the places of interest and holy pilgrimage.

STATE OFFICERS.

Dewan : MR. RAMPRASAD BAPALAL DIVANJI, B.A. (Retired Senior Superintendent and Acting Assistant Secretary to the Government of Bombay, Revenue Department).

Naib-Dewan : MAHARAJ SHRI PRITHI SINGHJI SAHEB.

Revenue Commissioner : MAHARAJ SHRI NARAYAN SINGHJI SAHEB.

Private Secretary : BABU BISHRAM SINGHJI.

First Class Magistrate : MR. P. P. DESAI, B.A., LL.B.

Assistant Revenue Officer : MR. R. P. KANHERE, B. Ag.

Medical Officer : DR. R. I. MUNIM, M.B.B.S.

MAJOR HIS HIGHNESS MAHARAJA LOKENDRA SIR GOVIND SINH JU DEO BAHADUR, G.C.I.E., K.C.S.I., Ruler of Datia.

Born: 1886. Ascended the Gadi on 28th August 1907.

His Highness is a Patron of St. John Ambulance Association, Vice-Patron of National Horse Breeding and Show Society, Vice-President of Red Cross Society and All-India Baby Week Society, Vice-Patron of Girl Guide Association, Indian Empire, besides being a member of several Societies, Associations and Clubs.

He contributed about 7 lakhs during the War, has presented Lord Reading's statue to the Imperial Capital, Delhi, and has built several beautiful buildings of public utility in his own capital including Lord Hardinge Hospital and Lady Willingdon Girls' School.

Besides shooting several big game in South-East Africa in 1912-13 he has shot 154 tigers in India.

His Highness celebrated his Silver Jubilee in 1933.

Constitution: The administration is carried on through the Chief Minister, who is the central administrative authority. The Chief Minister is assisted by the Heads of departments and advised by the Legislative Council which was constituted in 1924.

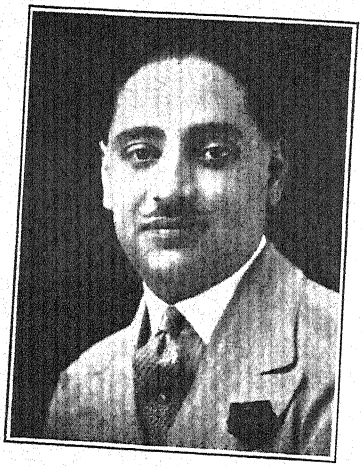
Chief Minister: SIR AZIZUDDIN AHMED, KT., C.I.E., O.B.E., I.S.O., K.B.

Area of the State: 912 square miles.

Population: 158,834.

Revenue: About Rs. 18 lakhs.

Address: Datia, Central India.



RANA SHRI DALIP SINGHJI BAHADUR, Rana of Dhami State, (Simla Hills), Punjab. Descendant of the great and illustrious Warrior King Prithviraj Chowan, of Delhi. Dhami is the only Chowan State in Simla Hills.

The Ruling House of Dhami took no mean part in establishing firmly the far-flung British Empire in the Punjab, and these services were appreciated by the British Government.

The present Ruler, Rana Shri Dalip Singhji Bahadur, is a Surajbansi Rajput.

Born : 5th November 1908.

Resumed Full Powers in 1931.

Educated : At the Bishop Cotton School, Simla, and Aitchison Chiefs' College, Lahore; besides this he received training in Settlement, Revenue works, Forest, Politics and Judicial work, etc., under able British Officers.

Married : The daughter of the Ruler of Tharoch State.

Recreation : Shooting, Tennis and other manly games.

Heir-Apparent : SHRIMANT THE YUVRAJ, *born* in 1928.

Shrimati Rajkumari and Shri Rajkumar were born in 1926 and 1933, respectively.

Area : 29 square miles.

Revenue : Rs. 50,000.

Population : 6,000.

Communications and buildings greatly improved.

The representative of His Imperial Majesty the King Emperor, His Excellency the Viceroy, on invitation honours the Ruler and his State by paying visits almost annually to the State.

Residence and address : The Palace Dhami, Dhami State (Simla Hills), Punjab.

HIS HIGHNESS MAHARAJA ANAND RAO PUAR SAHEB BAHADUR (MINOR), Ruler of Dhar State, C.I.

Born : 24th November, 1920.

Adopted by Her late Highness the Dowager Maharani Saheba, D.B.E., on 1st August, 1926.

Succeeded to Gadi : On the 1st of August, 1926.

Education : His Highness is receiving education at the Daly College, Indore, under the guidance of an European Guardian and Tutor, Captain M. S. Harvey Jones.

Salute : 15 guns.

Area of the State : 1,800.24 square miles.

Average Revenue of the State : Rs. 30,00,000 including revenue of the Khasgi, Thakurates, Bhumats and Jagirs, etc. *Population* 243,521.

Railway Station : Mhow—33 miles. Rutlam—60 miles on B. B. & C. I. Lines.

COUNCIL OF ADMINISTRATION.

Dewan and President, Council of Administration of the State and Khasgi Karbhari :
Dewan Bahadur K. NADKAR.

Member (without portfolio) of the Executive Council :
Rao Bahadur Shrimant Maharaj Setu RAMJI SAHEB PUAR.

Home and Revenue Member :
MR. RAGHUNATH SAHAI.

Military Member :
MR. RAGHUNATH SAHAI (Acting).

Judicial Member :
MR. M. N. KHORY, B.A., LL.B.

Consultative Member and Assistant to the Dewan in the Finance Branch :
RAJ SEVA SAKTA MR. VENKAT RAO C. PALKAR.

Consultative Members :
PANDIT PURNASHANKAR RAJ JOTISHI.
THAKUR JASWANT SINGHJI OF BIDWAL.

Durbar and Council Secretary :
MR. B. S. BAPAT, M.A., LL.B.

HIS HIGHNESS MAHARANA SHRI VIJAYADEVJI MOHANDEVJI RANA, Raja Saheb of Dharampur.

Born: 1885.

Ascended the Gadi: 1921.

Educated at the Rajkumar College, Rajkot.

Married in 1905 A. S. Rasikkunverba, daughter of His Highness Maharana Shri Gambhirsinhji, Maharaja Saheb of Rajpipla, and after her demise in 1907 A. S. Manharkunverba, daughter of Kumar Shri Samantsinhji of Palitana.

Heir: MAHARAJ KUMAR SHRI NARHARDEVJI.
Area of the State: About 800 square miles.
Population: About 115,000.
Revenue: Rs. 12½ lakhs.
Salute: 11 guns personal.

SECRETARIAT SYSTEM.

Political Secretary:
MR. DULLABHDAS VITHALDAS SARAIYA, B.A., LL.B.

Huzur Personal Assistant:
MR. BHOGILAL JAGJIVAN MODY.

Revenue Secretary:
MR. SHANTISHANKER JESHANKER DESAI, B.A.

General Secretary:
MR. PRANLAL DULLABHJI KAMDAR, B.A., LL.B.

SREE SHREE SREE RAJA SANKAR PRATAP SINGH DEO MAHINDRA BAHADUR, Ruler of Dhenkanal, a full fledged State in direct relationship with the Government of India, conspicuous for its traditional devotion and loyalty to the British Crown.

Born : 1904.

Educated : In Rajkumar College, Raipur and Government Ravenshaw College, Cuttack.

His Highness belongs to the famous Kachhawa Rajput family.

Married : The eldest daughter of the Ruler of Seraikela, a descendant of Rathor origin.

Succeeded to the Gadi in 1918.
Area : 1,463 square miles.
Population : 284,328.

DURBAR'S EXECUTIVE COUNCIL.

President and Prime Minister : RAJKUMAR N. P. SINGH DEO, B.A.
Judicial and Political Minister : DEWAN BAHADUR D. N. DAS, B.A.
Development Minister : RAJKUMAR S. P. SINGH DEO, B.A.

DURBAR SECRETARIAT.

Military Secretary : SUBEDAR CHINTAMONI MOHAMANSINGH (Recipient of Indian Police Medal.)
Deputy Superintendent : V. S. DORA, ESQ.
Private Secretary : BENOY GHOSE, ESQ., B.A.
Assistant Private Secretary : PANDIT BAMADEB RATH.
Revenue Secretary : PANDIT SIKHARESWAR MISHRA.
Tahasildar : P. C. MOHAPATRA, ESQ., B.A.; MUKUNDA PRADHAN, ESQ., B.A.; N. C. MOHANTY, ESQ.; K. C. MOHANTY, ESQ.
Conservator of Forests : S. B. D. C. PATNAIK, B.A., M.R.H.
Commissioner of Police and Excise : RAI BAHADUR B. B. BURMAN.
Assistant Commissioners : PANDIT G. MISHRA, B.A.; B. DHAL, ESQ., B.L.
Chief Medical Officer : DR. S. RAO, M.B., B.Sc.
Secretary of Secondary Education : M. S. BISWAL ESQ., M.A., B.ED.
Secretary of Primary Education : H. MOHANTY, ESQ.
Engineer (Offg.) P.W.D. : MR. R. BEHERA.
Scouting Deputy Camp Chief : Rajkumar G. P. SINGH DEO.
Organising Secretary : BENOY GHOSH, ESQ., B.A.

AGRICULTURE AND IRRIGATION DEPARTMENT.

Superintendent of Village Up-lift and Rural Reconstruction : N. K. RAI, ESQ.
Superintendent of Agriculture and Irrigation : B. SAMANTRAI, ESQ.

JUDICIAL DEPARTMENT.

Chief Justice : DEWAN BAHADUR D. N. DAS, B.A.
Sub-Judge : PANDIT J. K. MISHRA, M.A., B.L.
Sub-Divisional Officers : MR. N. A. J. ANDERSON; PANDIT G. C. MOHAPATRA, B.A.

LT.-COL. HIS HIGHNESS RAIS-UD-DAULA SIPAH-DAR-UL-MULK SARAMAD RAJ HAI HIND MAHA-RAJADHIRAJA SRI SAWAI MAHARAJ RANA SIR UDAI BHAN SINGH LOKINDAR BAHADUR, DILER JANG JAI DEO, G.C.I.E., K.C.S.I., K.C.V.O., Maharaj Rana of Dholpur.

Born: On 12th February 1893.

Succeeded: To the Gadi in March 1911 and assumed full ruling powers in 1913.

His Highness was educated at the Mayo College, Ajmer, where he passed the Diploma examination and won several prizes.

Married: To the daughter of the Sardar of Badrukha in Jind State. *Area of State:* 1,221 square miles.

Population: 2,54,986. *Revenue:* Rs. 16,37,000.

Salute: Permanent 15 guns and personal 17 guns.

STATE COUNCIL.

President: H. H. THE MAHARAJ RANA BAHADUR NAWAB RUSTAM ALI KHAN.

Political Secretary: A. N. THORPE, ESQ.,

Revenue Secretary: R. S. R. B. MUNSHI KUNJ BEHARI LAL.

Financial Secretary: PANDIT KALADHAR TEWARI.

Personal Secretary: RAI SAHIB MUNSHI DIN DAYAL, B.A.

Military Secretary: GENERAL SARDAR RAGHUBIR SINGH.

HIS HIGHNESS MAHARANA SHRI SIR GHANSHYAMSINHJI, G.C.I.E., K.C.S.I., Maharaja Raj Saheb of Dhrangadhra in Kathiawar.

Born : In 1889, and succeeded to the Gadi in 1911.

Educated : Rajkumar College, Rajkot, and later in England with private tutors under guardianship of Sir Charles Ollivant.

Married : Five times. Has three sons. (1) Maharaj Yuvraj Kumar Shri Mayurdhwajsinhji, (2) Maharaj Kumar Shri Virendrasinhji, (3) Maharaj Kumar Shri Dharmendrasinhji.

Area of the State : 1,167 square miles exclusive of the State's portion of the Lesser Runn of Cutch. *Population :* 88,961. *Annual Revenue :* Rs. 25,00,000. *Dynastic Salute :* 13 Guns.

Dewan : RAJ RANA SHRI MANSINHJI S. JHALA, C.I.E.

HUZUR OFFICE PERSONNEL.

Personal Assistant : RANA SHRI SABALSINHJI S. JHALA.

Military Secretary : RAO BAHADUR RANA SHRI DADUBHA S. JHALA.

Private Secretary : RAO SAHEB CHIMANLAL A. MEHTA, B.A.S.T.C.

Revenue Secretary : RANA SHRI JASWANTSINHJI D. JHALA.

Judicial Secretary : AMRITLAL V. MODI, M.A., LL.B.

Political Secretary : ANANTRAI N. MANKER, M.A.

Assistant Private Secretary : RANA SHRI RAMSINHJI M. JHALA, B.COM.

Chief Agricultural Products : Cotton, Jowar, Bajri and Wheat.

Principal Industries :

Salt and manufacture of Soda Alkalis at Shri S'akti Alkali Works, Dhrangadhra, which is the first and only work of the kind in India.

HIS HIGHNESS RAI-RAYAN, MAHI-MAHENDRA, MAHARAJADHIRAJ MAHARAWAL SHRI LAKSHMAN SINGHJI BAHADUR of Dungarpur belongs to the Ada branch of the Sisodia Rajputs of whom the Maharana of Udaipur is the head. The Rulers of Dungarpur are descended from Samant Singh, elder son of Kshem Singh, who ruled over Mewar in the beginning of the 13th century of the Vikram era.

Born : 1908.

Ascended the Gadi : 1918.

Educated : At the Mayo College, Ajmer.

Married : In 1920 to the daughter of the late Raja of Bhinga in U. P. and a second time in 1928 to a Princess of Kishengarh, the second daughter of His late Highness Maharaja Madan Singhji Bahadur of Kishengarh.

Heir : MAHARAJ KUMAR SHRI MAHIPAL SINGHJI BAHADUR.

Area of State : 1,460 square miles.

Population : 2,27,000.

Average Revenue : Rs. 8,85,000.

Salute : 15 guns.

HIS HIGHNESS SHREE BHAGVAT SINHJEE, G.C.I.E., M.D., F.R.C.P.E., M.B.C.M., M.R.C.P., D.C.L., LL.D., F.R.S.E., M.R.A.S., M.R.I. (G.B.), F.C.P. & S.B., H.P.A.C., Fell. Bom. University, Maharaja Thakore Saheb of Gondal.

Born : 1865.

Assumed Full Powers, 1884.

Educated at the Rajkumar College, Rajkot, and at the University of Edinburgh.

His Highness was married to Nandkunverba, the daughter of H.H. Maharana Shri Naran Devji of Dharampur.

Author of : "A History of Aryan Medical Science," A Journal of a visit to England.

Heir : YUVARAJ SHRI BHOJRAJJI.

Area of State : 1,024 square miles. *Population :* 2,05,846.

Revenue : Rs. 50,00,000. *Salute :* 11 guns.

PRINCIPAL OFFICERS.

Khangi Karbhari : P. P. BUCH.
Secretary : MISS J. D. RATHOD, B.A.
Huzur Secretary : P. B. JOSHI, B.A.
Nyaya Mantri : T. P. SAMPAT, B.A., LL.B.
Sar Nyayadhish : K. J. SANGHANI, B.A., LL.B.
Vasulati Adhikari : P. W. MEHTA, B.A.
Manager and Engineer-in-Chief : P. G. DAS.
Police Superintendent : H. S. SANGHANI.
Bandhkam Adhikari : V. C. MEHTA, B.A., B.E.
Khajanchi : P. B. JOSHI, B.A.
Chief Medical Officer : M. K. S. BHUPATSINHJI, L.R.C.P., M.R.C.S., D.T.M., M.B., B.CH.
Vidya Adhikari : C. B. PATEL, B.A.
Darbari Vakil : L. K. SHUKLA, B.A., LL.B.

RAJA BAHADUR NABA KISHORE CHANDRA SINGH MARDRAJ JAGADEB, M.R.A.S., F.R.S.A. (London), Ruler of Hindol in the Eastern States Agency, in direct political relation with the Government of India.

Origin: The Ruler of the State belongs to the Ganga Dynasty tracing his descent from Kapilendra Deb, a famous sovereign of the Orissa Kingdom in the 15th century.

Born: On the 14th June 1891.

Succeeded to the Musnad: On the 10th February 1906 and invested with ruling powers on the 20th October 1913.

Educated: At Ravenshaw Collegiate School, Cuttack, and finally passed the Diploma Examination from the Rajkumar College, Raipur (C.P.)

Married: In 1912 the eldest daughter of the Raja Saheb of Khariar in C.P., a descendant of the Chowhan origin. On the demise of the first Rani re-married the only daughter of the Raja Saheb of Thuamal, Rampur, of the well-known Nag Family.

Jubraj: Shriman Pratap Chandra Singh Deo, the Heir-Apparent, born on the 12th October 1917.

Area: 312 square miles. *Population:* 48,897.

MANTRI MANDAL.

PRADHAN SACHIV.

NYAYA SACHIV.
ARTHA SACHIV.
RASTRA SACHIV.
DHARMA SACHIV.

VICHAR PARISAD.

Judge Court.
Magistrate's Court.
Sub-Judge's Court.
Sub-Magistrate's Court.
Revenue Court.
Dharmadhyaksh Court.

ADHIKARY BIVAG.

Educational Superintendent.
Jail Superintendent.
Office Superintendent.
Garage Superintendent.
Chief Medical Officer.
Chief Police Officer.
Forest Officer.
P.W.D. Officer.
Auditor-in-Chief.
Controller of the Palace.

General: Vernacular education is imparted free in the State. Scholarships for higher education have been founded. The State Hospital gives every sort of medical help free to all irrespective of caste and creed.

Importation of liquor is prohibited. Village Panchayats have been introduced almost in every important village.

All public buildings have been electrified and street lighting of the town is conducted by electricity as well. State Telephone Service links Institutions, Officers' Quarters, Police Stations in the interior and the nearest Railway Station.

Address: P.O. Hindol (Orissa). Railway Station: Hindol Road (B. N. Railway).

HIS EXALTED HIGHNESS, RUSTOM-I-DOWRAN, ARASTU-I-ZAMAN, LT. GENERAL MUZAFFARUL-MULK WAL-MAMALIK, NAWAB SIR MIR OSMAN ALI KHAN BAHADUR, FATEH JUNG SIPAH SALAR, Faithful Ally of the British Government, Nizamud-Doula, Nizam-ul-Mulk Asaf Jah, G.C.S.I., G.B.E., Nizam of Hyderabad.

Born: 1886.

Ascended the throne 1911.

Educated: Privately.

Married in 1906 Dulhan Pasha, daughter of Nawab Jehangir Jung, a nobleman representing a collateral branch of the Nizam's family.

Heir: THE NAWAB MIR HIMAYAT ALI KHAN BAHADUR, AZAM JAH.

Area of the State: 82,698 square miles.

Population: 14,146,148.

Revenue: Rs. 892.43 lakhs.

Salute: 21 guns.

The State has a Legislative Council of twenty members eight of whom are elected and an Executive Council of six officials with a President. It maintains its own paper currency and coinage, postal system, railways and army. It has a University with six Arts Colleges including one for women and Colleges for Engineering, Medicine, Law and Teaching. It has also an Honours College affiliated to Madras University, a College for Jagirdars and a College of Physical Education. There are also a Central Cottage Industries Institute, a Central Technical Institute and an Observatory. The State is of great historical and archæological interest, as within its limits, are situated many old capitals of ancient and medieval Deccan Kingdoms, famous forts, temples, mosques and shrines and the wonderful Buddhist sculptures and paintings of Ellora and Ajanta.

Capital: Hyderabad—Population 466,000. It is the fourth largest city in the Indian Empire. The city is beautifully situated on the banks of the river Musi, with fine public buildings, broad cemented roads, good electricity and water supply and an efficient bus service run by the State Railway. Among interesting places are the Char Minar, the Mecca Masjid, the fort and tombs of Golconda and the large artificial reservoirs—the Osmanan Sagar and the Himayat Sagar.

EXECUTIVE COUNCIL.

President

RAJA RAJAYAN RAJAH SIR KISHEN PERSHAD MAHARAJA BAHADUR, YAMINUS SALTANATH, G.C.I.E.

Education, Medical and Military Depts. Member

NAWAB WALIUD DOWLAH BAHADUR.

Finance and Railway Member.

NAWAB SIR AKBAR HYDARI.

Revenue and Police Member.

LT.-COL. SIR RICHARD CHENEVIX TRENCH.

Judicial Member.

NAWAB LUTFUD DOWLAH BAHADUR.

Public Works Member.

NAWAB AQEEL JUNG BAHADUR.

Political Member.

NAWAB MAHDI YAR JUNG BAHADUR.

HIS HIGHNESS MAHARAJA DHIRAJ SHREE HIMMAT SINGHJI OF IDAR.—The Idar House was founded 200 years ago by two brothers of the Maharaja of Jodhpur. His Highness Maharaja Shree Himmat Singhji is the 10th of this illustrious line, and the grandson of the well known soldier and statesman, His Highness Maharaja Major General Sir Pratap Singhji Sahib of Jodhpur fame. Maharaja Himmat Singh succeeded to the Gadi on the sudden death of His Highness Maharaja Sir Dowlat Singh on the 14th April 1931.

Born: On 2nd September 1899.

Married: in the year 1908 to Shree Jawahar Kunwar Sahiba, the eldest daughter of Raja of Khandela in the Jaipur State.

His Highness received his education at the Mayo College, Ajmer, where he remained for 5½ years, leaving it after a brilliant career in 1916. He attained his diploma standing first in the list of candidates from all the Chief Colleges in India and was awarded His Excellency the Viceroy's medal. He won every class prize from the fifth to the diploma, five prizes for English and eleven others for various subjects. He won prizes in each division in succession for riding, and represented the College against the Aitchison College for 3 years at tent pegging, and also at tennis. For several years he was captain of one or other of the junior football or cricket elevens, and he was one of the best and keenest polo players in the college.

As will be seen, he upheld his family tradition as a horseman. From boyhood he was keen on hunting and pigsticking and before he had joined the College at the age of 10, he had accounted for many panther and bear to his own rifle. His Highness now keeps a racing stable and has had many successes. These active sports are not his only recreation for he has a good ear for music and is interested in painting and photography.

On leaving the college, His Highness Maharaja Shree Himmat Singhji took an active part in the State administration being appointed to His late Highness' Council, and later for several years was in charge of the administration under His late Highness' personal directions. He gained further practical experience from an extensive tour throughout India in 1929-30. He was therefore well qualified to take up his responsibilities as Ruler of His State when he ascended the Gadi of Idar. Since his accession in 1931, many schemes of improvement have been inaugurated which concern the social welfare of his subjects, their education, industries and agriculture. His Highness has embarked on an ambitious programme of reform and advancement which it is expected his experience and keen personal interest will enable him to carry through successfully.

His Highness has got two sons, Maharaja Kumars Shree Daljit Singhji and Amar Singhji, the eldest Maharaja Kumar Shree Daljit Singhji, the heir apparent, was born in 1917.

Salute: 15 Guns. *Area:* 1,669 sq. miles. *Revenue:* Rs. 21 Lacs.
Diwan: RAI BAHADUR RAJ RATTAN JAGANNATH BHANDARI, M.A., LL.B.

HIS HIGHNESS MAHARAJADHIRAJ RAJ RAJESHWAR SAWAI SHREE YESHWANT RAO HOLKAR BAHADUR, Maharaja of Indore

Born: 6th September 1908.

Accession: 26th February 1926.

Investiture: 9th May 1930.

Educated: In England 1920-23 and again at Christ Church, Oxford, 1926-29.

Married: In 1924 a daughter of the Junior Chief of Kagal (Kolhapur).

Daughter: Princess Ushadevi, *b:* 20th October 1933.

Invited delegate to the R.T.C. in 1931.

Area of State: 9,902 square miles. *Population:* 1,325,000.

Revenue: Rs. 1,35,00,000.

Salute: 19 guns (21 guns within State).

Address: Indore, Central India.

Recreation: Tennis, Cricket and Shikar.

STATE CABINET.

President:

WAZIR-UD-DOWLAH RAI BAHADUR S. M. BAPNA, C.I.E., B.A., B.Sc., LL.B., Prime Minister.

MEMBERS.

Adviser to the State.

SIR GOVIND D. MADGAVKAR, KT., I.C.S. (Retired).

Revenue Minister:

MASHIR BAHADUR RAO SAHEB K. B. TILLOO.

Home Minister:

MUNTAZIM-I-KHAS BAHADUR V. P. BHANDARKAR.

Honorary Minister without portfolio:

SARDAR R. K. ZANANE, B.A.

Member for Medical, Jails and Health & Sanitation Departments.

LT.-COL. J. R. J. TYRRELL, C.I.E., I.M.S. (Retired).

Member for Customs, Excise, Commerce and Industry Departments.

MASHIR BAHADUR S. V. KANUNGO, M.A.

SHRIMANT SHANKARRAO APPASAHEB PATWARDHAN, Chief of Jamkhandi.

Born : 1906.

Invested with full powers in May 1926.

Educated in the Rajaram College, Kolhapur, and then privately.

Married in 1924 Shrimant Soubhagyavati Lilavatibaisaheb, Ranisaheb of Jamkhandi, daughter of Madhavrao Moreshwar, the late Chief, the Pant Amatya of Bavada.

Heir : SHRIMANT PARASHURAMRAO BHAUSAHEB, the Yuvaraj, now in his ninth year.

Daughter : Shrimant Indira Raje *alias* Taisaheb, now in her eighth year.

Area of State : 524 square miles.

Population : 1,14,282.

Revenue : Rs. 9,92,515.

Capital Town : Jamkhandi.

The State for purposes of administration is divided into two Talukas, Jamkhandi and Kundgol and three Thanas, Wathar, Pathakal and Dhavalpuri. The present Ruler has been pleased to institute a separate High Court Bench and the judicial and executive branches of the administration have been separated. He has also gone ahead in the matter of popularising the administration by the inauguration of a Representative Assembly of the people. Elementary and secondary education have all along been free in the State. The present Ruler has made even Higher Collegiate Education free for his subjects by endowing fifty freeships in the Sir Parashurambhau College, Poona, so named in beloved memory of his revered father the late Captain Sir Parashuramrao Bhau Saheb. He is also the elected President of the Shikshan Prasarak Mandali, Poona.

The Chief Saheb has been a representative member of the Princes Chamber for Group IV for the last six years . He has again been elected this year. The State has provided for Free Medical Aid.

Diwan : Mr. R. K. BAL, B.A., LL.B., He is also the *ex officio* President of the Jamkhandi State Representative Assembly and High Court Judge.

Sarnyayadhish : MR. B. B. MAHABAL, B.A., LL.B.

Revenue Officer : MR. H. C. PATWARDHAN, B.A.

Private Secretary : MR. M. B. MAHAJAN, B.A., LL.B.

HIS HIGHNESS SIDI MUHAMMAD KHAN NAWAB SAHEB of Janjira.

Born: March 7th, 1914.

Succeeded: To the Gadi on 2nd May 1922. Was invested with full Ruling powers on 9th November 1933.

Educated: At the Rajkumar College, Rajkot, where he took the Diploma with distinction in 1930. Received instruction in administration, politics and agriculture in the Deccan College, Poona, and administrative training in the Mysore State.

Married: On the 14th November 1933 to the Shahajadi Saheba of the Jaora State in Central India.

Area: 379 square miles.

Population: 110,388.

Revenue: Rs. 8,85,000.

Salute: 11 guns permanent, 13 guns local.

Principal sources of State income are Agriculture, Forest, Abkari and Customs.

PRINCIPAL STATE OFFICERS.

Dewan: RAO BAHADUR H. B. KOTAK, B.A., LL.B., J.P.

Sar Nyayadhish: MR. RAMKRISHNA BABAJI DALVI.

Sadar Tahasildar: MR. SIDI JAFAR SIDI MAHMUD SHEKHANI, B.A., LL.B.

Chief Medical Officer: DR. A. F. DASILVA GOMES, L.R.C.P., L.R.C.S. (Edin.), L.F.P.S. (Glas.), L. M. (Dublin).

Chief Engineer: MR. V. V. DEODHAR, B.E.

Customs Inspector: SIDI IBRAHIM SIDI ABDU RAHMAN KHANZADE.

Excise Inspector: MR. D. V. DESAI.

Mamlatdar, Jafarabad: MR. G. A. DIGHE.

LIEUTENANT-COLONEL HIS HIGHNESS FAKHRUD DAULAH NAWAB SIR MOHAMMAD IFTIKHAR ALI KHAN BAHADUR, SAULET-E-JANG, K.C.I.E., Nawab of Jaora.

Born : 1883.

Ascended the Gadi in 1895.

Educated at the Daly College, Indore. Served in the Imperial Cadet Corps for fifteen months till 1902, and is Honorary Lieutenant-Colonel in the British Army.

Married : His Highness' first marriage was celebrated in 1903, 2nd marriage in 1905 and the 3rd in the year 1921.

Heir-Apparent : NAWABZADA MOHAMMAD USMAN ALI KHAN SAHIB.

Area of State : 601 square miles.
Population : 100,204. *Revenue :* 12,00,000.

STATE COUNCIL.

President : HIS HIGHNESS THE NAWAB SAHIB BAHADUR.

Vice-President & Chief Secretary :
KHAN BAHADUR SAHIBZADA MOHAMMAD SERFRAZ ALI KHAN.

Secretary :
MR. NASRAT MOHAMMAD KHAN, M.A., LL.B. (Alig.)

Member.
NAWABZADA MOHAMMED NASIR ALI KHAN SAHIB.

Military Secretary : NAWABZADA MOHAMMED MUMTAZ ALI KHAN SAHIB.

Secretary, Public Health Department :
SAHIBZADA MIR NASIRUDDIN AHMED SAHIB.

Private Secretary : MAJOR P. F. NORBURY, D.S.O., I.A.

Judicial Secretary and Judge, Chief Court :
MR. SERAJUR REHMAN KHAN, Bar.-at-Law.

Revenue Secretary : MIRZA MOHAMMAD ASLAM BEG.

Finance Member : SETH GOVINDRAMJI.

JASDAN is the premier Kathi State and the Rulers are Saketiya Suryavanshi Khshtriyas, being descendants of Katha, the younger son of the Suryavanshi Maharaja, Karan Shruta, of Ayodhya.

The Kathis have, since their advent to this Province, effected a change in the name of the Province from Saurashtra to Kathiawad, and they are one of the most important and influential tribes on the westernmost coast of India.

Darbar Shree Ala Khachar is the present Ruler of Jasdan. He was born on 4th November 1905. He was educated at the Rajkumar College, Rajkot, and has passed the Diploma examination.

He succeeded to the Gadi in June, 1919, and assumed the reins of State administration on 1st December, 1924.

Heir : YUVRAJ SHREE SHIVRAJ aged three years.

Area of the State : 296 square miles including about 13 square miles of non-jurisdictional territory.

Population : 36,632 including non-jurisdictional territory.

Revenue : (gross) Rs. six lacs nearly.

All education is free throughout the State.

Medical relief at the Hospital, etc., is also supplied free.

Importation of liquor is prohibited.

Cultivators are granted permanent heritable tenure with rights of full ownership over their holdings and are protected against usury by special rules for settlement of money-lenders' claims.

Village Panchayats introduced in twenty villages with a non-official president.

Subordinate land-holders have recently been granted the unusual privilege of exemption from resorting to the Civil Court for adjudication of their *inter-se* disputes. These are now settled through the Arbitration Court presided over by the Nyayadhish.

LT. HIS HIGHNESS DHARMADIVAKAR MAHARAJADHIRAJ MAHARAJ RANA SHRI RAJENDRA SINGH JI Dev Bahadur of Jhalawar State.

Born : 15th July, 1900.

Ascended the gadi : 1929.

Educated : At the Mayo College, Ajmer, and the School of Rural Economy, University of Oxford.

Married : The daughter of Thakore Saheb of Kotda-Sangani, Kathiawar, in 1920. Has one son.

Heir-Apparent : MAHARAJ KUMAR SHRI VIRENDRA SINGH JI BAHADUR, born in Oxford on 27th September, 1921.

His Highness is a keen sportsman ; and has a taste for music, agriculture and fine arts. He is a member of the Royal Institution of Great Britain, Bombay Natural History Society, The Delhi Flying Club and the Imperial Delhi Gymkhana Club ; was a Lieutenant in the I. T. F. 11/19th Hyderabad Regiment, and was attached for some time to the 1st/19th Hyderabad Regiment (Russel's) at Fort Sandeman, Baluchistan. Now Honorary Lieutenant in 1st/19th Hyderabad Regiment (Russel's.)

Area of the State : 810 square miles.
Population : 107,890.
Revenue : Rs. 8,02,608.
Permanent Salute : 13.

STATE CABINET.

Prime Minister.

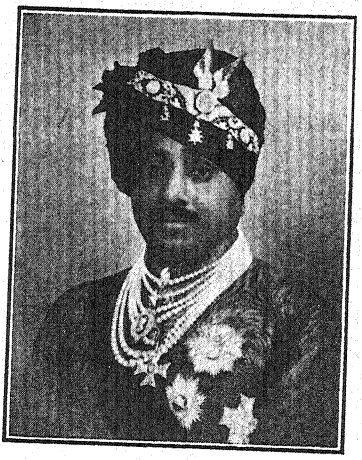
LT.-COL. R. A. E. BENN, C.I.E., I.A., (RETD.)

Judicial Minister.

RAI BAHADUR RAJ RATNAKAR BHAYA SHADI LAL JI, B.A., LL.B.

Home Minister.

RAJ RATNA B. MITTHAN LAL JI.



LT-COL. HIS HIGHNESS RAJ RAJESHWAR SARAMAD RAJAI HIND MAHARAJA DHIRAJ SIR UMAID SINGHJI SAHIB BAHADUR, G.C.I.E., K.C.S.I., K.C.V.O., ruler of the Jodhpur State.

Born: 1903. Ascended the gadi 1918.

Educated at the Mayo College, Ajmer.

Married: Daughter of Thakur Jey Singh Bhati of Umednagar in 1921. Has four sons and one daughter.

Heir-Apparent: MAHARAJ KUMAR SRI HANWANT SINGH SAHIB, born in 1923.

Area of the State: 36,021 square miles.

Population: 2,125,982.

Revenue: Rs. 1,40,00,000. *Permanent Salute*, 17, local 19 guns.

STATE COUNCIL.

President.

HIS HIGHNESS THE MAHARAJA SAHIB BAHADUR.

Chief Minister & Finance Minister.

MR. J. W. YOUNG, O.B.E.

Judicial Minister.

RAO BAHADUR THAKUR CHAIN SINGHJI, M.A., LL.B., OF POHKARAN.

Home Minister.

THAKUR MADHO SINGHJI OF SANKHWAS.

Revenue Minister.

MR. J. B. IRWIN, D.S.O., M.C., I.C.S.

RANA BHAGAT CHAND BAHADUR, C.S.I., Raja of Jubbal State, Simla Hills, Punjab.

Belongs to the Rathor clan of Rajputs.

Born : 12th October 1888.

Resumed Full Powers : 1910.

Educated at the Aitchison Chief's College, Lahore.

Married : To Leilaba Sahiba, the daughter of His Highness Maharaja Sahib of Gondal.

Residence: Jubbal. Simla Hills and Hainault, Simla.

Heir : TIKA DIGVIJAI CHAND, *born* 1913. *Married* to Hemant Kunwar, daughter of His Highness Late Raja Sahib of Narsinghgarh.

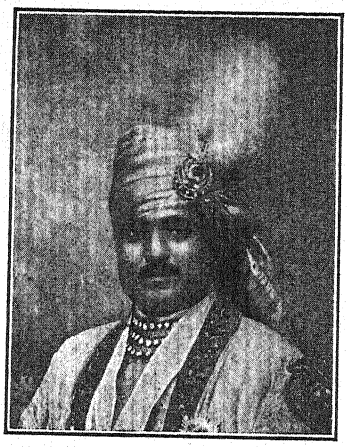
Younger Children : K. Narbir Chand, L. Lokendra Singh, K. Birendra Singh, Kumari Umavati H.H. Rani Sahib Bilaspur and K. Ilawati.

Area : 288 square miles. *Population :* 27,124.

Revenue : 8,00,000.

Tributary States to Jubbal : RANWIN, THAKUR KEDAR SINGH DHADI, THAKUR DHARAM SINGH.

The Raja Rana Sahib owns an Estate in Dehra Dun District U. P. where a large sugar factory has been erected. The State forests are one of the most valuable conifer forests in India and are worked departmentally. The entire management of the state is under the personal control of Raja Rana Sahib with the help of a Forest Minister and Council Wazarat. The Education and Medical departments give free advantage to the people, and an endowment fund in the name of Raja Rana Sahib's father called "Padam Chandra Dan Kosh" has been created by the Raja Rana under a Trust at a cost of Rs. Ten Lakhs to keep education and medical help free in future and make it independent of the state revenues.



HIS HIGHNESS SIR MAHABATKHANJI RASULKHANJI III, G.C.I.E., K.C.S.I., Nawab Saheb of Junagadh.

Family : Babi (Yusufzai Pathan).

Born : 2nd August 1900.

Educated : Preparatory school in England and at the Mayo College, Ajmer.

Heir-Apparent: NAWABZADA DILAWAR KHANJI, born 23rd June 1922.

Area of the State : 3,337 sq. miles. *Population :* 545,152.

Principal Port: Veraval. *Revenue :* Rs. 87,00,000.

Salute : 15 guns personal and local.

Indian States Forces—Junagadh State Lancers, Mahabat-Khanji Infantry.

EXECUTIVE COUNCIL.

Dewan, Junagadh State and President of the Council.
MR. P. R. CADELL, C.S.I., C.I.E.

Police & Military Member, J. S. Council.
MR. W. C. EDWARDS, I.P.

Revenue Member, J. S. Council.
MR. S. T. MANKAD, B.A., LL.B.

RANA SHRI CHHATRASALJI PARWATSINHJI of Kadana State, Rewa Kantha.

Born: 28th January, 1879.

Educated: At the Girassia School, Wadhwan, Kathiawar.

Kadana State was founded in the thirteenth century by Limdevji, the brother of the founder of the Sant State. It has never been conquered by or has paid tribute to any power, but has kept up its independence by the prowess and valour of its own Rulers. The Ruling Family are Puwar or Parmar Rajputs claiming to have descended from the illustrious family of Veer Vikramaditya and Raja Bhoj.

The present Chief takes a personal and keen interest in the administration of his State. For Administrative purposes the State is divided into four Mahals. The State lands have been surveyed and settlements fixed giving more facilities to the cultivators. At the time the Chief ascended the Gadi the State was in the fourth class, but on account of his administrative ability the State is now placed among Class III and the Chief enjoys as a mark of personal distinction full Civil and Criminal powers.

Tagavi-Loans are given to cultivators in cash or kind whenever necessary. Free medical relief is given to the people in the State Dispensary opened for the first time by the present Ruler. Electric lighting has been introduced in Kadana proper. The State maintains three vernacular schools at convenient centres where education is imparted at a very nominal cost. Needy students are given scholarships.

The Chief enjoys the right to elect a representative member to the Chamber of Princes and is entitled to be received and visited by the Governor of Bombay.

SHRIMATI SHARDULKUVERBA, the only daughter of the Ruler, is married to the *Heir-apparent* of Banswara State in Rajputana. The Chief has no son, but sanction to adopt if and when necessary has been obtained from Government. Rule of primogeniture prevails in the State.

Area: 132 sq. miles. *Population:* 17, 560.

Revenue: Rs. 1,12,000 (Approx.)

CHIEF OFFICERS.

Karbhari and First Class Magistrate: MR. MOTISINHJI JETHISINHJI RAVAL.

Nyayadhish and Magistrate of the 2nd Class: MR. HARIPRASAD CHHABILBHAI VAISHNAV, B.A.

Besides these the State maintains a Medical Officer, an Inspector of Police, a Mahalkari, a Forest Officer and a Customs Officer.

LIEUT. HIS HIGHNESS MIR AHMAD YAR KHAN, Beglar Begi, Khan of Kalat.

Born: 1904.

Educated: Privately.

Succeeded to the Khanate: September 1933.

Area of State: 73,278 square miles.

Population: 342,101.

Salute: 19 Guns (hereditary).

His Highness belongs to the Ahmadzai family which came into power in 1666—67, when Mir Ahmad took possession of Kalat after defeating the Moghul governor.

Kalat the capital of the State is 88 miles south of Quetta and 6,783 feet above sea level. In the cold weather the seat of the ruler is at Dhadar, 16 miles from Sibi.

Wazir-Azam: E. B. WAKEFIELD, ESQ., I.C.S.

Chief Secretary: KHAN SAHIB MIAN NASIRUDDIN AHMAD.

COLONEL HIS HIGHNESS FARZAND-I-DILBAND RASIKHUL-ITIKAD DAULAT-I-INGLISHIA RAJA-I-RAJGAN MAHARAJA JAGATJIT SINGH BAHADUR, Maharaja of Kapurthala, G.C.S.I. (1911), G.C.I.E. (1918). Created G.B.E. (1927) on the occasion of his Golden Jubilee. Honorary Colonel of 3/11th Sikhs (45th Rattrays Sikhs). One of the Principal Sikh Ruling Princes in India. In recognition of the prominent assistance rendered by the State during the Great War His Highness' salute was raised to 15 guns and the annual Tribute of £9,000 a year was remitted in perpetuity by the British Government; received the Grand Cross of the Legion d'Honneur from the French Government in 1924, possesses also Grand Cross of the Order of the Star of Roumania, Grand Cordon of the Order of the Nile, Grand Cordon of the Order of Morocco, Grand Cordon of the Order of Tunis, Grand Cross of the Order of Chili, Grand Cross of the Order of the Sun of Peru, Grand Cross of the Order of Cuba; twice represented Indian Princes and India on the League of Nations in 1926 and 1927, celebrated the Golden Jubilee of his reign in 1927.

Born: 24th November 1872; son of His Highness the late Raja-i-Rajgan Kharak Singh of Kapurthala.

Heir-Apparent: SIRI TIKKA RAJA PARAMJIT SINGH.

Chief Minister: DIWAN SIR ABDUL HAMID, KT., C.I.E., O.B.E., K.B., BAR.-AT-LAW.

Area of State: 652 square miles.

Population: 316,757.

Revenue: Rs. 36,00,000.

Address: Kapurthala State, Punjab, India.

RAJA SHRI BALABHADRA NARAYAN BHUNJ DEO, Ruling Chief of the Keonjhar State, Orissa.

Born: On the 26th December 1905.

Ascended the Gadi on the 12th August 1926.

Educated: At the Rajkumar College, Raipur, C. P.

Married: In June 1929, Rani Saheba Srimati Manoja Manjari Devi, daughter of the Raja & Ruling Chief of the Kharsawan State, Orissa.

Heir: TIKAYAT SHRI NRUSINGHA NARAYAN BHUNJ DEO.

Area of the State: 3,217 square miles. *Population:* 460,647. *Gross revenue:* Rs. 15,05,415.

CHIEF EXECUTIVE OFFICER.

Diwan: RAI BAHADUR JUGAL KISHORE TRIPATHI, M.A.

OTHER PRINCIPAL OFFICERS.

Forest Officer: MR. E. S. HIGHER.

State Judge: RAI SAHEB SASHIBHUSAN SARKAR.

State Engineer: RAI SAHEB JADAB CHANDRA TALPATRA.

Chief Medical Officer and Jail Superintendent: DR. D. C. SEALY.

Sadar Sub-Division: BABU KRISHNA CHARAN MAHANTY, B.A., B.L., S.D.O.

Champua Sub-Division: BABU RAGHUNANDAN TRIVEDI, B.A., B.L., S.D.O.

Anandpur Sub-Division: BABU KANHAICHARAN DAS, S.D.O.

Superintendent of Police: BABU PRADYUMNA KUMAR BANERJEE.

HIS HIGHNESS MIR ALI NAWAZ KHAN, Ruler of Khairpur State.

Born: 9th August 1884.

Ascended the Gadi: 25th June 1921.

Educated at the Aitchison College, Lahore, and later privately in England.

He comes of the Baloch family called Talpur.

Heir-Apparent: Mir Faiz Mahomed Khan.

Khairpur is a first class State. It is the only State in Sind. The Ruler is entitled to a salute of 15 guns outside and 17 guns inside the State.

Area: 6,050 square miles, a large portion of which is desert.

Population: 227,168.

Current annual income Rs. 15 Lakhs.

Minister: J. M. SLADEN, ESQ., I.C.S.

HIS HIGHNESS MAHARAJA DHIRAJ MIRZA MAHARAO SHRI KHENGARJI SAVAI BAHADUR, G.C.S.I., G.C.I.E., Maharao of Kutch.

Born in 1866. *Succeeded to the Gadi* in 1876 and was invested with full powers in 1885.

Attended the Imperial Conference, London, and the League of Nations, Geneva, in 1921. Attended the Round Table Conference, 1931.

Education: Privately educated.

Heir-Apparent: MAHARAJ KUMAR SHRI VIJAYARAJJI.

Area: 8,249.5 square miles, excluding the Runn which is about 9,000 square miles.

Revenue: About Rs. 32,00,000.

Population: 514,307.

Salute: Permanent 17 guns; Local 19 guns.

Dewan: SURYASHANKAR D. MEHTA, B.A., Bar.-at-Law.

OFFICERS.

Naib Dewan: JADURAM P. BHATT, B.A., LL.B.

Revenue Commissioner: H. H. DIVAN, B.A.

Police Commissioner: KHAN BAHADUR ABDUL RASHID KHAN.

Chief Judge, Varishta Court: PARVATISHANKAR M. BHATT.

THE Rulers of Lathi State, which is situated in Kathiawar, are Gohel Rajputs and descendants of Sarangji one of the sons of the famous Sejakji the common ancestor of Bhavnagar, Palitana and Lathi Houses. The present Thakoresaheb Shree Prahladsinhji is about the 26th in descent from Sarangji, who was famous for his glorious and chivalric deeds in Kathiawar. He is the grandson of the Thakoresaheb Sursinhji, best known as "Kalapi" whose poetic genius has shed a lustre over the literary life of modern Gujarat.

Born : 31st March 1912. *Succeeded to the Gadi* on the 14th October, 1918, on which date his father, Thakoresaheb Shree Pratapsinhji died.

Educated : at the Rajkumar College, Rajkot, and before formal installation on the 9th February, 1931, received practical administrative training in various Departments of Wankaner State under the able supervision of His Highness the Maharana Raj Saheb.

Married : Suryakunverba, daughter of the late Thakoresaheb of Kotda-Sangani situated in Kathiawar.

The Thakoresaheb made primary education free at the time of his formal installation and organized a Praja Pratinidhi Sabha to learn public opinion on matters of public interest.

Area : 41.8 square miles.
Population : 9,407.
Revenue : Rs. 1,67,970.
Rule of Primogeniture governs succession.

FAMILY MEMBERS.

K. S. MANGALSINHJI.

K. S. HARISCHANDRASINHJI.

Both are younger brothers of the Thakoresaheb.

PRINCIPAL OFFICERS.

Karbhari : KESHAVLAL K. OZA, ESQUIRE, B.A., LL.B.
Private Secretary : K. S. GAMBHIRSINHJI VIJAYSINHJI OF LATHI.
Medical Officer : MR. PRANJIVAN KANJI DAVE.
Revenue Officer : MR. GOKALDAS DEVCHAND PATEL.
Nyayadhish and First Class Magistrate : MR. MANSUKHLAL CHUNILAL MEHTA, B.A., LL.B.
Treasury Officer : MR. SHIVSINHJI R. JHALA.
Superintendent of Police : MR. GULMAHOMED H. SINDHI.

MAHARANA SHRI SIR DAULATSINHJI, K.C.S.I., K.C.I.E., THAKORE SAHEB of LIMBDI, is a direct descendant of Maharana Khetaji of Limbdi, A.D. 1486 (1542) and belongs to the Jhala Clan of Rajputs founded by Harpal Dev and the Goddess Shakti. He was adopted by the late Thakore Saheb Sir Jaswantsinhji and rules over one of the Western Indian States enjoying full powers of internal autonomy.

Born : 11th July 1868.

Accession to Gadi : 14th April 1908.

Educated : Privately.

Clubs : A Fellow of the Royal Geographical Society—Royal Empire Society—Roshanara, Delhi—Rajputana Club, Mount Abu—Willingdon Club, Bombay.

A member of the Chamber of Princes in his own right.

Salute : 9 guns.

Heir : YUVARAJ SHRI DIGVIJAYSINHJI, who is married to Raj Kumari Shri Nandkunvarba, daughter of the late H.H. Maharaja Kesharisinhji of Idar.

The State is bounded on the North by the Lakhtar State and the British Taluka of Viramgam, on the East by the British Taluka of Dholka and on the West by the Wadhwan and Chuda States.

Area of the State : 343.96 sq. miles, besides 207 miles of Barwalla territory.

Population : 40,088. *Revenue :* Rs. 9,00,000.

STATE OFFICERS.

Diwan.

RAJ KUMAR SHRI FATEHSINHJI, M.A., LL.B. (Cantab.), BAR.-AT-LAW, F.R.G.S.

Personal Secretary and Head of Female Education.

MISS (DR.) ELIZABETH SHARPE, K.H.M., F.R.G.S., etc.

Chief Medical Officer.

DR. KESHAVLAL T. DAVE, L.M. & S., etc.

Finance Secretary.

MR. TULSHIDAS J. LAVINGIA, B.A.

Political Secretary.

MR. DOLARRAI M. BUCH, B.A., LL.B.

Revenue Secretary : RANA SHRI JIWANSINHJI, M. G.B.V.C.

Educational Inspector : MR. A. D. PANDYA, B.A.

HIS HIGHNESS MAHARANA SHRI VIRBHADRASINHJI, RAJAJI SAHEB of Lunawada State.

H. H. belongs to the illustrious clan of Solanki Rajputs, and is descended from Sidhraj Jaysinh Dev of Anhilwad Patan, once the Emperor of Gujarat, Cutch and Kathiawar.

Born 1910. *Ascended the Gadi :* 1930.

Educated: At Mayo College, Ajmer.

Married : In 1931, Rani Saheb Shri Manharkunverba, daughter of Capt. H.H. Maharana Raj Saheb Shri Amarsinhji, K.C.I.E., of Wankaner State.

Area of State : 388 square miles.
Population : 95,162. *Revenue :* Rs. 5,50,000.
Dynastic Salute : 9 guns.

PRINCIPAL OFFICERS.

Dewan :
TRIBHOVONDAS J. RAJA, M.A., LL.B.
Samant Officer and Police Commissioner :
K. S. PRAVINSINHJI.
Rajkharch Officer : K. S. VIRVIKRAMSINHJI.
Sarnyayadhish : MAGANLAL L. DESAI, B.A., LL.B.
Political Secretary : RAJNIKANT J. ERRUNZA, B.A. (Hons.).
Nyayadhish and Educational Inspector : VADILAL A. MEHTA, B.A., LL.B.
Police and Excise Superintendent : MANUBHA N. RANA.
Chief Medical Officer : NENSHI D. SHAH, M.B.,B.S.
Forest Officer : MOHANLAL T. JAINI.
Custom Officer : HATHISINHJI M. SOLANKI.
Head Master, S. K. High School : RAMNIKLAL G.MODI, M.A.
Electrical Engineer : MAGANLAL B. PANCHAL.

SHAIKH SAHEB MOHMAD JEHANGEERMIAN, SHAIKH SAHIB of Mangrol.

Born : 29th October 1860.

Accession : 29th June 1908.

Educated : Privately and at the Rajkumar College, Rajkot.

Heir-Apparent : SAHEBZADA SHAIKH MOHAMED ABDUL KHALIQ SAHIB, has four other sons and five daughters.

Area : 144 square miles including about 67 square miles non-jurisdictional territory.

Revenue : Rs. 6½ Lacs.

Mangrol Chiefship is an Administration having plenary jurisdictional powers analogus to that of second class States as known in Kathiawar. Its relations with Junagadh of Political Subordination are mediatized by the British Government. This question is still under consideration by Government for final elucidation. It is styled as a "Mediatized Taluka under Junagadh."

PRINCIPAL OFFICERS.

Chief Karbhari : S. ALTAF HUSAIN.
Political Officer and Sir Nyayadhish : KANTILAL M. VASAVADA, B.A., LL.B.
Huzur Assistant : SHAIKH MD. HUSAIN.
Revenue Commissioner : MADHAVLAL S. MEHTA, B.A.
Chief Medical Officer : DR. G. G. GATHA, L.M. & S.
Private Secretary : K. S. ABDUL AZIZ.
Customs Officer : FASHIULHAQ Z. ABBASEY.
Educational Inspector : MD. MURTAZAKHAN.
Engineer : A. K. PATEL, B.E.
Head Master : IQUAN HUSAIN, B.A., LL.B.
Electrical Engineer : M. S. SAYED.

RAOLJI SHREE SAJJANSINHJI, the present Ruler of Mansa State. He is 26 years of age and succeeded to the Gadi of Mansa on the death of his father on 4th January 1934.

Educated : At the Princes' Mayo College, Ajmer.

Mansa is by origin, descent and repute an ancient and important State of the Sabarkantha (old Mahikantha) Agency having political relationship with the Government of India through the Hon'ble the A. G. G. The ruling house of Mansa is lineally descended from the illustrious Vanraj Chavada who in 764 A.D. ruled both Gujarat and Kathiawar with his capital at Patan, according to a statement of an Arabian traveller quoted in the -Mala, he was one of the four great kings of the world.

The late lamented Ruler Raolji Shree Takhtasinhji ruled Mansa 37 years. During his beneficent regime the State progressed in ariety of ways. He constructed many public buildings, temples a magnificent Darbargarh (State Palace). Interested as he was he development of agricultural and natural resources, he induced cultivators to sink new wells every year and himself took great rest in the plantation of mango trees on a very large scale which ed largely to the fertility of the soil and the prosperity of the State. visited Europe in 1928 and while in England attended the sittings he Butler Committee on Indian States.

The eldest sister of the present Ruler is married to the Raja eb of Bansda and the younger to the Yuvaraj Saheb of Lakhtar. of his younger brothers are studying law in England.

Average Annual Income : Rs. 1,80,000. *Population :* 17,000.

Mansa is the capital of the State and is situated about three miles the railway. Electric lighting has been introduced in the capital. State also maintains water works, a flour mill, a decent library one dispensary for the comfort of the subjects. Medical treatment attendance are given free to the people of the State. Primary ation is also provided for in the State.

PRINCIPAL OFFICERS OF THE STATE.

neral Adviser: RAJKUMAR SHREE YESHWANTSINHJI, second brother e ruler, has got Higher Diploma of the Princes' Mayo College.

wan : RANCHHODLAL M. MEHTA, ESQ.

yayadhish : VADILAL M. SHAH, ESQ., B.A., LL.B.

lace Medical Officer : C. P. BHATTA, ESQ., L.C.P.S.

ate Medical Officer : S. V. MOHILE, ESQ., M.B., B.S.

f Riyasat Officer : MOHANSINHJI K. KHER, ESQ.

venue Officer : BHAVSINHJI PARMAR, ESQ.

MAHARAJA PRATAP CHANDRA BHANJ DEO, Maharaja of Mayurbhanj.

Born : February, 1901.

Succeeded to the Gadi on the 23rd April 1928 on the demise of his elder brother Lieutenant Maharaja Purna Chandra Bhanj Deo.

The Maharaja was admitted into the Chamber of Princes by his own right in March 1931 by the Government of India.

Educated : At the Mayo College, Ajmere, and Muir Central College, Allahabad.

Married : On the 25th November 1925, the daughter of Kumar Sirdar Singhji and grand-daughter of the late Rajadhiraj Sir Nahar Singhji, K.C.I.E., of Shahpura in Rajputana.

Heir-Apparent : TIKAIT PRADEEP CHANDRA BHANJ DEO.
Area of State : 4,243 square miles.
Population : 889,603.
Revenue : Rs. 26,60,384.
Salute : Permanent salute of 9 guns.

PRINCIPAL OFFICERS.

Dewan & Chief Judge of the High Court :
DR. P. K. SEN, M.A. (Cal.), M.A., LL.D. (Cantab.), Barrister-at-Law.

Other Judges of the High Court :
MR. S. N. MUKHERJI, B.L.
MR. A. K. CHATTERJI, B.L.

Chief Revenue Officer (Excise, Income Tax and Zemindary) :
MR. P. M. MUKHERJI, B.A.

Land Revenue Officer :
MR. S. K. CHATTERJI, B.A.

Chief Engineer (P.W.D.) : MR. F. D. WELLWOOD, M.I., Mun. & CYE.

Forest Officer : MR. F. B. GAGLIARDI, M.R.A.C., M.E.F.A.

Director of Primary Education and Cottage Industries :
RAI SAHEB B. C. PATNAIK.

Examiner of Accounts : MR. J. G. MUKHERJI, B.A.

Superintendent of Police : MR. R. C. DASH.

Chief Medical Officer and Superintendent of Central Jail :
DR. C. M. SINHA, M.B.

Director of Industrial and Economic Survey :
MR. R. G. DAS, M.A., B.L.

State Archæologist : MR. P. ACHARYA, B.Sc., M.R.A.S.

RAOLJI SHREE SAJJANSINHJI, the present Ruler of Mansa State. He is 26 years of age and succeeded to the Gadi of Mansa on the death of his father on 4th January 1934.

Educated: At the Princes' Mayo College, Ajmer.

Mansa is by origin, descent and repute an ancient and important State of the Sabarkantha (old Mahikantha) Agency having political relationship with the Government of India through the Hon'ble the A. G. G. The ruling house of Mansa is lineally descended from the illustrious Vanraj Chavada who in 764 A.D. ruled both Gujarat and Kathiawar with his capital at Patan, and according to a statement of an Arabian traveller quoted in the Ras-Mala, he was one of the four great kings of the world.

The late lamented Ruler Raolji Shree Takhtasinhji ruled Mansa for 37 years. During his beneficent regime the State progressed in a variety of ways. He constructed many public buildings, temples and a magnificent Darbargarh (State Palace). Interested as he was in the development of agricultural and natural resources, he induced the cultivators to sink new wells every year and himself took great interest in the plantation of mango trees on a very large scale which added largely to the fertility of the soil and the prosperity of the State. He visited Europe in 1928 and while in England attended the sittings of the Butler Committee on Indian States.

The eldest sister of the present Ruler is married to the Raja Saheb of Bansda and the younger to the Yuvaraj Saheb of Lakhtar. Two of his younger brothers are studying law in England.

Average Annual Income: Rs. 1,80,000. *Population:* 17,000.

Mansa is the capital of the State and is situated about three miles from the railway. Electric lighting has been introduced in the capital. The State also maintains water works, a flour mill, a decent library and one dispensary for the comfort of the subjects. Medical treatment and attendance are given free to the people of the State. Primary education is also provided for in the State.

PRINCIPAL OFFICERS OF THE STATE.

General Adviser: RAJKUMAR SHREE YESHWANTSINHJI, second brother of the ruler, has got Higher Diploma of the Princes' Mayo College.
Dewan: RANCHHODLAL M. MEHTA, ESQ.
Nyayadhish: VADILAL M. SHAH, ESQ., B.A., LL.B.
Palace Medical Officer: C. P. BHATTA, ESQ., L.C.P.S.
State Medical Officer: S. V. MOHILE, ESQ., M.B., B.S.
Raj Riyasat Officer: MOHANSINHJI K. KHER, ESQ.
Revenue Officer: BHAVSINHJI PARMAR, ESQ.

MAHARAJA PRATAP CHANDRA BHANJ DEO, Maharaja of Mayurbhanj.

Born : February, 1901.

Succeeded to the Gadi on the 23rd April 1928 on the demise of his elder brother Lieutenant Maharaja Purna Chandra Bhanj Deo.

The Maharaja was admitted into the Chamber of Princes by his own right in March 1931 by the Government of India.

Educated : At the Mayo College, Ajmere, and Muir Central College, Allahabad.

Married : On the 25th November 1925, the daughter of Kumar Sirdar Singhji and grand-daughter of the late Rajadhiraj Sir Nahar Singhji, K.C.I.E., of Shahpura in Rajputana.

Heir-Apparent : TIKAIT PRADEEP CHANDRA BHANJ DEO.
Area of State : 4,243 square miles.
Population : 889,603.
Revenue : Rs. 26,60,384.
Salute : Permanent salute of 9 guns.

PRINCIPAL OFFICERS.

Dewan & Chief Judge of the High Court :
DR. P. K. SEN, M.A. (Cal.), M.A., LL.D. (Cantab.), Barrister-at-Law.

Other Judges of the High Court :
MR. S. N. MUKHERJI, B.L.
MR. A. K. CHATTERJI, B.L.

Chief Revenue Officer (Excise, Income Tax and Zemindary) :
MR. P. M. MUKHERJI, B.A.

Land Revenue Officer :
MR. S. K. CHATTERJI, B.A.

Chief Engineer (P.W.D.) : MR. F. D. WELLWOOD, M.I., Mun. & CYE.

Forest Officer : MR. F. B. GAGLIARDI, M.R.A.C., M.E.F.A.

Director of Primary Education and Cottage Industries :
RAI SAHEB B. C. PATNAIK.

Examiner of Accounts : MR. J. G. MUKHERJI, B.A.

Superintendent of Police : MR. R. C. DASH.

Chief Medical Officer and Superintendent of Central Jail :
DR. C. M. SINHA, M.B.

Director of Industrial and Economic Survey :
MR. R. G. DAS, M.A., B.L.

State Archæologist : MR. P. ACHARYA, B.Sc., M.R.A.S.

MEHERBAN MADHAVRAO HARIHARRAO *alias* BABASAHEB PATWARDHAN, the present ruler of Miraj Junior State, is the 2nd son of late Shrimant Balasaheb Patwardhan, Chief of Kurundwad Senior. He was selected by the Bombay Government for the chiefship of the Miraj Junior State, and was adopted in December 1899, by Lady Parwatibaisaheb, the mother of the late Chief Laxmanrao Annasaheb, who died prematurely on the 7th of February 1899.

Born: In 1889.

Educated: At the Rajkumar College, Rajkot.

Assumption of Powers: Was invested with full powers on the 17th of March 1909.

Caste: Is a Chitpawan Brahman.

Marriage: Married to Shrimati Thakutaisaheb, daughter of the late Meherban Krishnarao Madhavrao Peshwe of Barreilly. Has three sons and three daughters.

Heir-Apparent: Eldest son Kumar Shrimant Chintamanrao *alias* Balasaheb, born in 1909 on the 3rd of December. Married.

Other sons: 2nd son Kumar Hariharrao *alias* Dadasaheb, born in 1911, on 23rd May.

3rd son Kumar Krishnarao *alias* Appasaheb, born in 1916, on 9th May.

Recreation: Daily Muscular Exercise, Tennis and Shikar.

Area: 196½ square miles.

Population: 40,686.

Revenue: Rs. 3,68,515.

Tribute: The State pays an Annual Tribute of Rs. 7,388-12-6 to the British Government.

Capital Town: Budhgaon; (5 miles from Sangli).

Official: Rao Bahadur V. V. Yargop, B.A., LL.B., Diwan of the State, is the Ruler's sole Minister.

Other particulars: The Ruler received the Silver Coronation Delhi Darbar Medal in 1911.

He is entitled to be received by the Viceroy.

The Miraj Junior State has been placed in direct political relations with the Government of India, with effect from the 1st of April 1933. The Resident at Kolhapur acts as Agent to the Governor-General of India, for this State.

This State is a full-powered State. It can try its own subjects as well as the subjects of other States for capital offences and can make its own legislature.

HIS HIGHNESS MAHARAJA SHREE LUKHDHIRJI BAHADUR, K.C.S.I., Maharaja of Morvi.

Born : 1876.
Ascended the Gadi ; 1922.

Educated : Privately in India and England.

Heir : YUVARAJ SHREE MAHENDRASINHJI. Age 16.

Second Son : MAHARAJ KUMAR SHREE KALIKAKUMAR. Age 15.

Area of State : 822 square miles. Morvi State has a district in Cutch also.

Population : 113,024 in 1931. (Increase during 1921-1931, 17 per cent).

Average revenue : Rs. 40,00,000. *Salute :* 11 guns.

Chief Port in the State : Navlakhi. Regular periodical service of ocean-going steamers from Europe, Japan, Java as well as Indian Ports.

Morvi Railway, solely the property of the State, 102 miles.
Morvi Tramway, 94 miles.

State Postal Service, post offices in over 50 per cent. of the State villages ; letter-boxes in a further 20 per cent. of them.

State Telephone, over 40 per cent. of the villages directly connected with the capital city.

Industries in the State : Cotton Ginning and Pressing Factory, Parshuram Pottery Works, Ltd., Morvi Salt Works, a Spinning and Weaving Mill nearing completion, Railway Workshop and Electric Power House.

Free primary and secondary education.

STATE COUNCIL.

Senior Member & Acting President :

M. P. BAXI, B.A., LL.B.

Junior Member :

P. P. JADEJA.

THAKORE SAHEB SHRI HARISHCHANDRASINHJI of Muli.

Born : 10th July 1899.

Ascended the Gadi on 3rd December 1905 when a minor on the death of his father, and is the 21st descendant from Lagdhirji I, who founded the Gadi of Muli in Kathiawar.

Education : The Thakore Saheb received his education in the Rajkumar College, Rajkot, and passed the Diploma Examination in 1917 and subsequently acquired the administrative experience under the care of His late Highness the Maharajah Jam Shri Sir Ranjitsinhji Saheb Bahadur, G.C.S.I., G.B.E., Maharajah Jam Saheb of Nawanagar, before his formal investiture which took place on the 20th June 1918.

Married : The Thakore Saheb married Shri Nandkunverba, daughter of Rao Bahadur Raj Bijesinhji of Kunadi under Kotah on the 19th May 1920 and has two sons. Eldest is Yuvraj Shri Dharmendrasinhji and younger is Rajkumar Shri Jayendrasinhji.

Heir : Yuvraj Shri Dharmendrasinhji.

Area of State : 133.2 square miles. *Population :* 17,109.

Revenue : About Rs. 7,50,000 inclusive of the alienations and about Rs. 1,50,000 exclusive of alienations.

The State enjoys the powers of the old 3rd Class State.

The Thakore Saheb was selected by the Government to represent the Third and Fourth Class States of Kathiawar at the inauguration of the Chamber of Princes, the opening ceremony of which was performed by His Royal Highness the Duke of Connaught on the 8th February 1921. He is a member of the Rajkumar College Council.

Family History : The rulers of the Muli State belong to the illustrious race of the Parmar Rajputs, from which are descended the most eminent Princes like Vikramaditya known in history as Vir Vikram, Raja Bhoj, Jagdev Parmar and others. The Sodha Parmars of Muli arrived in this Peninsula with Lagdhirji as their head in Samvat year 1215, *i.e.*, 1159 A.D. They first proceeded from Tharparkar to Than and Chotila and finally settled themselves on the banks of the river Bhogavo, where the town of Muli at present stands.

COLONEL HIS HIGHNESS MAHARAJA SIR SRI KRISHNARAJA WADIYAR BAHADUR, G.C.S.I., G.B.E., Maharaja of Mysore.

Born: 4th June 1884.

Succeeded: 1st February 1895.

Educated: Privately.

Invested with full ruling powers: 1902. Celebrated Silver Jubilee of his reign: 8th August 1927.

Area of the State: 29,474.82 square miles.

Population: 6,557,302.

Address: The Palace, Mysore, Bangalore; and Fern Hill (Nilgiris).

EXECUTIVE COUNCIL.

Dewan of Mysore:

AMIN-UL-MULK SIR MIRZA M. ISMAIL, KT., C.I.E., O.B.E.

Members:

RAJAMANTRAPRAVINA DIWAN BAHADUR K. MATTHAN, B.A.

S. P. RAJAGOPALACHARI, B.A., B.L.

Private Secretary to His Highness:

SIR CHARLES TODHUNTER, K.C.S.I., J.P.

Huzur Secretary to His Highness:

RAJASABHABHUSHANA T. THUMBOO CHETTY, B.A.

HIS HIGHNESS RAJA VIKRAM SINGHJI BAHADUR, the present Ruler of Narsingarh State, C.I. The ruling family of Narsingarh are Umat Rajputs, an offshoot of the Parmars, the former Lords of Malva.

Born: On 21st September 1909. Succeeded his father His Highness Raja Sir Arjun Singhji Bahadur, K.C.I.E., on the 23rd April, 1924. Invested with full ruling powers on the 7th October, 1929.

Educated: At the Daly College, Indore, and the Mayo College, Ajmer, and passed the Diploma Examination from the latter College in April, 1927. After leaving the College, he went to Bangalore to receive administrative training under the Mysore Government and stayed there for one complete year. In July 1928 His Highness proceeded on a short trip to Europe and visited England, Scotland and France. This trip was mainly arranged to impart his liberal education a finishing touch.

Married: A daughter of the Heir-Apparent of the Kutch State in June 1929.

His Highness undertook a second continental tour in April 1933, for reasons of health as also to familiarize himself with the various system of Government and to find out ways and means of improving the resources of his State. This tour lasted for more than six months, and his itinerary included France, Italy, Vienna, Switzerland and the Island of Great Britain.

The State pays no tribute to the British Government, but pays annually through the British Government Rs. 85,000 (Salim Shahi) to the Indore State and receives annually Rs. 1,200 from the Gwalior State and Rs. 5,102 from the Dewas Senior and Junior States.

Area of the State: 734 square miles.

Annual income: Rs. 9,50,000.

Population: 113,873 souls according to the Census of 1931.

Salute: 11 guns.

The Administration of the State is carried on by a Council of State which consists of four Members, His Highness being the President and the Dewan Vice-President. The State has an independent High Court.

CAPTAIN HIS HIGHNESS MAHARAJA SHRI DIGVIJAYSINHJI RANJITSINHJI JADEJA, Maharaja Jam Saheb of Nawanagar.

Born: 1895. The adopted son of His late Highness Maharaja Shri Ranjitsinhji Vibhaji Jadeja.

Ascended the Gadi on 2nd April 1933.

Educated: Raj Kumar College, Rajkot, Malvern College and University College, London.

Unmarried.

Commissioned in 1919; Regiment 5th/6th Rajputana Rifles Napiers; rose to the rank of Captain.

Specialised courses: Small Arms Course, Lewis Gun Course; Tactics, Machine Gun Course and the Searchlight Course.

Recreation: Racquets, Cricket, Squash, Tennis, Shooting.
Address: Jamnagar, Nawanagar, Kathiawar.
Area of State: 3,791 sq. miles.
Population: 423,192.
Revenue: Rs. 94,48,000.
Salute: 15 guns.
Chief Port: Bedi Bunder.

PRINCIPAL OFFICERS.

Dewan: KHAN BAHADUR MERWANJI PESTONJI.
Military Secretary and Home Member: LT.-COL. R. K. HIMATSINHJI.
Revenue Secretary: GOKALBHAI B. DESAI, ESQ.
Port Commissioner: LT.-COMMANDER W. G. A. BOURNE, R.N.
Manager and Engineer-in-Chief: F. C. NISSEN, ESQ., J. D. RAILWAY.

RAJA SHRI KISHORE CHANDRA MARDRAJ HARICHANDAN, Ruling Chief of Nilgiri State, Orissa.

Born: 2nd February 1904.

Ascended the Gadi: On 2nd February 1925.

Educated: At the Mayo College, Ajmere.

Married: On the 28th February, 1922, the daughter of His Highness Raja Sir Pratap Singh, K.C.I.E, of Alirajpur, Central India and again on the 19th June 1925, the daughter of ThakurSaheb of Thakurgaon (Ranchi).

Heir-Apparent: Tikait Shri Rajendra Chandra Mardraj Harichandan.

Area of State: 284 square miles.

Population: 68,598.

Gross Revenue: Rs. 2,31,687.

CHIEF EXECUTIVE OFFICER.

Diwan: Babu Krishna Chandra Ghosh, B.A., (Retired Deputy Magistrate and Deputy Collector).

OTHER PRINCIPAL OFFICERS.

Assistant Diwan: Babu Mohini Mohan Mukherjee, B.L.

Revenue Officer: Babu Krishna Prasad Mahapatra.

Private Secretary: Dr. M. C. Das, L.M.S.

Chief Medical Officer and Deputy Superintendent of Jail:—Dr. Motilal Ghosh, M.B.

Deputy Superintendent of Police: Babu G. N. Mahapatra.

Forest Officer: G. Gupta, Esq., B.C.E., A.M. Inst., Sane (Eng.), Member, Federation of Sewage Works Association (U. S. A.)

Zemindary Manager: Babu Fakir Mohan Das, B.A.

HIS HIGHNESS SARAMAD-I-RAJAHAI, BUNDELKHAND SHRI SAWAI MAHENDRA MAHARAJA SHRI VIR SINGH DEV BAHADUR of Orchha.

Born: 14th April 1899.

Ascended the Gadi: On the 4th March 1930.

Educated: In the Daly College, Indore; Rajkumar College, Rajkot; and Mayo College, Ajmer; also received administrative training in the Saugor District in the Central Provinces.

Married: A sister of His Highness the Maharana of Wadhwan (Kathiawar) on the 4th March 1919, who is dead; subsequently married a grand-daughter of His Highness the Maharaja of Gondal.

Heir-Apparent: RAJA BAHADUR SHRI DEVENDRA SINGH JU DEV.

Area of State: 2,080 square miles. *Population:* 314,661.

Revenue: About 17 lakhs. *Salute:* 15 guns.

STATE CABINET.

President:

HIS HIGHNESS.

Members:

SAWAI RAO RAJA GENERAL KARAN SINGH JU DEV.
RAO RAJA COL. JAYENDRA SINGH JU DEV.
RAO RAJA RAI BAHADUR PT. SHYAM BEHARI MISRA, M.A., (*Chief Adviser*).
MAJOR B. P. PANDE, B.A., LL.B., F.R.E.S., (*Dewan*).
MR. A. K. PANDE, B.A., (*Home Minister*).
MAJOR SAJJAN SINGH, (*Conservator of Forests*).
MR. M. N. ZUTSHI, B.A., (*Private Secretary*).

MAJOR HIS HIGHNESS ZUBD-TUL-MULK DEWAN MAHAKHAN SHRI TALEY MUHOMMED KHAN BAHADUR, G.C.I.E., K.C.V.O., Nawab of Palanpur.

Born : On the 7th July 1883.

Educated : Privately.

Ascended the Gadi, 1918.

His Highness is a Yusufzai Lohani Pathan.

H. H. is the 29th Ruler of the House.

Palanpur is a very ancient Muslim State in India.

His Highness went as a Delegate to the 9th Assembly of the League of Nations held at Geneva in the month of September 1928.

Heir : NAWABZADA IQBAL MUHOMMED KHAN BAHADUR.

Area of State : 1,768.89 square miles.

Population : 264,179.

Revenue : Rs. 10,62,466.

Salute : 13 guns.

Two high roads from Ahmedabad pass through the State and a considerable trade in cloth, grain, sugar and rice is carried on. The capital is Palanpur situated on the B. B. & C. I. Railway. It is a very old settlement of which mention was made in the 8th century.

HIS HIGHNESS THAKORE SAHEB SHRI SIR BAHADURSINHJI, K.C.I.E., Thakore Saheb of Palitana.

Family : Gohel Rajput.

Born : 1900. Year of Succession 1905. Formally installed in 1919.

Education : Rajkumar College, Rajkot, Preparatory School at Rugby and the Shrewsbury Public-School, England.

Married : In 1919 to Kunvari Shri Sitaba Saheb, eldest daughter of Maharaj Kumar Shri Bhojrajji Saheb of Gondal.

Clubs : Willingdon Sports Club, Bombay, Rajkot Gymkhana Club, Rajkot.

Recreations : Cricket, Tennis, Football, Hockey, Shooting and Riding.

Other Activities : A member of the Chamber of Princes in his own right. A member of the Rajkumar College Council, Rajkot. Captain of the Gohelwad Cricket XI since 1921. Captained the W.I.S.C.A.'s team in the All-India Tournament in 1932 and won the Challenge Cup. A member of the Governing Body of the Western India States Cricket Association. Steward of the Kathiawar Race Club.

Area : 288 square miles. *Population :* 62,150 according to the Census of 1931. *Revenue :* Rs. 12,00,000. *Salute :* 9 guns—Permanent Hereditary.

Principal Features : Palitana is noted for its breed of typical Kathi Horses which are particularly beautiful and in which its Rulers have been taking a keen and personal interest since the last 60 years. It possesses one of the oldest studs in India.

Reforms Introduced by His Highness the present Thakore Saheb :

Establishment of 2 new villages for convenience of cultivators—Grant of liberal scholarships for secondary and higher education and medical relief to almost all villages by the introduction of Medical Aid Scheme—Establishment of new schools—Introduction of English Education in Girls' School—Encouragement to Trade and Industries—Electrification of the whole town at a total cost of Rs. 2,00,000—Free supply of pipe water at a few convenient centres at a total cost of about Rs. 1,00,000—Establishment of the People's Representative Assembly composed of 20 elected and 20 nominated members—Introduction of a scheme for the benefit of the cultivators on the lines of the Co-operative Societies in British India—Telephone service in important villages and the Child Marriage Restraint Act—Abolition of the toll tax.

PRINCIPAL OFFICER.

Dewan : K. S. MULRAJSINHJI.

LIEUTENANT-GENERAL HIS HIGHNESS FARZAND-I-KHAS DOULAT-I-INGLISHIA, MANSUR-UL-ZAMAN AMIR-UL-UMRA MAHARAJA DHIRAJ RAJ RAJESHWAR SHRI MAHARAJA-I-RAJGAN SIR BUPINDER SINGH MOHINDER BAHADUR YADU VANSHAVATANS BHATTI KUL BHUSHAN, G.C.S.I., G.C.I.E., G.C.V.O., G.B.E., A.D.C., the present Ruler of Patiala, which is the largest of the Phulkian States and the premier State in the Punjab, was *born* in 1891, *succeeded* in 1900, and *assumed* the reins of Government in 1909, on attaining majority. His Highness the Maharaja Dhiraj enjoys at present a personal salute of 19 guns and he and his successors the distinction of exemption from presenting Nazar to the Viceroy in Durbar in perpetuity. The principal crops are grain, barley, wheat, sugarcane, rapeseed, cotton and tobacco. The State possesses valuable forests and is rich in antiquities. One hundred and thirty-eight miles of broad-gauge railway line comprising two sections—from Rajpura to Bhatinda and from Sirhind to Rupar—have been constructed by the State at its own cost. His Highness maintains a Contingent of two Regiments of Cavalry and four Battalions of Infantry, one Battery of Horse Artillery.

The State maintains a first grade College which imparts free education to State Subjects. Primary education is also free throughout the State.

Area: 5,932 square miles.

Population: 1,625,520.

Gross Income: Rupees One crore and thirty-five Lakhs.

Since the State has entered into alliance with the British Government in 1809, it has rendered help to the British Government on all critical occasions such as Gurkha War, Sikh War, Mutiny of 1857, Afghan War of 1878-79, Tirah and N. W. F. Campaign of 1897. On the outbreak of the European War His Highness placed the entire resources of his State at the disposal of His Majesty the King-Emperor and offered his personal services. Again in 1919 on the outbreak of hostilities with Afghanistan His Highness served personally on the Frontier on the Staff of the General Officer Commanding and the Imperial Service Contingent saw active service towards Kohat and Quetta Fronts. For his services on the N. W. F. His Highness was mentioned in despatches.

His Highness was selected by His Excellency the Viceroy to represent the Ruling Princes of India at the Imperial War Conference and Imperial War Cabinet in June, 1918, and during his stay in Europe His Highness paid visits to all the different and principal Fronts in Belgium, France, Italy and Egypt (Palestine) and received the following decorations from the allied Sovereigns and Governments :—

(*a*) Grand Cordon of the Order de Leopold,

(*b*) Grand Cross of the Legion of Honour, France,

(*c*) Grand Cross of the Order of the Crown of Italy,

(*d*) Grand Cordon of the Order of the Nile,

(*e*) Grand Cross of the Order of the Crown of Roumania, and

(*f*) Grand Cross of the Order of St. Saviour of Grees (1926).

His Highness represented the Indian Princes at the League of Nations in 1925. In 1926 he was elected Chancellor of the Chamber of Princes (Narendra Mandal). He was re-elected Chancellor of the Chamber in 1927-28-29-30. In 1930 His Highness led the Princes' delegation to the Round Table Conference. His Highness was again elected Chancellor of the Chamber of Princes in 1933.

CAPTAIN MEHERBAN MALOJIRAO MUDHOJIRAO NAIK NIMBALKAR (Maratha), Ruler of Phaltan.

Born: 11th Sept. 1896.

Educated at: Kolhapur and Rajkot, obtained Diploma of the Rajkumar College.

Married: In 1913 S. Laxmidevi, daughter of Shrimant Raje Shambhusingrao Jadhav, First Class Sardar of Malegaon B.K. in the Poona District.

Heir: SHRIMANT PRATAPSINH *alias* BAPUSAHEB.

Date of Succession: 15th November 1917. Phaltan State dates its origin as far back as the middle of 13th century. The State has full control over its administration, having the right to inflict capital punishment and to enact its own laws.

Area of State: 397 sq. miles.

Population: 58,761.

Revenue: Rs. 4,58,095.

EXECUTIVE COUNCIL.

President:

K. V. GODBOLE, Esq., B.A., LL.B., *Dewan.*

Vice-President:

S. M. DANI, Esq., B.A., LL.B., *Finance Member.*

Members:

S. H. KHER, Esq., B.A., LL.B., *Revenue Member.*

B. L. LIKHITE, Esq., M.A., LL.B., *Home Member.*

HIS HIGHNESS MAHARAJA SHRI SIR NATWARSINHJI BAHADUR, K.C.S.I., Maharaja Rana Saheb of Porbandar.

Born : 1901.
Succeeded to the gadi : 1908.

Educated : At the Rajkumar College, Rajkot.

Married : In 1920 Kunvari Shri Rupaliba, M.B.E., daughter of His Highness Thakore Saheb Shri Sir Daulatsinhji Bahadur, K.C.S.I., Thakore Saheb of Limbdi.

His Highness ranks fourth among the Ruling Princes of Kathiawar enjoying plenary powers.

Club : The Roshanara Club, Delhi, The Maconochie Club, Porbandar.

Area of State : 642·25 square miles. *Population :* 115,741.
Revenue : Rs. 20,00,000. *Salute :* 13 guns.

STATE OFFICERS.

Dewan : KUMAR SHRI PRATAPSINHJI RAMSINHJI.

Naib Dewan : MR. AMRITLAL T. MEHTA, B.A.,LL.B.

Private Secretary : JADEJA PRATAPSINHJI.

Judicial Secretary :
MR. BHUPATRAY M. BUCH, B.A.,LL.B.

Railway Manager : MR. H. DALE GREEN.

Chief Medical Officer :
DR. D. N. KALYANWALA, M.R.C.S. (Eng.), F.R.S.M., L.M. & S. (Bom.), etc.

Ports Commissioner :
CAPT. R. S. RAJA IYER, B.Com.

Officer Commanding the State Forces :
MAJOR UDEYSINHJI N. GOHIL.

HIS HIGHNESS NAWAB SAHEB JALALUDINKHAN BABI BAHADUR, the present Ruler of Radhanpur State, is a descendant of the illustrious Babi family who since the reign of Humayun have always been prominent in the annals of Guzerat.

Born : 1889. Invested with full powers on 27th November, 1910.

Educated : At the Rajkumar College, Rajkot, and secured the Final Diploma in the year 1909. His Highness was the first Chief in the Bombay Presidency to win the Guzerat Cup at the Pig-Sticking Meet at Bhandu, in the year 1911.

The Nawab Saheb is a member of the Chamber of Princes in his own right from the beginning.

Hereditary and permanent salute : 11 guns.

The State of Radhanpur is situated in the North of Guzerat and has 172 villages. It is a first class State in the States of Western India with full Plenary, Criminal and Civil Jurisdiction.

The State pays no tribute to the British Government or to any other Indian State, but on the contrary receives an annual Jama (tribute) amounting in all to Rs. 1,712 from some of the surrounding villages.

Area of the State : 1,150 square miles.

Population : 70,530 according to census of 1931.

Average gross revenue : Rs. 7,50,000 to 8,00,000.

Cotton, wheat, rapeseed, castorseed and different kinds of grain are the principal agricultural products.

HIS HIGHNESS THAKORE SAHEB SHRI DHARMENDRASINHJI, Thakore Saheb of Rajkot, Kathiawar.

Born: On 4th March 1910, succeeded to the Gadi on 21st April 1931.

Educated: At Rajkumar College, Rajkot, and later on in England at the High Gate School, London. He belongs to the Vibhani clan of Jadeja Rajputs and enjoys plenary powers in the administration of the State.

Area of the State: 283 sq. miles.

Population: 75,540.

Average Revenue: Rs. 12,50,000.

Dynastic Salute: 9 guns.

The Administration is carried on a Secretariat system in co-operation with Praja Pratinidhi Sabha or People's Representatives Assembly based on universal franchise with a Legislative Council and democratic Municipality linked thereto.

Rajkot town is a trade emporium, also known for its various industrial activities. It is the headquarters of the W.I.S. Agency, has a "Rajkumar" College and is served by three important Railway lines. Educationally it is a premier city in Kathiawar.

PRINCIPAL OFFICERS.

Political Secretary: DARBAR SHRI VIRAVALA.

Palace Secretary: DARBAR SHRI MADARSINHJI.

Judicial Secretary: MR. ABHECHAND G. DESAI, B.A., LL.B.

Revenue & General Secretary: MR. TRIBHUVANDAS P. BHATT.

Private Secretary: MR. DAHYABHAI B. DOSHI.

Public Works Secretary: MR. NENSHI MONJI.

Sar Nyayadhish: MR. H. R. BUCH, B.A., LL.B.

Police Superintendent: K. S. VALERAVALA.

Chief Medical Officer: DR. K. N. BAM, L.M.&S.

Educational Inspector: MR. C. A. BUCH, M.A.

Managing Engineer, Electric Supply Co.: MR. A. C. DAS.

MAJOR HIS HIGHNESS MAHARAJA SHRI VIJAYSINHJI, K.C.S.I., MAHARAJA OF RAJPIPLA.

Family : Gohel Rajput.

Born : 30th January 1890.

Date of succession : 26th September 1915.

Educated at the Rajkumar College, Rajkot, and Imperial Cadet Corp, Dehra Dun.

Has travelled extensively in Europe and America.

Clubs : Marlborough Club, London; Hurlingham Club, London; Willingdon Sports Club, Bombay; The Calcutta Club, Calcutta.

Recreations : Polo, Racing, Shooting.

Heir-Apparent : YUVARAJ SHRI RAJENDRASINHJI. *Born* 1912.

Younger Sons : Maharaj Kumar Pramodsinhji. *Born* 1915. Maharaj Kumar Indrajitsinhji. *Born* 1925.

Rajpipla is the Premier State in the Gujerat States Agency. Its Rulers enjoy full internal sovereignty.

Area of State : 1,517.50 square miles.

Population : 2,06,085 according to the Census of 1931.

Revenue : Rs. 27,00,000. *Salute :* 13 guns—Permanent Hereditary.

Indian States Forces : Infantry. Full Company of 165 men, A class first line troops. *Cavalry :* Troop of 25, B class.

Important Feature : The State possesses Cornelian and Agate mines. The famous cup of Ptolemy is known to have come from the mines at Limbodra in the Rajpipla State.

Capital : Rajpipla, a pretty little town surrounded on 3 sides by the river Karjan with a population of about 15,000 and is studded with beautiful buildings principal amongst which are the Palace, Guest House, High School and the Gymkhana.

Principal reforms introduced by His Highness the present Maharaja :

1. Making all services pensionable.
2. Extension of the Survey Settlement System to every village in the State.
3. Making Primary Education free and grant of liberal scholarships for secondary and higher education.
4. Liberal endowments for the benefit of widows and the destitute.
5. Encouragement to Trade and Industry. Introduction of the 1027 A. L. F. Variety of cotton throughout the State and development of Pressing and Ginning Industries.
6. Extension of Railways.
7. Introduction and organisation of State Forces.
8. Introduction of the Legislative Council.

Principal Officer : PHEROZE D. KOTHAVALA, Dewan.

CAPTAIN HIS HIGHNESS ALIJAH FARZAND-I-DILPIZIR-I-DAULATI-INGLISHIA, MUKHLIS-UD-DAULA, NASIR-UL-MULK, AMIR-UL-UMARA, NAWAB SYED MOHAMMAD RAZA ALI KHAN BAHADUR, MUSTAID-I-JUNG, Ruler of Rampur. The Reigning family of Rampur are Syeds and come from the famous Sadati-i-Bareha in the Muzaffarnagar District, (U. P.)

Born : 17th November 1906.

Succeeded to the Gadi : On 20th June 1930. Formal installation took place on 26th August 1930.

Educated : At the Rajkumar College, Rajkot.

Married : In 1921 the daughter of Sahebzada Sir Abdussamad Khan Bahadur, KT., C.I.E. His Highness has two sons and two daughters.

Heir-Apparent : Sahebzada Syed Murtaza Ali Khan Bahadur, born on 22nd November 1923.

His Highness is a Member of the Standing Committee of the Chamber of Princes ; is a keen sportsman and has a taste for music and fine arts; is a Patron of the Delhi Flying Club; and is a Captain in the 2 King George's Own Gurkha Rifles.

Since the creation of the State of Rampur by Nawab Sayed Ali Mohammad Khan Bahadur in the middle of the 18th century invaluable service to Moghal Emperors, alliance with the British against France in 1771 and perfect devotion to His Imperial Majesty during the Mutiny of 1857 have been the landmarks of the history of his family. During the Great War of 1914-18, Nawab Sir Syed Mohammad Hamid Ali Khan Bahadur rendered meritorious services to the British Government.

Area of State : 892.54 sq. miles. *Population :* 464,919.
Revenue : Rs. 54 lakhs. *Salute :* Permanent 15 guns.
Chief Minister : SAHEBZADA Sir ABDUSSAMAD KHAN BAHADUR, KT., C.I.E.

Political Minister : SYED BASHIR HUSAIN ZAIDI, B.A. (Cantab.), Bar-at-Law.

Judicial Minister : KHAN BAHADUR MASUD-UL-HASAN, Bar-at-Law.

Finance Minister : KHAN BAHADUR M. MOHAMMAD HASAN KHAN.
Revenue Minister : KHAN BAHADUR SYED ABOO MOHAMMAD, M.A., P.C.S.

Army Minister : COL. D. BAINBRIDGE.
Household Minister : COL. SAHEBZADA SYED HASAN RAZA KHAN BAHADUR.

COLONEL HIS HIGHNESS SIR SAJJAN SINGHJI, G.C.I.E., K.C.S.I., K.C.V.O., A.D.C. to H.R.H. the Prince of Wales, Maharaja Sahib Bahadur of Ratlam.

Born: 13th January 1880. Descended from younger branch of Jodhpur family. He is the recognised head of the Rathor clan and maintains a moral supremacy over Rajput Chiefs in Malwa.

Educated: At the Daly College at Indore and succeeded his father (Sir Ranjit Singhji, K.C.I.E.) in 1893.

Married: In 1902 a daughter of His Highness the Maharao of Cutch and in 1922, a daughter of the well-known Soda Rajput family of Jamnagar, by whom he has three daughters and two sons.

Served in European War (France) from April 1915 upto 1918; was mentioned in despatches; was presented with "Croix d' Officier of the Legion d'Honneur" by the French Government and was granted the honorary rank of Colonel in the British Army in 1918. Served in Afghan War in 1919.

Has enjoyed an international reputation as a Polo Player.

Heir-Apparent: MAHARAJKUMAR LOKENDRA SINGHJI.

Area of State: 693 square miles.

Population: 107,321.

Revenue: Rs. 10 lakhs.

Salute: 13 guns (local salute 15 guns).

Administration: Of the State is carried on with the help of a Council of which His Highness is the President and RAO BAHADUR DEVSHANKER J. DAVE, Advocate, is Dewan and Vice-President.

HIS HIGHNESS BANDHVESH MAHARAJADHIRAJA SIR GULAB SINGH BAHADUR, G.C.I.E., K.C.S.I., Maharaja of Rewa. (Rajput Baghel).

Born : 1903. Ascended the gadi in 1918; invested with ruling powers in 1922.

Educated : At the Daly College, Indore.

Married : In 1919 a sister of His Highness the Maharaja of Jodhpur, and also married in 1925 the daughter of His late Highness Maharaja Sir Madan Singh Bahadur, K.C.S.I., K.C.I.E., Ruler of Kishangarh.

The Maharaja is a noted sportsman and has shot 481 tigers.

He was a delegate to the 1st and 2nd sessions of the Round Table Conference and was also a member of the Federal Structure Committee of the Conference. He is a member of the General Council of the Daly College and of the Managing Committee of King Edward Medical School, Indore.

Heir-Apparent : SRI YUVRAJ MAHARAJ KUMAR MARTAND SINGH SAHEB (born in 1923).

Area of State : 13,000 square miles. *Population :* 1,587,445.
Revenue : Rs. 60,00,000. *Salute :* 17 guns.

Rewa is the largest and the easternmost State in the Central India Agency. The State is bounded on the North by the Banda, Allahabad and Mirzapur Districts of the U. P., on the East by the Mirzapur District and the Feudatory State of Chhota Nagpur, on the South by the Central Provinces, and on the West by the States of Maihar, Nagod, Sohawal and Kothi. It is very rich in mineral resources.

The Administration of the State on the executive side is carried on by His Highness with the assistance of a State Council of 8 members of which His Highness is the President. On the Judicial side there is a Chief Court consisting of Judges. A Raj Parishad consisting of 39 members, with the number of officials and non-officials almost equal, has also been established to advise on such matters of public interest as are referred to it. His Highness takes keen interest in the development of trade and industries in the State and with that object has instituted a State Bank.

HIS HIGHNESS MUBARIZ-UD-DOWALA NASRUT-E-JUNG NAWAB SIDI MOHOMMED HAIDER MOHOMMED YAKUT KHAN BAHADUR I, Nawab of Sachin.

Born: 11th September 1909.

Succeeded: 19th November 1930.

Married: Her Highness Arjumand Bano Nawab Nasrut Zamani Nawab Begum, the eldest sister of the Nawab of Loharu, on 7th July 1930.

Educated: At home and later at the Rajkumar College, Rajkot.

Brothers: Captain Nawabzada Sidi Mohommed Suroor Khan Bahadur. Lieut. Nawabzada Sidi Mohommed Freeman Kaiser *alias* Salim Khan Bahadur.

Sachin is the Senior Habshi State in India. The Rulers of Sachin are Habshi Mohommedans, and are the lineal descendants of Nawab Sidi Abdul Karim Mohommed Yakut Khan I, the rightful and Senior claimant to the throne of Janjira, who was dispossessed of his inheritance by his younger brother. In 1733 a triple treaty was concluded between the Nawab of Sachin; the East India Company and the Peshwa, on the basis of a defensive and offensive alliance. The Ruler of Sachin is a member of the Narendra Mandal (Chamber of Princes) in his own right and enjoys full internal sovereignty.

Dumas: The Summer Capital of the Ruler, is a delightful sea resort 10 miles by motor road from Surat, also a pleasure resort during the summer for visitors from Bombay, Ahmedabad, etc., connected with grand trunk telephone and other modern conveniences. *Amusements:* Sea bathing, promenade, tennis, cricket, motoring, etc.

Sachin: Capital of the State and a pretty town on B. B. & C. I. Railway.

Chief Minister: VAZIR-E-AZAM ATMARAMRAO B. ACHREKAR, M.A., LL.B.

RAJA SHRIMANT YESHWANTRAO HINDURAO GHORPADE, MAMLAKATMADAR, SENAPATHI, Ruler of Sandur.

Born: 1908. Succeeded to the Throne in 1928. Assumed the reins of administration in 1930.

Married: On 22nd Dec. 1929 the eldest daughter of Umadat-Ul-Mulk, Raj Rajendra, Major Maloji Narsingh Rao Shitole, Deshmukh, Rustamjung Bahadur of Gwalior.

A son and heir was born to the Ruler on the 7th December 1931, who is named Shrimant Morar Rao Ghorpade after Raja Morar Rao Ghorpade the illustrious ancestor of the present Ruler. A second son was born to the Ruler on the 16th February 1933, and is named Rajkumar Ranjit Singh.

In 1923 the State was brought into direct political relations with the Government of India, in pursuance of Paragraph 310 of the Montford Report, to the effect that "all important States should be placed in direct political relations with the Government of India."

The State possesses sandalwood forests and rich manganese mines. Ramandrug Sanitarium (Altitude 3,200 feet) and Shri Karteekswami Temple are the places of interest.

All temples, wells and schools have been thrown open from 1932 to all Hindus irrespective of caste or creed. Education is imparted free in the State, up to the Matriculation standard.

The "Huzur Darbar" (Executive Council) was constituted on the 1st of April 1932. The Dewan, two Secretaries to Government and any number of extra members whom the Ruler may be pleased to nominate, form the "Huzur Darbar." The following are the Members of the "Huzur Darbar."

(*i*) Shrimant Sardar B. Y. Ghorpade.

(*ii*) Meherban G. T. Konnur, B.A.

(*iii*) Meherban V. Narasimharao, M.A.

(*iv*) Meherban B. V. Krishnan Kutty Menon, B.A., B.L.

To afford to the people an opportunity for expressing their wants and wishes to the Government and to enable them to learn first hand how their actions affect the people and to have the benefit of the suggestions of the latter regarding these measures, the Ruler was pleased to constitute a State Council in 1931.

LIEUTENANT HIS HIGHNESS MEHERBAN SRIMANT SIR CHINTAMANRAO DHUNDIRAO *alias* APPA SAHEB PATWARDHAN, K.C.I.E., Raja of Sangli.

Born : 1890. Ascended the Gadi in 1903. *Educated* at the Rajkumar College at Rajkot. Her Highness is a daughter of Sir M. V. Joshi, K.C.I.E., C.I.E., of Amraoti, *Ex* Home Member of the Government of Central Provinces.

Heir : SHRIMANT RAJKUMAR MADHAVRAO *alias* RAO SAHEB PATWARDHAN YUVARAJ.

Area of State : 1,136 sq. miles.

Population : 258,442.

Revenue : Rs. 16,79,000.

Salute : 9 guns permanent and 11 personal. Enjoys I Class Jurisdiction, power to try for Capital Offences any persons except British subjects.

Member or first substitute member of the Standing Committee of the Chamber of Princes since 1924. Served also as a Member of the I and II Round Table Conferences and as a member of the Federal Structure Committee. He was elected a member of the Standing Committee of the Chamber of Princes in 1933.

EXECUTIVE COUNCIL.

Dewan.

RAO BAHADUR G. R. BARVE, B.A.

Political Minister.

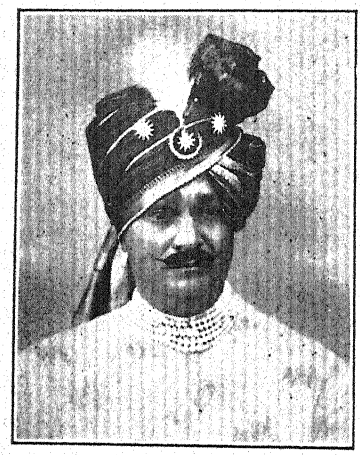
RAO SAHEB Y. A. THOMBARE, B.A.

3rd Councillor.

RAO BAHADUR G. V. PATWARDHAN, B.A., LL.B.

4th Councillor.

MR. Y. V. KOLHATKAR, B.A., LL.B.



THE Ruling Family in the Sant State belong to the Perwar or Parmar caste of Rajput and are believed to have descended from the celebrated family of Vik-amaditya and Raja Bhoj of Ujjain. They first came down from Dhar and settled at Jhalod and finally about the 13th Century at Sant. The founder of the family was Rana Sant who with his brother Limdev was forced to leave Jhalod and established himself at Sant.

Area : 394 square miles.

Population : 83,538 (1931).

Revenue : Rs. 5,21,877.

The present Ruler Maharana Shri Jorawarsinhji was born on 24th March 1881 and installed on the Gadi in 1896. He was formally invested with full powers on 10th May 1902. He was educated in the Rajkumar College, Rajkot, and was associated with the Government Administration of the State for more than a year preparatory to his being invested with full powers. He is an intelligent Prince who keenly supervises the administration of the State. During his regime many improvements have been made and the State is making good progress : The revenue of the State increased—Its lands have been surveyed and regular settlements introduced—Provision for English education made for the first time and Primary and Secondary education made free throughout the State—Election system sanctioned for Municipality—Free medical relief extended by opening new dispensaries in the district. Many other improvements have been introduced during his regime such as founding of a permanent Famine Relief Fund, granting of liberal tagavi loans to the agriculturists during the time of scarcity. Money is also advanced to the local merchants by way of encouragement at cheap rate of interest. Other improvements of utility such as installation of electricity in the towns of Sant and Rampur, clock tower, public gardens, metalled roads in parts have also been made. The regime of Maharana Shri Jorawarsinhji has been anything but a bed of roses. Famine and lean years had made the financial condition of the State far from satisfactory ; but wise management has been instrumental to keeping its head up.

The Rajaji exercises full powers and enjoys a dynastic salute of 9 guns. Primogeniture is the rule of succession to the Gadi and the Darbar's right of adoption has been recognised and confirmed by Government.

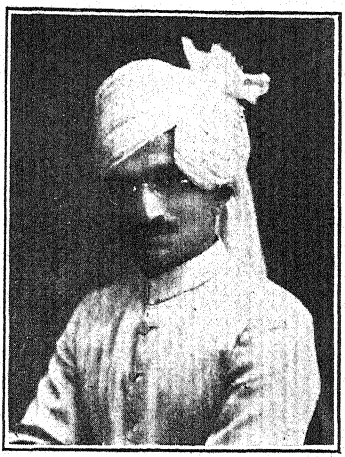
During the Great War the services of the Rajaji Saheb were appreciated by Government. The Government were also pleased to recognise the right of the Rajaji to be a member of the Chamber of Princes.

Heir-apparent : MAHARAJ KUMAR SHRI PRAVINSINHJI was born on 1st December 1907.

Educated in the Rajkumar College, Rajkot.

Married Maharaj Rajkumari, daughter of Maharaj Kumar Shri Vijayarajji, Heir-apparent, Cutch State, on 15th May 1928, at Bhuj.

MAJOR HIS HIGHNESS RAJE KHEM SAWANT BHONSLE BAHADUR, Raja of Sawantwadi.



Born: 20th August 1897.

Educated: At Malvern College in England and on completion of the course at Second Officers' Training Battalion stationed at Cambridge was granted an Honorary Commission in His Majesty's Army. His Highness served in Mesopotamia as a Second Lieutenant attached to the 116th Mahrattas for nearly 2 years during the Great War. In recognition of these services, His Highness was promoted in 1919 to the rank of Honorary Captain and has been permanently attached to the 116th Mahrattas now the 4/5th Mahratta L. I. His Highness was promoted to the rank of Major in 1933. His Highness is a member of the Chamber of Princes in his own right.

Succeeded to the Gadi: On 2nd June 1913 and assumed the reins of administration on 29th October 1924.

Married: Princess Laxmidevi, grand-daughter of His Highness Maharaja Sayajirao Gaikwad of Baroda in April 1922.

Chief Recreations: His Highness is a keen sportsman, Cricket and Tennis are his favourite games.

Heir-apparent: Shrimant Yuvaraj Shivram Sawant, aged 6 years.

Area of the State: 930 square miles. *Population:* 2,30,589.

Average Annual Revenue: Rs. 6,88,000. *Salute:* Permanent 9 guns: Local 11 guns.

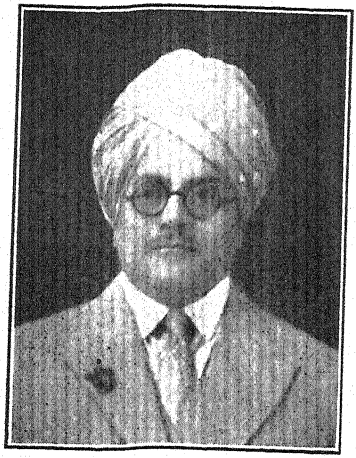
Political Relations: From 1st April 1933 this State has been brought into direct political relation with the Government of India through the Agent to the Governor-General in Kolhapur.

Constitution: His Highness exercises full control over the administration of the State through the Diwan, who is assisted by the Heads of Departments and is advised by a Legislative Committee. During the short period of his rule His Highness has given practical proof of his keen interest in every branch of administration and is striving hard to do anything that can be done for the welfare of his subjects. Medical relief is supplied free. A separate Anti-Malarial Department is run at an annual cost of about Rs. 10,000 for eradication of Malaria. The State spends annually about 10 per cent. of its revenue on Education.

Diwan: R. R. SHIRGAOKAR, B.A., LL.B.

General: Sawantwadi State is an ancient one and was the first State to enter into treaty with the British Government as far back as 1730 A.D. In 1784, the Moghul Emperor at Delhi recognised the sovereignty of the Ruler over the State by means of his Firman which granted to him and his successors the title of Raja and the insignia of royalty, namely, Morchal and the necessary Khilat. This title was subsequently recognised by the British Government.

During the Great War, Sawantwadi shared with the Ratnagiri District the honour of supplying the largest number of men in relation to its population in the whole of Bombay Presidency.



HIS HIGHNESS RAJA LAKSHMAN SEN BAHADUR the present Ruler of Suket is a Rajput of the Chanderbansi clan and it is traditionally asserted that the progenitors of the dynasty ruled in Inderprestha (Delhi) for over a thousand years.

Born : 15th August 1894.

Succeeded his brother Raja Sir Bhim Sen, K.C.I.E., who died on the 12th October 1919. The announcement of recognition and confirmation of his succession was made by the then Lieutenant Governor of the Panjab at an Installation Darbar held at Suket on the 30th March 1920, investing him with full Ruling Powers.

Educated : Aithchison Chiefs' College, Lahore. After finishing his education at the Chiefs' College, he was placed for special training under the Panjab Government. He had his judicial training under the Judges of the Chief Court, his treasury training under the Deputy Commissioner of Amritsar and Settlement Training under Mr. Middleton who was then conducting the settlement operations in the Kangra District.

Married : His Highness is married to the daughter of Kanwar Guman Singh of Koti State.

Recreations : Shooting, Tennis, Cricket and Riding.

Heir-Apparent : SRI YUVRAJ LALIT SEN, born 21st April 1932.

Salute : HIS HIGHNESS THE RAJA SAHIB BAHADUR enjoys a permanent salute of 11 guns and is entitled to be received by His Excellency the Viceroy and Governor General of India.

Address : Suket State, Panjab, India.

Tel. Address : Sundarnagar.

Area of the State : 420 Square miles.

Population : 58,408. *Annual Revenue :* 2,73,000.

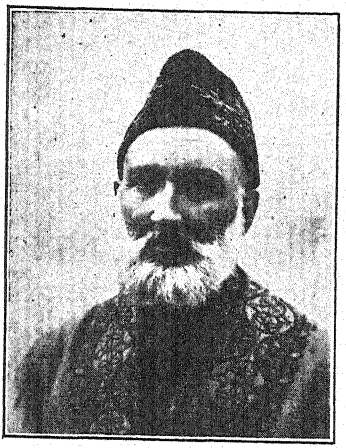
PRINCIPAL OFFICERS.

Acting Chief Secretary : PT. MANMOHAN KISHEN WALI, B.A., Bar-at-Law.

Acting Home Secretary : CH. ATMA RAM, M.A., LL.B.

Private Secretary : RAI SAHIB L. SIDHU RAM.

MIANGUL GULSHAHZADA SIR ABDUL WADOOD, K.B.E., Wali of Swat.



Born : 1885. Established his Government in 1916 and was formally recognised by the British Government in 1926 as Wali or Ruler of Swat.

Family history : Grandson of the famous Akhond of Swat and a religious leader. The family has great influence among most of the tribes of the trans-border including Afridis, etc., who look to the members as their spiritual leaders and hundreds come to pay homage.

State : It is only of recent creation and only due to the ability of the Ruler himself.

Area : is approximately 6,000 square miles.

Revenue : is 14 lacs and the population is mainly of agriculturists.

The State maintains a standing army of 11,000, including 500 cavalry.

The Ruler had had many difficulties in its creation and it is to his patience and endeavours that it came into existence. He is modern in his ideas and has an elaborate telephone system throughout his State, which includes Buner, Chamla, Khudokhel, Kana, Ghorband, Chakesar, etc. He is keen on roads and buildings and has a Hospital and an Anglo-Vernacular School at Saidu, the capital, besides 16 other Primary schools. It is a great achievement when compared to other contemporary trans-border states of much longer standing. He is busy with the internal reforms, social, economical and political.

Recreations : The valley is famous for pheasants, Chikor and ducks ; the chief recreation is shooting, motoring and hill climbing also give amusement.

The Ruler is greatly assisted in all matters by his eldest son Miangul Abdul Haq Jahanzeb, who was formally recognised by the Government as Wali-ahd in 1933.

Wazir : is the head of the Executive and responsible for all matters of the State. His younger brother is the head of the army or Sipah Salar.

HIS HIGHNESS SAID-UD-DAULAH WAZIR-UL-MULK NAWAB HAFIZ SIR MOHAMMED SAADAT ALI KHAN BAHADUR SOWLAT-I-JUNG, G.C.I.E. Nawab of Tonk State (Rajputana) is an Afghan of the Baner tribe known as Salarzie.

Born : 1879.

Ascended the Gadi on 23rd June 1930 on the death of his father H. H. Sir Mohammed Ibrahim Ali Khan Bahadur, G.C.S.I., G.C.I.E.

Educated : Privately and is an Arabic and Persian Scholar.

Area of State : 2,553 square miles.

Population : 3,17,360 according to census of 1931.

Revenue : 23,00,000. *Salute :* 17 Guns.

During His Highnesses' rule many reforms have been introduced in the administration of the State, the most important being the separation of the Executive and the Judiciary by the establishment of a Chief Court and a Sessions Court.

The administration of the State is carried on by His Highness with the help of the State Council, which has also recently been reorganised and put on a firmer constitutional basis by the passing of the State Council Act. The personnel of the State Council is as follows :—

President : HIS HIGHNESS THE NAWAB SAHIB BAHADUR.

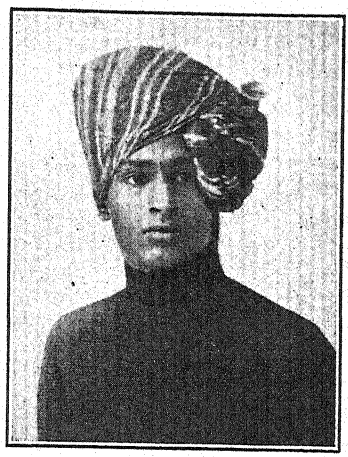
Vice-President and Finance Member : MAJOR D. DE M. S. FRASER, I.A.

Home Member : KHAN BAHADUR SZ. MOHD. ABDUL TAWWAB KHAN.

Judicial Member : KHAN BAHADUR SHEIKH RAHIM BUKSH, O.B.E.

Revenue Member : KHAN SAHIB MOHD. ASAD ULLAH KHAN.

Secretary : M. HAMID HUSAIN, B.A.



HIS HIGHNESS SRI PADMANABHA DASA VANCHI PALA RAMA VARMA KULASEKHARA KIRITAPATI MANNEY SULTAN MAHARAJA RAJA RAMARAJA BAHADUR SHAMSHER JANG Maharaja of Travancore.

Born: 7th November 1912

Ascended: The Musnad 1st September 1924.

Invested with Ruling powers 6th November 1931

Educated: Privately.

Heir: HIS HIGHNESS MARTANDA VARMA ELAYA RAJA.

Travancore is one of the largest Indian States in South India under the Political control of the Government of India. It is bounded on the North by the State of Cochin and the District of Coimbatore, on the East by the Districts of Madura, Ramnad and Tinnevelly and on the South and West by the Indian ocean and the Arabian sea. Travancore has an area of 7,625 square miles and according to the census of 1931, the population is 5,095,973. The State now stands in the forefront of educated India. According to the census of 1931, the number of literates per 1,000 of the population excluding children under 5 years of age is 289. For males the figures are 408 per 1 000, and for females 168. The Ruler of Travancore is the source of all authority, judicial, administrative and legislative. The government of the country is conducted in the name and under the control of His Highness the Maharaja. There is a legislature consisting of an Upper and a Lower House, with a majority of elected members and possessing large legislative and financial powers and powers of interpellation.

The Dewan is His Highness' sole minister.

Revenue: Rs. 2,41,36,000.

Salute: 19 guns, local 21 guns.

Dewan: KHAN BAHADUR SIR MUHAMMAD HABIBU-UL-LAH SAHIB BAHADUR, KT., K.C.S.I., K.C.I.E., C.I.E.

HIS HIGHNESS MAHARAJAHDHIRAJ MAHARANA SHREE SIR BHUPAL SINGHJI BAHADUR, G.C.S.I., Ruler of Udaipur, the Premier State in Rajputana.

Born: 22nd February 1884.

Married: First to the daughter of the Thakur of Auwa in Marwar in March 1910. After her demise to the daughter of the Thakur of Achhrol in Jaipur in February 1911 and then to the daughter of the Thakur of Khudala in Marwar in January 1928.

Educated: Privately.

Area of the State: 12,753 Square miles.

Population: 1,566,910. *Revenue:* Rs. 60,00,000.

Permanent Salute: 19. Local 21 guns.

STATE ADMINISTRATION.

Musahib Ala Raj Mewar: RAO BAHADUR PANDIT SIR SUKHDEO PRASADJI, KT., C.I.E., B.A.

Senior Minister: DEWAN BAHADUR PANDIT DHARAM NARAINJI, M.A., Bar-at-Law.

Minister: P. C. CHATTERJI, ESQ.

DARBAR SHREE SURAGWALA, the Ruling Chief of Vadia State in the Western Kathiawar Agency. (Western India States). He comes of a high and ancient lineage and is a member of the Virani Branch of the illustrious Kathi Clan from which this Province has taken its name.

Born : On the 15th March 1904.

Succeeded : To the Gadi in 1930 and assumed the reins of the State Administration on the 7th September 1930.

Educated : Privately under the supervision of a competent tutor.

Married : In 1921 to A. S. Kunvarbaisaheb, the present Rani Saheba and has two daughters and one son.

Heir-apparent : Yuvaraj Shree Krashnakumar. Aged about 3 years. Born in 1931.

Rule of Primogeniture governs the succession.

Area : 90 square miles. *Population :* 13,719.

Revenue : Rs. 2,50,000.

Education is imparted free in the State—Medical relief is given free to all irrespective of caste and creed—Child Marriage Restriction Act is applied to the State—Liquor is strictly prohibited—The Farmers are protected by the special Rules akin to the Deccan Agriculture Relief Act—A State Village Bank is opened for the convenience of the farmers. Loans are also given to the merchants to facilitate Commerce at very low interest. A New State Hospital with a Tower Clock is being built in Vadia which will be one of the best buildings in the State.

PRINCIPAL OFFICERS.

State Karbhari : MR. BHOLANATH J. THAKER, B.A., LL.B.

Nyayadhish : MR. SAVAILAL G. DHOLAKIA.

Medical Officer : MR. KHODIDAS J. PANCHOLY, L.C.P.S.

Bank Manager & Office Superintendent : MR. HATHIBHAI R. VANK.

Private Secretary : MR. RAMBHAI D. PATGIR.

Treasury Officer : MR. PANACHAND BHAWAN SANGANI.

THAKOR SHREE JORAWAR SINHJI SURAJMALJI CHAWDA, the Ruling Chief of Varsoda State in the Sabar Kantha Agency.

Born : On the 17th April 1914.

Ascended to the Gadi : 1933.

Educated : Formerly educated at the Scott College, Sadra, where he remained for seven years leaving the College after a brilliant career in 1930. He attained first rank in the class and in the whole College in English and obtained the Ferris Medals for the proficiency in English. Then he was admitted at the Mayo Chief's College, Ajmer, where he studied for three years and successfully passed the Chief's College Diploma Examination in second division with distinction. He also won there the Prize in Law and Administration.

Married : On 20th of May 1932, A. S. Dhanwant Kunverba, the daughter of Maharaul Shree Pravin Sinhji of Bansda, the brother of H. H. Maharaja Saheb Shree Indra Sinhji of Bansda State.

Origin : Thakor Saheb Shree is a direct descendant of the Chawda clan of Rajputs tracing from Vanraj Chawda of Anhilpur, Pattan.

Political Relation : From April 1st, 1933, the State along with the other States of old Mahi Kantha Agency (now Sabar Kantha Agency), has been brought into direct relation with the Government of India.

The Thakor Saheb Shree Jorawar Sinhji has made education free in the State Schools of Varsoda, Badpura and Delwad for the encouragement of State subjects in memory of his investiture ceremony held in the year 1933.

The State Hospital gives every sort of medicine and medical help to all, irrespective of class and creed.

Shree Akalshrangji Temple on the bank of the river Sabarmati is a place of interest.

THAKOR SHREE BAPUSINHJI, the present Ruling Chief of Vasna State in Sabarkantha Agency (Western India States). He inherits a glorious and renowned parentage as he is a member of the venerable family of Jodhaji of the historical Rathod Clan, the illustrious Founder of Jodhpur in Rajputana.

Born: On the 19th September 1896.

Educated: At the Scott Rajkumar College, Sadra, where he had a brilliant career as a student.

Succeeded: To the Gadi in 1918 and assumed the powers of the State on 26th April 1918.

Heir-Apparent: RAJ KUMAR SHREE BALBHADRASINHJI aged seventeen months, born on 20th September 1932.

Area of State: 10 Square Miles. *Population:* 3,907.

The State has rendered remarkable loyal services to Government by leasing one square mile of its fertile land for the Sadra Civil Station. Education is imparted free in the State. All public Charitable institutions like Dispensary, Girls' School, Anglo Vernacular School and Library of the State are running satisfactorily under the watchful supervision of the present Thakor Shree.

HIS HIGHNESS MAHARANA SHRI JORAVERSINHJI, Thakore Saheb of Wadhwan.

Born : 23rd July, 1899.

Date of succession : 23rd February, 1918.

Date of Investiture : 16th January, 1920.

Educated : In the Rajkumar College, Rajkot.

Married : First in 1920 with Laxmikunverba, daughter of His Highness Rajadhiraja Sir Naharsinhji, K.C.I.E., of Shahpura in Mewar.

Married : Second time in 1932 with Rajendrakunverba, daughter of the Rao Raja Saheb Shri Sardarsinhji of Uniara under the Jaipur State, after the demise of the first Ranee Saheba.

The Thakore Saheb is a member of the Chamber of Princes in his own right as he enjoys full autonomous powers of internal sovereignty. He is entitled to the right of adoption.

Area of the State : 242.6 square miles. *Population :* 42,602.
Revenue : Nearly 7 lacs. *Salute :* 9 guns.

The Thakore Saheb has three sons and one daughter :—

1. Yuvraj Shri Surendrasinhji, born 4th January, 1922.
2. K. S. Virendrasinhji,
3. K. S. Vikramsinhji,
4. Kunvari Shri Hirakunverba.

He has four brothers, *viz.*, (1) K. S. Karansinhji, (2) K. S. Banesinhji, (3) K. S. Sursinhji, (4) K. S. Harishchandrasinhji.

PRINCIPAL OFFICERS.

Chief Minister : MR. B. V. JOSHI, B.A., LL.B.
Judicial Minister : MR. G. J. DAVE, B.A., LL.B.
Private Secretary : MR. R. B. DAMRI.
Revenue Minister : MR. G. C. PARIKH.
Director of Public Instruction : MR. K. N. SHAH, M.A.

HIS HIGHNESS MAHARANA SHRI AMARSINHJI BAHADUR, K.C.I.E., MAHARANA RAJSAHEB of Wankaner.

Born. 4th January 1879.

Succession. 12th June, 1881. *Assumption of full powers of the State.* 18th March, 1899.

Educated. At Rajkumar College, Rajkot.

Area of the State. 417 sq. miles.

Population. 44,280.

Revenue. Rs. 7,50,000.

Salute: Permanent 11 guns.

Heir-apparent:—MAHARAJ KUMAR SHRI PRATAPSINHJI, born 12th April, 1907.

Dewan: M. D. SOLANKI, B.A., LL.B.

Chief Medical Officer: RAO SAHEB J. S. SHAH, L.M. & S.

Superintendent of Police and Military Secretary: RAO BAHADUR MOHANLAL P. SHAH.

Naib Dewan: I. K. PANDYA, B.A., LL.B.

Private Secretary: D. L. MEHTA, B.A.

State Engineer: V. J. SHAH, B.E.

Nyayadhish: H. M. GHODADHRA, B.A., LL.B.

Head Master: L. D. MEHTA, B.A.

Treasury Officer: K. L. GANDHI, B.A., LL.B.

Municipal Secretary and Lekh Adhikari: J. K. PATEL.

RANAJI SHRI HARISINGJI, present Ruling Chief of Wav State in Banas Kantha Agency under Western India States Agency.

Born: 19th September 1889.

Descended from the well-known Pirathiraj Chohan Rajput, late Emperor of Delhi.

Educated: Privately.

Ascended the Gadi: 9th June 1924.

Heir-Apparent: Rajkumar Shri Takhatsingji, aged 11 years.

Area of State: 759 square miles. *Population:* 23,070.

The State pays no tribute to the British Government or to any other Indian State.

Administration of the State is carried on with the help of a Council of which Ranaji Shri is the President and Mr. P. C. Govinden, Chief Karbhari, is Vice-President and other members are State Officers and subjects.

Courts of the State: Hazur Court; Sar Nyayadhish Court; Rajprakarni Court; Nyayadhish Court and Revenue Officer's Court.

Police: The sanctioned strength of the regular State Police is 60 including Superintendent of Police.

A qualified Chief Medical Officer is maintained in the State Hospital. Medical Relief at the Hospital is supplied free.

Education is also free throughout the State.

MEHERBAN SHRIMANT PARASHURAMRAO MADHAVRAO *alias* BHAUSAHEB PANDIT, HUKMAT-PANHA, PANT AMATYA, of Bavada a feudatory of the Kolhapur State enjoying guarantee from British Government.

Born: 17th February 1907. Succession on 23rd July 1929 after the demise of his late lamented father Shrimant Madhavrao Balasaheb.

Educated: Under the guardianship of the Assistant Resident, Kolhapur.

Invested with powers on 16th December 1931. Exercises full Revenue, Administrative and Judicial powers as defined by the Agreement of 1862.

Area: 243 Square miles. The Jaghir consists of 76 villages. The Pant Amatya saheb enjoys, in addition, 14 Inam villages in British territory.

Population: 51,584 souls. Annual revenue, on an average of last five years, Rs. 1,99,205; Military Contribution payable to Kolhapur Darbar Rs. 3,420/-.

Administration: Various departments of Administration are conducted with the help of qualified and competent officers principal of whom are:—

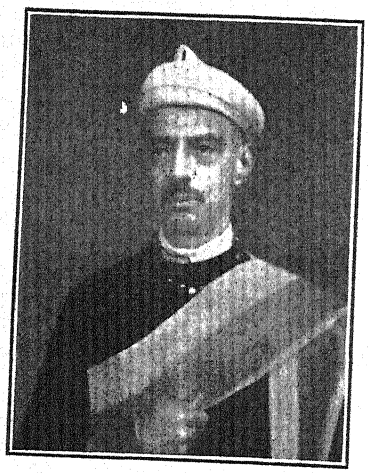
Karbhari: RAOSAHEB R. V. KARLEKAR, B.A., LL.B.,
Adviser: RAOSAHEB KESHAVRAO G. SABNIS, B.A.
Judicial Officer: RAOSAHEB N. K. PANDIT, ADVOCATE.
Settlement Officer: Mr. S. B. SARDESHPANDE.
Mamlatdar: Mr. V. H. KHANDEKER.
Medical Officer: Dr. M. B. SAWANT, L.C.P.S. (Cal.)
Khasagi Karbhari: Mr. B. A. PALSULE.
Huzur Chitnis: Mr. N. K. NAPHADE.

Within a short period of last two years the following principal reforms have been introduced.

1. Introduction of the System of Revenue Survey and Settlement.
2. Secondary and primary Education free.
3. Free Ayurvedic Dispensary for the helpless poor.
4. Introduction of Scout-Movement.

Recreation: Shooting, Gardening, Tennis, & other games.

Gagan Bavda: The capital town, at a distance of 34 miles to the South-west of Kolhapur, is a beautiful Hill-station located on the top of Sahyadri Mountains at a height of 2,017 feet above sea-level. The historical Fort Gagan-gad commands a picturesque view of the Konkan surrounding below. *Ramaling* for beautiful ancient Carvings, and *Madhav-Bag* the new residence of the Pant Saheb are other places of interest. *Address:* P.O. GAGAN BAVDA, (*Via* KOLHAPUR, S.M.C.)



MEHERBAN SHRIMANT NARAYANRAO GOVINDRAO *alias* BABASAHEB GHORPADE of Ichalkaranji, a feudatory of Kolhapur State. He is also a First-class Sardar in the Deccan and represented the Sardars and Inamdars in the Bombay Council from 1900 to 1913.

Born: 1871. Was adopted in 1876 and was invested with powers in 1892.

Educated in the Rajaram High School, and College, Kolhapur, Elphinstone College and Government Law School, Bombay and attended the High Court for practical training in Law.

Married in 1886, Shrimant Sakal Saubhagyawati Gangabai Maisaheb, daughter of late Mr. Mohaniraj Moreshwar Paranjpe, landlord and pleader, Ahmednagar. Adopted Venkatrao Raosaheb in 1919, who died in 1924. Visited Java in 1913. Made three trips to Europe. Went to Burma in 1927 and to Ceylon in 1930. Is the author of an observant book called "Impressions of British Life and Character." Has also translated some English books into Marathi. Has established a fund called the Ichalkaranji Education Endowment Fund for encouragement of foreign education.

Area of the Jahagir: 241 square miles of which $\frac{1}{6}$ consists of forest.

Population: 68,573. *Revenue:* Rs. 5,25,158.

Administration is conducted with the help of a Council of which Mr. J. L. Goheen, of the American Presbyterian Mission, Sangli, is the head.

MEHERBAN SHRIMANT DATTAJIRAO NARAYAN-RAO *alias* BALASAHEB GHATGE SARJERAO OF KAGAL JUNIOR.

Born : 1873.

Ascended the Gadi : 1898.

Educated at the Rajkumar College with His Highness the late Shri Shahu Chhatrapati Maharajasaheb of Kolhapur and at the Rajaram College, Kolhapur.

Married in 1895.

Heir : Shrimant Yeshvantrao Appasaheb Ghatge Sarjerao, educated in England with His Highness the Chhatrapati Maharajasaheb of Kolhapur and he has of late been conducting the Administration.

Area : 17.3 square miles.

Population : 6,787.

Revenue : Rs. 1,28,717.

The Family is related by matrimonial alliances to the Ruling Family of Kolhapur and those of Baroda, Savantwadi and Dhar. Besides, His Highness the late Chhatrapati Maharajasaheb of Kolhapur and the late Sarjerao of Kagal Senior are great-grandsons of the late Meherban Narayanraosaheb Ghatge, Sarjerao of Kagal Junior in the natural Family.

The Ghatge Family (of which Meherban Dattajirao *alias* Balasaheb Ghatge Sarjerao of Kagal Junior is the present head in the direct line of primogeniture), occupied a position of great distinction long before the rise of the Maratha Power. He is a mediatized Feudatory of the Kolhapur State enjoying the guarantee of the British Government as provided for by Article VIII of the Agreement of 1862 between the Kolhapur State and the British Government and exercises judicial powers as defined by that Article. He also exercises full Revenue and Administrative powers within his Jahagir. The Administration is conducted on the lines of the British Legislation.

SHRIMANT NARSOJIRAO *alias* BABASAHEB SHINDE. Senakhaskhel; Sena-Dhurandhur; Vishwasnidhi; Samust-shree-Dhurandhur of Torgal.

Founder of Dynasty: Narsojirao Shinde founded the Gadi of Torgal in 1679 A.D.

Born: 7th July 1910.

Educated: In Canada (U.S.A.); Kolhapur; Bangalore; Panchgani.

Travels: Canada; Japan; China; and Ceylon.

Married: In May 1931, the daughter of the late Jaghirdar of Kagal (Senior); uncle of the present H. H. The Maharaja of Kolhapur.

Succession: 3rd June 1932.

Heir: SHRIMANT SAMBHAJIRAO *alias* UDEYSINGH SHINDE.

Recreation: Shikar, Football, Cricket, Hockey.

Torgal is situated about 110 miles South-East of Kolhapur, in a particularly enchanting mountainous country. The river Malaprabha flows adjacent to Torgal town and it has imparted an indescribable grandeur to the seven walled Torgal Fort which dates from 154 A.D. and is one of the best fortified forts in the South of Deccan. The Jaghir consists of 34 villages.

The present Shrimant Narsojirao is the 9th descendant in the direct line of Narsojirao, the Founder of Torgal.

Area: 137·2 square miles. *Gross Revenue:* Rs. 1,26,117.

Population: 14,728.

Karbhari: R. J. Savant, B.A. (Retired Municipal Commissioner, Baroda State).

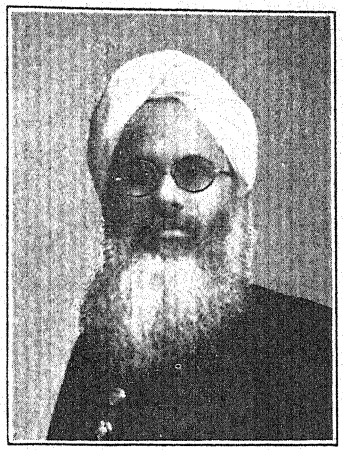
There are other Law Graduates serving as Munsiff and Secretary.

Principal Crops: Cotton; Groundnuts; Wheat.

Principal Forest Produce: Sandal Wood; Babul and Nimb Tree.

Principal Industries: Cotton Ginning Factory; Groundnut Shelling Machines.

Railway Station: Gokak Road (M.S.M.), 49 miles from Torgal.



SIR JOGENDRA SINGH, KT., comes from an old military family of the Amritsar district—is also a Taluqdar of Oudh.

Born: On the 25th of May 1877.

Educated: Privately at home.

From early life he has been interested in agricultural development, education and social reform. Under the guidance of the late Mr. B. M. Malabari and Mr. George Chesney of the Pioneer, he began regular contributions to the press, and his writings attracted notice. He occupied his leisure hours in writing, reading and riding. Early in life he was called upon to work as a Minister for the young Maharaja of Patiala. Lord Hardinge spoke of the late Sir Zulfiqar Ali Khan and him in high terms in the speech that he made at a dinner in Patiala. After about $2\frac{1}{2}$ years in Patiala, he returned to agriculture again. He joined the Council of State when it was first constituted. In the meanwhile, he wrote several books and edited *East and West* and was President of the Sikh Educational Conference and Member of the Indian Sugar Committee, the Indian Taxation Enquiry Committee, Sandhurst Committee and many provincial Committees in the United Provinces and the Punjab. In 1926 he became Minister of Agriculture in the Punjab—an office which he still holds.

CAPT. NAWAB MOHOMAD JAMSHED ALI KHAN of Bagpat Estate, was born in August 1894, and belongs to a respectable family of Muslim Rajputs. The ancestral home is Kalanaur in the Rohtak District (Punjab). Rao Karam Ali Khan, grandfather of the present Nawab, was founder of the Estate. His loyal services were highly spoken of by the Civil and Military Officers of the Government. On the conferment of a big Jagir he settled down at Bagpat (District Meerut) after the Mutiny of 1857-58. On the premature death of his father Rao Khurshed Ali Khan, the present Nawab began to look after the affairs of the Estate while only a boy of 14.

During the Great War (1914-17) he helped the Government with men and money, in recognition of which he was granted an Hony. King's Commission as a Lieutenant in 1920, and was presented with a sword of honour. In 1921 he was also awarded a gold pistol, and a gun by H. E. the Commander-in-Chief in India. He received the title of Nawab in 1923. The same year he presided over the All-India Muslim Rajput Conference at Aligarh. In 1926 he was granted the Kaiser-i-Hind Medal and the title of M.B.E. He is a member of the U. P. Legislative Council from the advent of the Reforms. In 1928 he was elected Chairman of the District Board, Meerut. He is President of the U. P. Zemindars Association, Muzaffernager. In 1930 the Association selected him to go to England at the time of the 1st Indian Round Table Conference and to put their case before the British public and safeguard the interests of the Zemindars. There he addressed a public gathering at Caxton Hall, Westminster on November 25th, 1930 under the Chairmanship of the Right Honorable Lord Meston, K.C.S.I.

Rao Bahadur Abdul Hameed Khan is the younger brother of the Nawab who is living jointly with him. He is in charge of the internal management of the Estate, and it goes to his credit that the estate is prospering under his hands.

RAJA BAHADUR KIRTYANAND SINHA, B.A., of Benaili, Purnea, (Behar, India).

Born : 1883. Is the youngest son of the late Raja Bahadur Lilanand Sinha.

Family History : Banaili Raj is one of the premier estates in Behar to-day and has extensive possessions in Bhagalpur, Monghyr, Purnea, Santhal Pergannas and Maldah. The original ancestor of the family, Pandit Gadadhra Jha of village Baigni Nawadah, in Darbhanga district, because of his great learning and saintliness received great wealth from Emperor Ghyasuddin Tughlakh. Tenth in descent from Gadadhar Jha was Parmanand Chowdhary, who became the real founder of the Banaili family and his son Dular Sinha Chowdhary, received the title of Raja Bahadur from the East India Company, for having helped them substantially in the Nepal War. His son Bedanand Sinha was favoured with the title of Raja Bahadur by Government. Raja Bahadur Bedanand Sinha was succeeded by Raja Bahadur Lilanand Sinha and the present Raja Bahadur of Banaili, Kirtyanand Sinha, is his youngest son.

Raja Bahadur Kirtyanand Sinha, entered the public life of the Province of Behar very early. He was a distinguished member of the old Bengal Legislative Council under the Minto-Morley Reforms, later on served on the Behar and Orissa Legislative Council, as the elected representative of the landholders of Bhagalpur. He was President of the Co-operative Movement in Behar and of the Behar and Orissa Law and Order Conference, held at Gaya in 1931. For conferring liberal benefactions to the public he was deservedly decorated with the title of Raja by Government in 1913. He was put on the Champaran Agrarian Committee by Government to represent the Zemindars and was afterwards made a Raja Bahadur by Government. He announced grant of lands to recruits from among his tenants, for service in the World Great War and placed his own personal cars at the disposal of Government. He subscribed over 1½ lacs of rupees towards Government War Loan Bonds and has made various public donations.

Chief Recreations : While young he was actively interested in Polo, Tennis, Football and Motoring—has a passion for jungle sport and is perhaps one of the most renowned Shikarees in India. Angling, gardening, music and writing books on big game shooting and Homeopathic medicines are the other occupations, in which he takes great interest. His first book " Purnea—a Shikar Land," is a very interesting work on big game shooting in India.

COLONEL MAHARAJ SRI SIR BHAIRUN SINGHJI BAHADUR, K.C.S.I., A.D.C. to His Highness, son of late Maharaj Sri Khet Singhji Sahib, Bikaner State, Rajputana.

Born on Monday, 15th September 1879. He is the first cousin and near relative of Lt.-General His Highness Maharajahdhiraj Raj Rajeshwar Narendra Shiromani Sri Sir Ganga Singhji Bahadur, G.C.S.I., G.C.I.E., G.C.V.O., G.B.E., K.C.B., A.D.C., LL.D., Maharajah of Bikaner.

Educated at the Mayo College, Ajmer.

He was Personal Secretary to His Highness, Vice-President and President of the State Council and Cabinet; and also held very many high offices in the Bikaner State. He is now in charge of the portfolio of Fort, Bada Karkhana, Zenana-Deodhi, Devasthan, General Records, etc., in the State and is also a Member of the Bikaner State Legislative Assembly. He has got a Thikana in the State consisting of Tejrasar, Kharda, Punrasar, Binjhasar, Abhaisinghpura, Jaisinghdesar, Hadlan, Biror also Canal land in Ajitsar and enjoys the Izzat, Honours, Lawazma and Dignity due to Deodhiwala Rajvies in the State.

Author of "Bhairava Bilas," "Bhairava Vinod" and "Rasik Vinod."

He has built Bhairav Bilas, Ajit Bilas, Khet Ashram, Surya Sadan, Tejrasar House and Hawa Bungalow in the State and has opened a Library called "Abhaisingh Library" in memory of and after the name of his late second son Heroji Sri Abhaisinghji Sahib; born on 2nd June 1919 and whose demise occurred on 16th October 1923.

His Heir and successor is Heroji Sri Ajit Singhji Sahib, born on Monday, 30th July 1917, and is receiving his education at the Mayo College, Ajmer, Rajputana.

HIS HIGHNESS THE HON. THE MAHARAJADHIRAJA SIR KAMESHWAR SINGH BAHADUR, K.C.I.E., of Darbhanga.

Born : 28th November 1907.

Ascended the Gadi on 14th July 1929 on the death of his father, Sir Rameshwar Singh Bahadur, G.C.I.E., K.B.E., D. Litt., etc., and is the 19th successor to the Darbhanga Raj.

Family history: Darbhanga Raj is an ancient principality of long standing and is the premier Raj in Bihar to-day. It is more or less identical with Mithila. The Royal family belongs to the Shrotriya Brahmin family of the highest class and the Maharajadhiraja of Darbhanga is the accredited secular head of this community over which he exercises powers, especially in matters social and religious.

The public donations made so far by His Highness to various Universities, Temples and Colleges amount to 6½ lakhs. Generous concessions to his tenants have been made and their welfare receives the constant attention of the Maharajadhiraja.

His Highness the Maharajadhiraja takes a very keen interest in politics—selected as a delegate to the first and second sessions of the Indian Round Table Conference—has been nominated as a member of the Council of State and elected as the President of the Bihar United Party—President of the All-India Landholders' Association and the Bengal Landholders' Association—Life President of the Bihar Landholders' Association—General President of the Sri Bharat Dharma Mahamandal, the premier Association of the Orthodox Hindus in India —Life President of the Maithila Mahasabha—A life-fellow of the Patna University, a fellow of the Calcutta University and the Royal Society for the Encouragement of Arts, etc.—A member of the Royal Empire Society.

In recognition of his public services His Highness was made a K.C.I.E. by His Imperial Majesty The King-Emperor of India in January 1933.

Chief Recreations: Polo, Tennis and Motoring. His Polo team is considered to be the best in Bihar and has won several trophies.

His Highness possesses a rich library wherein there is a number of valuable old manuscripts.

Area of the State : 2,500 square miles.

THE RAJ DEO also known as "Deo Munga" has its seat at the village Deo in the Subdivision of Aurangabad in the District of Gaya in the province of Bihar. The Rajas of Deo belong to the Sisodia clan of the Gohilote Rajputs of the solar race and trace their descent from the Rana family of Udaipur (Mewar). The founder of the present line of Rajas came here in the early part of the 17th century.

The present Raja Jagannath Prasad Sinha is the grandson of Maharaja Sir Jaiprakash Singh Bahadur, K.C.S.I., who was famous in his time for his bravery in quelling the rise of certain tribes in Palamau and for his loyalty to the British Raj during the Mutiny of 1857. Raja Jagannath Prasad Sinha is a painter of great merit and is a past master in photography. His histrionic talents are well-known and admired by many people all over India. Lately he has written and filmed a drama named "Punarjanma" which has elicited praise from all men of education and culture in this province. This is the first film produced in Behar. Besides this his other works are "Bhakta Bhagwan," "Bhakta Tulsi Das," "Sati Parvati," "Rajrishi Prahlad," "Balkrishna," "Punarjanma," "Kalki Autar," "Beshya" for the stage, "Goswami Tulsi Das," "Ras Leela," and "Gobardhan Leela" for Talky.

He has travelled widely and has visited most of the places of interest in India and Europe.

The village Deo is famous for its ancient temple of the sun which is believed to have existed since the "Tretayug." The Raj is bounded on the south by mineral hills which are calling the attention of geologists and are very likely to prove of great interest in the near future.

HIS HIGHNESS MAHARAJA BAHADUR SRI CHANDRA MAULESWAR PRASAD SINGHJI of Gidhour in the District of Monghyr (B. & O.), belongs to the clan of Chandel Rajputs who settled in the highlands of South Behar as early as in 1066 A.D. The Gidhour House founded that year is still flourishing and influential and is regarded as one of the most ancient aristocracy in the entire province of Bengal, Bihar and Orissa for more than eight and a half century.

Area of the Estate : 450 square miles.

The Maharaja is also the sole owner of several big estates containing mica and other minerals in the outlying parts.

Born : November 1890.

Succeeded his father the late the Hon'ble Maharaja Bahadur Sir Ravneswar Prasad Singh, K.C.I.E., in November 1923.

Educated under European and capable private tutors at home.

The Maharaja has been a member of the Legislative Council since the inception of the Reforms till 1926. He is the President of the Divisional and District Landholders' Associations, being the leading Zemindar of the Division. The Gidhour family is noted for its characteristic devotion and piety, and is also famous for its numerous acts of beneficence and extensive charities. The temple of Baidyanath was built by an ancestor of the present Maharaja Bahadur, who is the permanent President of the Temple Committee.

Recognised by the British Government which conferred in 1877 the hereditary title on the holder of the Estate—"*Maharaja Bahadur*"—a distinction enjoyed as the premier nobleman of the Province, until a higher title was created for the province in 1920.

The Raj abounds in hills and jungles fairly full of beasts of prey and also game, and the Maharaja Bahadur possesses among his other trophies a fine pair of tusks from a rogue elephant shot by him, as also a charming specimen of Albino—a White tiger also shot by him—which is preserved for show in the Palace.

Maharaja Bahadur's son and heir-apparent : Kumar Chandra Chur Singhji, *born* in February 1917, is being privately educated. His marriage with the eldest Princess of Tehri Garhwal State, U. P., has been a recent event of note.

Naib Saheb : KUMAR CHANDRA SEKHAR PRASAD SINGH.
Officer in charge of Household : KUMAR BISESWAR SINGH.
Dewan : BABU BASUKI NATH SAHAI.
Secretary : N. L. MAJUMDAR, M.A.
Private Tutor to Kumar Sahib : PANDIT R. C. SHUKLA, M.A.

UMADAT-UL-MULK MAJOR RAJ RAJENDRA MALOJI NARSING RAO SHITOLE DESHMUKH RUSTIME JUNG BAHADUR, Gwalior.

Born : 1896 at Kolawadi in Poona District. Adopted by Shrimant Raj Rajendra Ramchandra Rao Shitole in 1902. Completed his education and Military Training in 1914.

Married : In 1914 Baija Bai, daughter of Sardar Dinkar Rao Khanwalkar of Gwalior.

Visited England in 1911 with H. H. Maharaja Madheo Rao Scindia and was present at Westminster at the Coronation Ceremony of H. M. George V. Represented Gwalior Maharaja in the procession and Darbar of Coronation of 1911, Delhi. Awarded Scindia Medal in 1912. In 1917 was entrusted with the charge of Regiments *viz :* Huzurati, Pagnavis, and Ekkan. Was President of Lashkar Municipality in 1919. Served on many committees found to enhance efficiency of the Gwalior State. In 1923 Master of the Ceremony of the Gwalior State. President of the Maratha Educational Conference, 1922. Visited England again in 1926 with family and was invited to the King's Court. Working at present as Muntazim Jahagirdaran and Member of the Testamentary Board. Officiated Home Member, Gwalior Government, in 1924 and 1930.

Family History : Ladoji Shitole came with Mahadji Scindia to Northern India. Mahadji gave his daughter Her Highness Bala Bai Sahiba Maharaj to Ladoji in marriage. Jahagirs were given in Delhi Province and Scindian Territory.

Area of the Jahagirs : Various places at Pohri, Poona, Khandawa, Bercha, and Jiran, total villages 250. Total Income Rs. 4,66,000.

Education : Pohri has one High School. Municipality managed with elected Members. Jahagirs abound in forest and game abundant.

Children : Eldest daughter Shushila Raje given to Raja Sahib of Sandur.

Son and heir: Sardar Krishna Rao born in 1923 and one more daughter Shri. Vimla Raje born in 1929.

ADMINISTRATION.

Karbhari : MR. G. B. KULKARNI, B.A., LL.B.

NAWAB LUTFUD-DOWLA BAHADUR of Paigah Estate, Hyderabad, Deccan.

His father Nawab Zafar Jung Shamsul Mulk Bahadur was the son of Nawab Sir Khursheed Jah, Amir-i-Kabir, Shamsul Umara and his mother was the daughter of the then Nizam, Nawab Afzalud-Dowla Bahadur, the grand-father of His Exalted Highness, the present Nizam. The head of this family was the Nawab Abul Fateh Khan, Shamsul Umara I. The Estate of the Paigah was awarded him by the Nawab Mir Nizam Ali Khan, the Second Nizam. From that time to the present day the Paigah has been held by the family.

Shamsul Umara I was a descendant of the well-known Sufi Shaik Fariduddin Shaker Gunj. This renowned Sufi died in 1296 A.D. His shrine at Pak Patan is even to-day visited by pilgrims.

Nawab Lutfud-Dowla's real name is Lutfuddin Khan. He was *born* on the 21st July, 1883 A.D. On the death of his father he succeeded him as Amir Paigah by Command of the Nizam. On the 18th August, 1917, he was appointed Minister for the Army and Medical Departments (Regular and Irregular Forces, Military, Civil and Unani Department and Jail). At the Birthday honours, His Exalted Highness conferred upon him the title of Latafat Jung. On organisation of the Executive Council of the State, he was made Member for the Army, Jail and Medical Departments. On February 16th, 1923, at the Birthday of His Exalted Highness, he was honoured with the title of Lutfud-Dowla. On January 26th, 1925, he was Member in charge of Public Works, Irrigation, Drainage and Registration Departments. On June 7th, 1928, he was appointed Member for the Judicial and Ecclesiastical Departments, in which capacity he still continues.

The area of the Estate is about 1,687 square miles with a revenue of Rs. 21,75,397. It consists of 10 Taluqas of 495 villages. Its population is 2,75,448.

SYED MOHIUDDIN ALI KHAN, NAWAB MOHIUDDIN YAR JUNG BAHADUR, B.A. (Cantab.), known generally in the public as "Hunter Sahib," and among the Hindus particularly as Govindachary, was *born* in 1864 in Hyderabad-Deccan.

Is a descendant on his father's side of Nawab Raji Ali Khan (a Farooki by birth), Ruler of Khandesh and Nawab Najeeb Khan, Salar Jung of Delhi, on mother's side of the Nawabs of Poona and Tippu Sultan.

Educated: At the Aligarh College and the Trinity College, Cambridge. Passed History Tripos in 1892, and returned to Hyderabad-Deccan by the end of that year.

Served: H. E. H. the Nizam's Government with the interval of 2 years (1332-33F.) / 1923-24 between 1302-1336F. / 1893-1927. Rose from Division Officer, one after the other, to the posts of Collector, Division, Famine and Customs, Commissioner, and finally retired as Director-General of Revenue, Telangana Districts, by the end of 1927 on the highest possible pension sanctioned by H. E. H. the Nizam in appreciation of the services rendered to the Government.

Married: In 1886 before going to England the only daughter of Nawab Nazim Jung Bahadur, and after his return from England made another Nekah. He has one daughter from the former, who is married, and one son from the latter. He is a young man of good promise, and is at present a Customs Superintendent.

NAWAB MUHAMMAD MOIN-UD-DIN KHAN, NAWAB MOIN-UD-DOWLA, BAHADUR, the only son of the late Nawab Sir Asman Jah Bahadur, one of the three great Paigah Nobles of the Hyderabad State, was born in Hyderabad Deccan in the year 1891. Nawab Moin-ud-Dowla's Paigah or feudal state covers an area of 1,281 square miles and has a population of 276,533, while its annual revenue amounts to Rs. 22 lakhs. He carries on the administration with the help of a Council consisting of a President and two Members.

In 1919 Nawab Moin-ud-din Khan Bahadur was given the title of Nawab Eyanath Jung, and in 1922 the title of Nawab Moin-ud-Dowla. In 1923 he was appointed Minister in charge of the Industrial Department and also a Member of the Executive Council. The next year he was given charge of the Military Department and in 1927 he resigned the post, for, by an order of His Exalted Highness the Nizam, his Paigah Estates were released from the Court of Wards and he was made the Amir of the Sir Asman Jahi Paigah.

Though at one time a keen rider, Polo Player and Racing Noble, Nawab Moin-ud-Dowla Bahadur's present main recreation is shooting. He is also passionately fond of watching cricket, and he has done much to encourage the game and raise its standard not only in Hyderabad Deccan but in the whole of India. The All-India Gold Cup Cricket Tournament, which was started three years ago as a result of his munificence, attracts to Hyderabad most of the best Cricketers in India. The last M.C.C. fixture in Secunderabad, Deccan, was also due to his keen interest in Cricket and his generosity.

NAWAB SALAR JUNG BAHADUR (MIR YUSUF ALI KHAN), one of the premier noblemen of Hyderabad Deccan, and the sole representative of the illustrious family of Sir Salar Jung the Great of the Mutiny fame.

Born: 13th June 1889 at Poona.

Educated: At Nizam College.

Was Prime Minister between 1912-15; has travelled all over Europe, Iraq, Persia, Syria, Palestine, etc., keeps a Polo Team; has got a fine library; takes interest in the Industrial Development of the country and is Director of seven Companies.

Area of State: 1,480 square miles.

Population: 202,739.

Revenue: Over Rs. 15 lakhs.

Administration is divided into several departments on modern lines, and is under direct control of the Nawab Saheb who personally supervises the work.

Family History: About the middle of the 17th century the great grandfather of the Nawab Saheb migrated from Medina to the Adil Shahi kingdom of Bijapur where he settled and married into a noble's family. After the fall of the kingdom, the members of the family took service under the Moguls. Later on they transferred their allegiance to the family of the Nizams and served them as Prime Ministers, who are as follows:—

(1) Shair Jung; (2) Ghayur Jung; (3) Dargah Khuli Khan Salar Jung; (4) Mir Alam; (5) Munirul-Mulk; (6) Sirajul-Mulk; (7) Sir Salar Jung I.; (8) Sir Salar Jung II.; (9) the present Salar Jung.

Address: Hyderabad (Deccan).

AGA SHAH ROOKH SHAH, NAWAB SHAH ROOKH YAR JUNG BAHADUR.

Born : At Mazagon, Bombay, in 1874. Eldest son of the late Aga Akbar Shah, ex-Sheriff of Bombay ; grandson of His late Highness the first Aga Khan and first cousin of His Highness the present Aga Khan.

Educated : In English, Persian and Arabic.

Married : Eldest daughter of the late Aga Shahabuddin Shah in 1897 at Poona.

Nawab Shah Rookh Yar Jung Bahadur was appointed Honorary A.D.C. to H. E. H. the Nizam of Hyderabad in 1918, and Honorary Private Secretary to His Highness the Aga Khan in 1900. He was President of the Poona Suburban Municipality for two consecutive terms from 1925 to 1931, and Chairman of the School Board of that body from 1925 to 1928 in which capacity he promoted primary education to a great extent. He was the founder and President of the Servants of Islam Society, Poona, in 1926 ; Director of the Queen Mary School for Disabled Indian Soldiers at Kirkee from 1923 to 1933 ; Jt. Honorary Secretary of the Lloyd Polo Club, Poona, from 1923 to 1928 ; Chairman of the Executive Committee of the Poona and Kirkee Boy Scouts Association for the last two years. Elected life fellow of the Royal Society of Arts, London, in 1927, President of the Poona District Muslim Educational Society from 1928 to 1931. Nominated as a member of the Bombay Legislative Council in 1932 ; Chairman of the House Accommodation Committee under the Cantonment Act at Poona in 1924. Elected President of Dairat-ul-Adab, Bombay, in 1933.

He is a member of several Clubs and Societies in Bombay and Poona. As a born loyalist he has always stood by the Government.

He is an amateur artist in oil colours and is also fond of sport. He regularly hunted with Bombay and Poona Fox Hounds from 1889 to 1898 and participated in many point-to-point races in Poona. He was a keen cricketer and used to captain his family and school teams between 1898 and 1899.

NAWAB WALI-UD-DOWLA BAHADUR, Member of His Exalted Highness the Nizam's Executive Council in charge of Army, Education, Medical and Sanitation, Registration and Stamps, Archæological and Postal Departments, is a son of Nawab Sir Vicar-ul-Umra Bahadur, Prime Minister to His Highness the late Nizam and a member of the Paigah family, closely related to the ruling family by marriage. The Nawab, who was born on the 16th October 1882, was sent to England at the early age of 7. He entered a preparatory School and after receiving his education at Eton and Cambridge returned to India in 1900.

On his return to India he was attached to a British Cavalry Regiment, The 4th Queen's Own Hussars in Trimulghery, and afterwards joined The Imperial Cadet Corps on the invitation of Lord Curzon, the then Viceroy and Governor-General in India and had further Military Education and training at Meerut and Dehra Dun; later received the King's Commission. He was then posted on the Staff of General Sir Charles Egerton, Commanding the Southern Division, after which his services were transferred to the Nizam's Government where he took appointment as Musketry Officer to the 1st and 2nd Imperial Lancers Regiments. In 1911 after the present Nizam came in power he was given the high appointment of the Army Minister and in 1917, he was appointed Minister in charge of the Judicial, Police, and General Departments. In 1924 he was appointed to act as President of His Exalted Highness the Nizam's Executive Council. In 1927 on the conclusion of the period of his acting appointment, he reverted to the Minister's Post as member in charge of the Army, Education, Medicine and General Departments. He is the *Ex-Officio* Vice-Chancellor of the Osmania University. Being the senior most member in His Exalted Highness the Nizam's Executive Council, he is also its Deputy President.

The Nawab is a keen sportsman having shot many tigers, and a Polo player.

SARDAR BHASAHEB RAISINGHJI, M.L.C., THAKORE SAHEB OF KERWADA, District Broach.

Born: 23rd May, 1881.

Educated: At the Rajkumar College, Rajkot.

Accession: At the very early age of 23 in the year 1904. The Thakore Saheb has managed the Thakrat very efficiently increasing the revenue by about half a lac and has always looked to the interests of his subjects through a sympathetic parental eye. Electric lighting and water supply have also been introduced.

The Thakore Saheb is very popular with his people as well as the Government officials. Besides being a first class Sardar of Gujarat, he is one of the leaders of the Thakores, Sardars, Inamdars and Talukdars of Gujarat whom he has represented for more than 21 years in the Bombay Council.

The Thakore Saheb has been Honorary First Class Magistrate for 27 years.—Was President of the Wagra Taluka Local Board for about 17 years and First elected non-official President of the Broach District Board. Is a member of the District Local Board of Broach. Is Chairman of the School Board of the District Local Board of Broach. Is Vice-President of the Anjuman-I-Islam, Broach—A member of the B. B. & C. I. Railway Advisory Committee, Agricultural Research Committee of Bombay Presidency, etc. The Thakore Saheb has been a staunch supporter of the Constitutional Government for the last 21 years and supplied well over 1,500 recruits during the War as a recognition of which service he has been presented with three medals: One from the War Office, one from the Iron Cross for best work and one special Medal from H. E. Lord Willingdon as Governor of Bombay. He presented a motor ambulance on behalf of the Talukdars of Gujarat to be used in the War and subscribed Rs. 50,000 towards the War loan.

Recently after the suspension of the Broach Municipality by Government he has been elected Chairman and within a short period of 12 months has succeeded in restoring its financial condition, showing a balance of nearly Rs. 90,000 on hand after money being spent on many improvements in the City.

NAWABZADA KHAN BAHADUR SYED DILDAR ALI KHAN of Hossainabad in the District of Monghyr (B. & O.)

Born : 30th September 1856.

Family history : Nawabzada is the scion of one of the oldest and noblest family of India claiming its descent from Bani Hashim on father's side and Hossaini Syed from mother's side. The family has always been well known for literary attainments as well as political power, and was the recipient of *Altamga* from the Emperor Aurangzeb. The Emperor Shah Alam made Nawab Ali Ibrahim Khan "Khalil" a Shash-Hazari (Order of six thousand) noble and conferred the titles of "Khan Bahadur Nawab" and "Aminuddowla Azizul Mulk Naseer Jang." He is highly spoken of by the authors of "Serul-Muta-akharin" and "Gulshan Hind," the two most authentic documents in the world of History and literature of the period ; and was acclaimed also by Warren Hasting as "Amminudduala Azzizul Mulk-Naseer Jung". During the regime of Lord Cornwallis he was the Chief Magistrate and the Governor of Benares where he died in 1208H. He was the author of "Gulzar Ibrahim", "Khulasatul-Kalam", "Marhatta War book", "Chet Singh's rebellion". His letters adorn the British Museum.

Nawab Ali Khan, the father of the Nawabzada, was recognized as a loyal Zemindar and the Parganas of Rajgir and Amarthu were settled with him long after the permanent settlement in the year of Grace 1878 A.D. The income of the Nawab was Rs. 3 lakhs and the area of the family estate 65,540 acres.

Nawabzada Syed Dildar Ali Khan is the head of the Hossainabad family. He is loved by his tenants and is the emblem of Eastern courtesy. His liberality, generosity and religious fervour are unexampled. He is the chief patron of Islamia High School, Shaikhpura and was President of the Provincial Shia Conference. Though the Nawabzada has never been very officious about titles owing to his retiring nature the Government granted him a Sanad in 1903 and conferred the title of Khan Bahadur in 1922. He has free license for keeping a certain number of fire-arms.

Sons : Syed Mohammed Baqar Ali Khan and Syed Mohammed Jabir Ali Khan.

RAJA YUVERAJ DUTTA SINGH of Oel and Kaimarah Estates, Lakhimpur-Kheri, Oudh, U. P.

Born: On the 31st of July 1907.

Ascended the Gadi: On the 24th of April 1933 on the death of his late grandfather Raja Krishna Dutta Singh. His father Kr. Ram Dutta Singh died in the life-time of the late Raja Krishna Dutta Singh who died on the 15th of December 1932 at the age of about 72 years.

The estate is the biggest estate in the district of Kheri and one of the most prominent estates of Oudh. It remained under the superintendence of the Court of Wards from August 1896 to 24th April 1933 on the request of the late Raja during which period the estates flourished very well and the income increased from roughly 3½ lakhs to about 9 lakhs. The area of the estate is 196,960 acres and consists of 223 whole villages and 16 partials. The estate gives very high guzaras to the members of the family. The next heir to the estate is eldest son of Raja Saheb, Kr. Jagdish Narain Dutta Singh who is now about 7 years.

Raja Yuveraj Dutta Singh is a Chauhan Thakur and was educated for a number of years at the Mayo College, Ajmer. He was married in 1926 to the daughter of the late Raja Bindeshwari Parshad Singh Sahib of Payagpur, an estate lying in the districts of Bahraich and Gonda in Oudh. The late General Padam Jung Bahadur Rana, the third son of the late His Highness the Maharaja Sir Jung Bahadur Rana, Prime Minister of Nepal, was the father-in-law of Kr. Ram Dutta Singh, the father of the present Raja.

The estate has its capital at Oel, but the headquarters of the present Raja are at Lakhimpur-Kheri.

Raja Yuveraj Dutta Singh is interested in motoring and tennis which are his chief hobbies. He is a non-official visitor of the District Jail and an Honorary Magistrate.

RAJA KRISHNA CHANDRA MANASINGHA HARICHANDAN MARDARAJ BHRAMARBAR RAY of Parikud, Orissa.

Born : In June 1906.

The Rulers of Parikud claim their descent from the warrior class (Rathors) of Northern India and the first Raja Sudarson Raj had a small kingdom at Jaipur about forty miles to the north-east of Cuttack in Orissa. His son Raja Jaduraj was the real founder of the dynasty who established his kingdom at Bonkado in Banpur, Orissa. In course of time the family removed to Parikud, consisting of a group of Islands and bounded on three sides by the lake Chilka and on one side by the Bay of Bengal. The land area is 67 sq. miles and water area of Chilka Lake is 450 sq. miles.

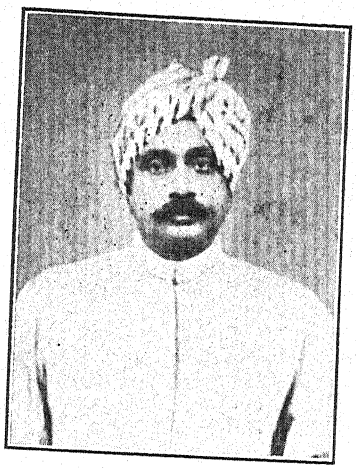
The family obtained the hereditary title of Raja from the British Government in 1872 and as such holds the first position in Bihar and Orissa. The present Raja is the 22nd heir of the family. His grandfather, Raja Gour Chandra Manasingha Harichandan Mardaraj Bhramarbar Ray and great-grandfather Raja Chandra Sekhar Manasingha Harichandan Mardaraj Bhramarbar Ray obtained the titles of Raja Bahadur and C.S.I., respectively, from the British Government for their humanitarian service in helping people at times of famine in 1866 and 1892. The family is well known for its fidelity and loyalty to the British Government.

Educated : At the Rajkumar College, Raipur.

Succession : In August 1930, on the demise of his father Raja Radhamohan Manasingha Harichandan Mardaraj Bhramarbar Ray.

He was made a member of the Advisory Committee of the Bengal Nagpur Railway in June 1933 and the Chairman of the District Board, Puri, in the latter part of 1933. He is also a member of the General Council, Raipur College.

Married : The sister of the Ruling Chief of Athamallik (Orissa) in March 1931.



CAPTAIN RAJAH SRI SRI SRI KRISHNA CHANDRA GAJAPATHI NARAYANA DEO, M.L.C., Rajah of Parlakimedi, Ganjam District, in the Madras Presidency. The Rajah Saheb is the owner of the Parlakimedi Estate with an area of 615 square miles; and of Goudguranti and Boranta villages in Budarasingi Estate and the Malukdar Estate, Anandapuram, in Chicacole and the Delang Estate in Orissa.

Born: 26th April 1892.

Educated: At Rajah's College, Parlakimedi and Newington College, Madras.

The Rajah Saheb was a member of the Royal Commission on Agriculture; a delegate to the First Indian Round Table Conference; an associated member of the Orissa Boundary Committee and was selected in 1933 as a representative of the All-India Landholders' Association to give evidence before the Parliamentary Joint Select Committee in London. He is a member of the Madras Legislative Council and Honourable Advisor and Visitor to the Agricultural College, Coimbatore. He has been taking a prominent part in commercial and industrial advancement and owns a railway line of 57 miles. He maintains a big Rice Mill, a progressive carpentry School, a large Second grade College, a Sanskrit College, two large Girls' Schools for Oriyas and Telegus and an Agricultural Demonstration Farm.

He has to his credit a long list of magnificent public services. He contributed Rs. 1,00,000 to the Research Institute, Coonoor, and Rs. 20,000 for higher studies in Agriculture. During the Great War he subscribed Rs. 3,10,000 towards War Loans and Funds and recruited men both for Combatant and Non-Combatant Forces. He has been holding Honorary Commission in the land forces of R. I. M. since 1918. In recognition of his meritorious services and the interest taken in improving the condition of his Estate and its people he was awarded the title of Rajah (personal) in 1918, Rajah (hereditary) in 1922, made Honorary 2nd-Lieutenant in 1918 and subsequently promoted to the rank of Captain. The Rajah Saheb is keenly interested in big games having bagged many panthers and tigers besides other wild animals and is also a keen Cricketer. He is a member of several important Clubs of this Presidency and of the East Indian Association, London.

AITMAD-UD-DOULA, VIQAR-UL-MULK, NAWAB SIR LIAQAT HYAT KHAN, Kt., O.B.E., K.B., Prime Minister, Patiala, is the eldest surviving son of the late Hon'ble Nawab Mohammad Hyat Khan, C.S.I., of Wah in the Attock District of the Punjab.

He entered the Punjab Government Service in 1909 as a Deputy Superintendent of Police and received unusually early promotion to the Imperial Police where he held several important appointments with conspicuous success. His services were recognized by the grant of the "King's Police Medal" and the titles of "Khan Bahadur" and "O.B.E.," as also a grant of land from Government.

In 1923 his services were lent to His Highness the Maharaja Dhiraj of Patiala as Home Secretary, but His Highness soon raised his status to that of Home Minister placing under his control the administration of some of the most important Departments in the State. In 1928 his meritorious services to the State were recognised by Government by the grant of the high title of "Nawab" which is now a rare distinction.

After seven years' loyal and efficient service to the State His Highness was pleased, as a mark of favour and appreciation, to appoint the Nawab Sahib as his Prime Minister and confer upon him the following honours and rewards :—

(1) Title of Aitmad-ud-doula, Viqar-ul-mulk, "Nawab" and Tazim (Hereditary).
(2) Jagir and Biswedari yielding an annual income of Rs. 51,000 (Hereditary).
(3) Cash reward of Rs. 1,01,000.
(4) First seat in Darbar to the left of the Gaddi (Masnad-i-Shahi), (Hereditary).
(5) Khillat of Rs. 1,700 on all Khillat occasions for him and his heirs.

He represented the State twice at the Round Table Conference and again as a delegate to the Parliamentary Joint Select Committee.

In January, 1933, His Majesty the King-Emperor conferred upon him the honour of "Knighthood."

During the last ten years the Nawab Sahib has introduced many important reforms in the State, and has proved himself to be a very capable and efficient administrator and a statesman of high order. His politeness, impartiality and keen sympathy with the people of the State have made him immensely popular with all classes of His Highness' subjects.

BIRA SRI GAJAPATI GOUDESWAR NABAKOTIKARNATOTKALA BIRADHIBIRABAR BARGESWARADHIRAJ BHUTAVAIRABSADHUSASONOTKIRNA ROUTARAJ ATULABALAPARAKRAM SANMGRAMASAHASRABAHU KSHETRIAKULADHUMAKETU MAHARADHIRAJ SRI SRI SRI RAJA RAMACHANDRA DEB RAJA of Puri (B. & O.) belongs to the famous Ganga Vanshi Rajput; Descendant of King Chodagang Deb who came from Southern India. The present Raja is the direct lineal descendant of the Hindu Kings of Orissa.

Maharaja Dibya Singh Deb, the grandfather of the present Raja, was conferred with the title of Maharaja by the present Government. The Moghul Government conferred on this family the hereditary title of Maharaja.

Many of the Rajas and Ruling Chiefs of Orissa were under the sovereignty of this house until the British conquest and many of the Rajas and Ruling Chiefs still use the title conferred on them by this Raj which was the fountain of honour.

The Raja is the hereditary guardian of the famous Temple of Jagannath at Puri. Electric lighting has been installed in and around the temple for the comfort of the pilgrims visiting the Temple.

Born: 6th November 1898 as 3rd son of Raja Satchidanand Tribhuban Deb, late Chief of Bamra, a native State of Orissa, later got adopted to Puri family. Succeeded his late father Raja Mukund Deb on 14th February 1926.

Married: A Princess of the famous Bhanj family of Mayurbhanj.

Educated: At Bamra State High School and then at Calcutta. He is the 1st educated Raja of Puri gadi.

Heir-Apparent: SRI SRI SRI NILKANTH DEB JENAMONI, born 2nd July 1929. *2nd Prince:* SRI SRI RAJRAJ DEB SANJENAMONI, born 8th May 1933. *Princess:* RAJKUMARI KASTURIKAMODINI DEBI, born 1931.

STAFF.

Dewan: Babu Bipin Behari Gupta. *Asst. Dewan:* Babu Ram Sahay Lall. *Temple Commander:* Babu Jadumoni Das.
Peskar: Babu Biswanath Rajguru.
Treasurer: Babu Gurucharan Bebartapatnaik.
Bill Dept.: Babu C. Bose. *Nazir:* Lala Gopinath.
Landed Estate's Officers: Lala Shyam Mohan and Babu N.C.Patnaik.
Law: Babu Ganeswar Misra. *Sanitary Supervisor:* Dr. Dinakar Rao, L.M.F. *Domestic:* Babu Lokenath Das.
Works and Repair: Babu D. B. Patnaik.
Teshildars of different circles: Babus Bainshidhar Bebartapatnaik, Bihari Patnaik, Damodar Das, Birabhadra Mohanti, Mathuranand Mohanti, Brahmanand Mohanti, Atchutanand Misra.

The Calendars.

A full Calendar will be found at the beginning of this book. Below are given details of the other Calendars in use in India.

The *Jewish* Calendar is in accordance with the system arranged A.D. 358. The Calendar dates from the Creation, which is fixed as 3,760 years and 3 months before the beginning of the Christian Era; the year is Luni-solar.

The *Mohammedan*, or era of the Hejira, dates from the day after Mahomet's flight from Mecca, which occurred on the night of July 15, 622 A.D. The months are Lunar.

The *Fasli* year was derived from a combination of the Hejira and Samvat years by the order of Akbar; it is Luni-solar. The *Bengali* year seems also to have been related at one time to the Hejira, but the fact of its being Solar made it lose 11 days each year.

The *Samvat* era dates from 57 B.C., and is Luni-solar. The months are divided into two fortnights—*sudi*, or bright, and *badi*, or dark. Each fortnight contains 15 tithis, which furnish the dates of the civil days given in our calendars.

PUBLIC HOLIDAYS IN 1934.

Parsee (Shehenshahi).

Jamshedi Navroz	March	21
Avan Jashan	April	14
Adar Jashan	May	13
Zarthost-no-Diso	June	14
Gatha Gahambars	Sept.	6
Parsi New Year	,,	6 & 7
Khordad Sal	,,	12

Parsee (Kadmi).

Avan Jashan	March	15
Jamshedi Navroz	,,	21
Adar Jashan	April	13
Zarthost-no-Diso	May	15
Gatha Gahambars	Aug.	6
Parsi New Year	,,	7 & 8
Khordad Sal	,,	13

Mahomedan (Sunni).

Ramzan-Id	Jan.	17
Bakri-Id	March	26
Muharram	April	25
Id-e-Milad	June	30
Shab-e-Barat	Nov.	22
Mahim Fair (Bombay City only)	Dec.	22

Mahomedan (Shia).

Shahadat-e-Hazrat Ali	Jan.	8
Ramzan-Id	,,	17
Bakri-Id	March	26
Muharram	April	25
Shahadat-e-Imam Hasan	June	11
Id-e-Milad	,,	30

Hindu.

Makar-Sankranti	Jan.	14
Maha Shivratri	Feb.	12
Holi (2nd day)	March	1
Ramnavami	,,	24
Cocoanut Day	Aug.	24
Gokal Ashtami	Sept.	1
Ganesh Chathurthi and Samvatsari	,,	12 & 13
Dassera	Oct.	17
Divali	Nov.	6, 7 & 8

Jewish.

Pesach (1st day)	March	31
Pesach (2nd day)	April	6
Shabuth	May	20
Teshabeab	July	22
Rosh Hoshana (2 days)	Sept.	10 & 11
Kippur (2 days)	,,	18 & 19
Sukkoth (2 days)	,,	24 & Oct. 2

Jain.

Chaitra Sud 15	March	30
Shravan Vad 13, 14 and Bhadarva Sud 1	Sept.	6, 7 & 9
Sharavan Vad 30 and Bhadarva Sud 2 & 3	,,	8, 10 & 11
Pajushan, Bhadarva Sud 5	,,	13
Kartik Sud 15	Nov.	21

Christian.

New Year's Day	Jan.	1
Good Friday	March	30
Easter	Mar. & Apr.	31 & 2
Christmas	Dec.	24, 25 & 26
New Year's Eve	,,	31

Note.—If any of the Mahomedan holidays shown above does not fall on the day notified, the Mahomedan servants of Government may be granted a sectional holiday on the day on which the holiday is actually observed in addition to a holiday on the day notified.

THE INDIAN CALENDARS.

Mahomedan.

1934		1352	
January 1	..	Ramzan	14
Janury 17	..	Shuwal	1
February 16	..	Zil-kaideh ..	1
March 17	..	Til-hjed ..	1
April 16	..	Moharram ..	1
1934		**1353.**	
May 15	..	Safar	1
June 14	..	Rubbi-ul-Awwal. .	1
July 14	..	Rubbis-us-Sanee. .	1
August 12	..	Jamadi-ul-Awall. .	1
September 11	..	Jamadi-ul-Sanee. .	1
October 11	..	Rajab	1
November 9	..	Saban	1
December 9	..	Ramzan	1
December 31	..	Ramzan	23

Bengalee.

1934.		1340.	
January 1	..	Pous	17
January 15	..	Magha	1
February 13	..	Phalguna ..	1
March 15	..	Chaiktra	1
1934.		**1341.**	
April 14	..	Vaishakha ..	1
May 15	..	Jyaistha ..	1
June 16	..	Ashada	1
July 17	..	Shravana ..	1
August 18	..	Bhadra	1
September 18	..	Asvina	1
October 18	..	Kartika	1
November 17	..	Marga	1
December 17	..	Pous	1

Samvat.

(S=Sudee, B=Budee.)

1934.		1990.	
January 1	..	Pous ..	.. B 1
January 16	..	Magh ..	.. S 1
January 31	..	Magh ..	.. B 1
February 14	..	Fagoon ..	.. S 1
March 2	..	Fagoon ..	.. B 1
March 16	..	Chaitra ..	.. S 1
April 1	..	Chaitra ..	.. B 1
April 14	..	Adhik Bysack	.. S 1
April 30	..	Adhik Bysack	.. B 1
May 14	..	Bysack ..	.. S 1
May 29	..	Bysack ..	.. B 1
June 13	..	Jeshtha ..	.. S 1
June 28	..	Jeshtha ..	.. B 1
July 12	..	Asad ..	.. S 1
July 27	..	Asad ..	.. B 1
August 11	..	Sawan ..	.. S 1
August 25	..	Sawan ..	.. B 1
September 9	..	Bhadarva	.. S 1
September 24	..	Bhadarva	.. B 1
October 9	..	Aso ..	.. S 1
October 23	..	Aso ..	.. B 1

1934		1991	
November 8	..	Kartick	.. S 1
November 22	..	Kartick	.. B 1
December 7	..	Marga	.. S 1
December 21	..	Marga	.. B 1
December 31	..	Marga	.. B 10

Telugu & Kanarese.

(S=Sudee, B=Budee.)

1934.		1482.	
January 1	..	Pushyam	.. S
January 8	..	Pushyam	.. S
January 24	..	Pushyam	.. B
February 7	..	Magham	.. S
February 12	..	Magham	.. B
March 8	..	Phalgunam	.. S
March 22	..	Phalgunam	.. B
1934.		**1483.**	
April 6	..	Chitram ..	.. S
April 21	..	Chitram ..	.. B
May 6	..	Vaishakham	.. S
May 21	..	Vaishakham	.. B
June 5	..	Jyeshtom	.. S
June 19	..	Jyeshtom	.. B
July 4	..	Ashadham	.. S
July 18	..	Ashadham	.. B
August 3	..	Sravanam	.. S
August 17	..	Sravanam	.. B
September 1	..	Bhadrapadam	.. S
September 15	..	Bhadrapadam	.. B
October 1	..	Ashwijam	.. S
October 15	..	Ashwijam	.. B
October 30	..	Kartikam	.. S
November 14	..	Kartikam	.. B
November 28	..	Margasiram	.. S
December 14	..	Margasirsha	.. B
December 28	..	Pushyam	.. S
December 31	..	Pushyam	.. S

Tamil-Malayalam.

1934.		1109.	
January 1	..	Margali-Dhanusu.	18
January 14	..	Thai-Makaram ..	1
February 12	..	Masi-Kumbham	1
March 14	..	Panguni-Meenum	1
April 13	..	Chittrai-Mesham	1
May 14	..	Vaikasi-Vrishabham	1
June 15	..	Ani-Mithunam ..	1
July 16	..	Adi-Karkatam ..	1
1934.		**1110.**	
August 17	..	Avani-Chingam ..	1
September 17	..	Pooratasi-Kanni	1
October 17	..	Aippasi-Thulam .	1
November 16	..	Martikai-Brishchikam	1
December 15	..	Margali-Dhanusu.	1
December 31	..	Margali-Dhanusu.	16

INDEX.

Index to Imperial Trade Guide and advertised businesses, see pages iv to vi.

PAGE

A

Abor Expedition 246
Absorption of gold 768
Accidents, mining 711
——Railway 696
Act, Ancient Monuments Preservation .. 32
——Assam Labour and Emigration 482, 757
——Auxiliary Force (Amendment) .. 462
——Bombay Municipal Boroughs .. 81
——Cantonments (House Accommodation Amendment) 464
——Central Provinces Local Self-Government 144
——Central Provinces Village Panchayat. 144
——Children (Pledging of Labour) .. 461
——Co-operative Credit Societies .. 378, 396
——Cotton Cess 379
————Ginning and Pressing Factories 739
————Textile Industry (Amendment). 461
——————————(Second Amendment) .. 464
————Transport 739
——Criminal Law (Amendment) .. 47
——Cross's (Lord) 46
——Dangerous Drugs (Amendment) .. 465
——Declaratory 442
——Emigration 982
——Factory 486
——Government of India 51
——Heavy Chemical Industry (Protection) 913
——High Courts, India 443
——Imperial Bank of India (of 1920). 671, 967
——India Council's 47
——Indian Arbitration (Amendment) .. 464
————Coinage 880
————Copyright 466
————Councils 47
————Currency 881
————Factories Act 486
————Finance 461
————Forest (Amendment) 461
————High Courts 443
————Income-tax (Amendment) .. 462
——————————(Second Amendment.) 463
————Insurance Companies 769
————Marine (Amendment) 461
————Medical Council 465
————Merchandise Marks .. 766 771

PAGE

Act, Indian Merchant Shipping (Amendment) 462
——————Merchant Shipping (Second Amendment) 465
——————Mines 490
——————Patents and Designs 766
——————Press (1910) 655
——————Press and Registration of Books 655
——————Prisons 458
——————Railways (Amendment) .. 464
——————Tariff (Amendment) 463
——————————(Ottawa Trade Agreement) Supplementary .. 462
——————————(Second Amendment) .. 466
——————Tea Control 464
——————Wireless Telegraphy 463
——Industrial Courts 536
——Land Acquisition (Amendment) .. 463
——Murshidabad Estate Administration. 464
——Natal Township 988
——Newspapers Incitements to Offences 655
——Oudh Tenancy 875
——Permanent Settlement 874
——Presidency Banks (1876) 671
——Press and Registration of Books (1867) 655
——Prevention of Seditious Meetings .. 47
——Prisons (of 1894) 458
——Provincial Criminal Law Supplementary 462
——Punjab Land Alienation 875
——Reforms, of 1919 51
——Safeguarding of Industries 462
——Salt Additional Import Duty Extending 461
——Sea Customs 771
——Tea District Emigrant Labour .. 483
——Trade Unions 533
——Transvaal Asiatic Land Tenure .. 991
——Vernacular Press 46, 655
——Workmen's Compensation 497
——————(Amendment) 463
Acworth Committee (Railway) 690
Adam's Bridge 699
Aden administration 162
——area 162
——Climate 162
——Population 162
Administration, Aden 162
——Army 257

	PAGE
Administration, Assam	158
——Baluchistan	160
—— ——Agency	172
——Baroda	171
——Bengal Presidency	101
——Bihar and Orissa	136
—— Bombay Presidency	80
——Burma	130
——Central Provinces and Berar	143
——Education	357
——French India	214
——Forests	648
——Hyderabad	169
——Justice	442
——Madras	89
——Mysore	169
——N. W. Frontier Provinces	153
——of Portuguese India	211
——Police	453
——Punjab	121
——United Provinces	111
Adventists, Seventh Day Mission	436
Advisory Committees (Local), Railway	696
Afghanistan	239
——Assassination of Habibullah Khan	240
——Consul for	250
——Post-war relations with India	240
——Relations with India	239
Afghan Mission to India, 1920	241
——Peace Treaty	241
—— Wars	43, 46, 48, 240, 256
Aga Khan (The)	953
Age and Sex	977
Agency, Political, Baluchistan	172
—— ——Banas Kantha	187
—— ——Central India	179
—— ——Cutch	187, 190
—— ——Deccan States	193
—— ——Eastern States	196
—— ——Gujarat States	191
—— ——Kathiawar	187
—— ——Rajputana	173
——Sabar Kantha	187
Agra and Delhi Architecture	24
——University	367
Agreement, Anglo-Persian	231
——Anglo-Russian	218
——Opium, with China	761
——Smuts—Gandhi	987
Agriculture	280
——Assam	156
——Baluchistan	160
——Baroda	170
——Bengal	99
——Bihar and Orissa	135

	PAGE
Agriculture Bombay Presidency	79
——Burma	129
——Central Provinces and Berar	142
——Chief Crops	282
——Commission (Royal)	285, 286
——Dairying	285
——History of	285
——Hyderabad	168
——Kashmir	206
——Live-stock	284
——Madras Presidency	89
——Manures	281
——Mysore	170
——N. W. Frontier Provinces	153
——People engaged in	980
——Punjab	121
——Soils	280
——Statistics	289-308
——United Provinces	110
Agricultural and Horticultural Society of India (Calcutta)	405
——Capital	280
—— —— Improvement	280
——Co-operative Societies	380
——Cultivation	281
——Export	283
——holdings, nature of	874
——Implements	280
——irrigation	281
——machinery	280
——produce	282
——progress	285
——Research	286
—— ——Imperial Council of	286
—— ————Council, Constitution of	287
—— ———— ——Work of	286
—— ————Institute and College	285
——Societies	381
——Statistics	289-308
Agri-Horticultural Society of Burma	405
—— —— ——Madras	405
Ahmedabad, yarn at	743
Aircraft Depot	263
——Park	264
Air currents	316
—— Force, Royal	263
——Routes to India	932
Airways, Imperial	549, 932
————National, Indian	549, 933
————Trans-Continental, Indian	932
Ajmer-Merwara	161
Akalkot	193
Akbar, Emperor	39
Alexander the Great	37
Aligarh University	367

	Page
Allahabad University	366
All-India Blind Relief Association	584, 585
——Congress	937
——Labour Associations	530
——Missions	434
——Parties Muslim Conference	951
——Union Congress	530
——War Memorial	563
——Women's Deputation	595
All-Parties Muslim Conference	951
Alwar State	179
Amanullah Khan's Reforms	242
Amb	185
Amber	718
Ambulance Association, St. John	587
American Arcot Mission	433
——Baptist Assam Mission	431
——Bengal Orissa Mission	431
——Foreign Mission	431
——Telugu Mission	431
——Board of Commissioners for Foreign Missions	433
——Consul	254
——Evangelical National Missionary Society	438
——Friends' Mission	438
——Mennonite Mission	436
——Presbyterian Mission	432
——Wesleyan Methodist Mission	440
Amir Habibullah	217, 240
——and the War	217, 241
Anatolian Railway Company	248
Anchor Line	547
Ancient Monuments Preservation (Amendment) Act	32
Andaman and Nicobar Islands	161, 459
Andhras	38
Andhra University	367
——Valley Project	335
Anglican bishops	423
——Missionary Societies	423
Anglo-Indian League	405
——Persian Agreement	231
——Russian Agreement	218, 222, 237
Annamalai University	367
Annexation of Oudh	44
——Pegu	44
——Punjab	44
——Upper Burma	44
Anthropological Society of Bombay	405
Anti-Malarial Co-operative Societies	393
Appointments, India Office	164
——Miscellaneous	69
Arbitration (Amendment) Act, Indian	464
——of industrial disputes	536
Archæological Survey	69
Archæology	29
—— Caves	30
—— Department	32, 69
—— Gandhara monuments	30
—— Inscriptions	31
—— Monumental pillars	29
—— Saracenic Architecture	31
—— Structural Temples	31
—— Topes	30
Architecture	23
——Indian	23
——Modern	24
Arcot Mission	433
Area, cultivated and uncultivated	299
——Forest	647
——irrigation	300, 311
——of India	166
——of Indian States	166
——under crops	301-305
Argentine Consul	250
Army	255
——and war	255
——Administration, present system	257
——Afghan Wars	256
——Aircraft Depot	263
——Park	264
——Air Force, Royal	263
——Artillery, Royal	261
——Auxiliary Force	267
——Baroda	172
——British Forces in India, Regular	261
——Capitation payments	274
——Cavalry, British	261
——Child Welfare in the	581
——Command, Chain of	259
——Commander-in-Chief	257
——Cost of	274
——Department	257, 268
——Education in	269
——Effectives 1933	271
——Engineer Services	262
——Fighting Races	270
——Forces	264
——Infantry	264
——Mutiny	256
——Officers	269
——French Wars	255
——Frontier Militia	267
——Headquarters	258
——Health of	275, 581
——Hyderabad	168
——Indian Cavalry	264

PAGE

Army, Indian Signal Corps 265
—— ——State Forces 268
—— ——Territorial Force 268
—— ——Troops 275
——Infantry, British 261
——Kashmir 206
——King's Commission 269
——Kitchener's (Lord) Scheme 257
——Levy Corps 267
——Military Council 258
—— ——Farms Department 267
—— ——Territorial Areas 258
——Minor Campaigns 256
——Mutiny, Indian 256
——Mysore 170
——National Defence Expenditure on .. 272
——Officers 269
——Overseas Expeditions 255
——Remount Department 266
——Reorganisation of 255
——Reserve of Officers, Indian 270
——Salvation, in India 440
——Service Corps, Indian 266
—— ——Educational 267
—— ——Engineer 262
—— ——Mechanical Transport 266
—— ——Medical 264, 265
—— ——Ordnance 266
—— ——Remount 266
—— ——Signal 265
—— ——Terms of 267
—— ——Veterinary 267
——Sikh Wars 256
——Squadrons 263
——Staff 258
——State Forces, Indian 268
——Strength 275
——Tank Corps, Royal 268
——Territorial Force 265
——Training Institutions 269
——Vellore Mutiny 255
——Viceroy's Commission 269
Art, Bombay School of 21, 22
——History of 19
——Indian 19
——Painting, modern 20
——Painting mural 22
——Schools of 21, 22
——sculptures 10
——Society, Bombay 406
Artillery, Royal 261

PAGE

Arts, Industrial 26
——metal-work 27
——modern conditions 28
——stone-work 26
——textiles 27
——wood-work 27
Aryans, history of 37
Aryo-Dravidian people 969
Asoka, King of India 37
Assam administration 158
——agriculture 156
——Area 156
——border tribes 246
——communications 156
——Ecclesiastical Department 425
——Finances of 157
——Judicial Department 448
——Labour and Emigration Act .. 482, 757
——Legislative Council 159
——manufactures, trade 156
——minerals, mines 156
——Mission, American Baptist 431
——Native States under 198
——Officials 158
——population 156
——rainfall 156
Assembly, Legislative 73
Assistant Superintendents of Police .. 454
Associated Chambers of Commerce of India 727
Association, All-India Blind Relief 584, 585
——Bombay Millowners' 727
——British Empire Leprosy Relief .. 583
——(of) British University Women .. 416
——Calcutta Jute Dealers' 750
—— ——Stock Exchange 721
——(of) Columbia University Alumni in India 417
——Cotton, East India 740
—— ——Research 739
——European 407
——Grain Merchants' 730
——Indian Chamber of Commerce .. 732
—— ——Jute Mills 749
—— ——Research Fund 569
—— ——Roads and Transport Development 409
——Jute Mills 749
——Lady Minto's Indian Nursing .. 594
——Millowners', Bombay 727
—— ——Mutual Insurance 728
—— National, for Supplying Medical aid to the Women of India .. 590
——Native Piece-Goods 730

	PAGE
Association, Nursing	594
——Press, of India	656
—— ——Owners'	411
——Share and Stock Brokers'	720
——St. John Ambulance	587
——Trained Nurses'	594
——Western India National Liberal	414
——Women's Christian	415
——Women's Indian	414
——Young Men's Christian	414
—— ——Women's Christian	415
Associations, Railway Labour	530
Asylums, Lunatic	587
——and Lunacy in India	587
Athletics	1025
Auckland, Lord	43
Aundh	193
Aurangzebe	40
Australia, Indians in	981
Australian Baptist Mission	431
Austrian Consul	250
Auxiliary Force	267
—— —— (Amendment) Act	462
——Training of Indian Officers	269
——University Corps	268
Aviation, Civil	548

B

Babar, Emperor	39
Badges, Distinctive	624
Baghdad Railway	219
—— ——Map of	249
Bahawalpur	200
Bahrein Islands	224
—— ——communications	224
—— ——customs duties	224
—— ——pearls	224
—— ——trade	224
Balance of Trade	911
Balasinor	191
Baluchistan administrations	160
——Agency	172
——Agriculture	160
——area	160
——education	160
——fishing	160
——foundation of province	160
——minerals	160
——officials	161
——physical features	160
——police	160
——population	160
Banas Kantha Agency	187
Bangalore Races	1003
Banganapalle	187
Bank, Bombay Central Co-operative	383
——branches	672
——Imperial, of India	671, 676
——of Bengal	671, 675
——of Bombay	676
——of Madras	676
——Madras Central Co-operative	383
——Rate	682
——Reserve	676
Bankers and Shroffs, Private	682
Bankers' Clearing Houses	683
——Indian private	682
Banking business, classes of	671
——Committee, Indian Central	387
——in India	671
Banks at Baroda	172
——Bengal, Bombay and Madras	671
——Co-operative Central	383
——Deposits in	674
——Exchange	678
——Joint Stock	680
——Land Mortgage	387
——London Agents of	681
——People's	394
——Presidency	671
——Provincial, Co-operative	383
Bansda	191
Banswara State	174
Baptist-Australian Foreign Mission	431
——Missions, American	431
—— ——Assam	431
—— ——Bengal-Orissa	431
—— ——Canadian	431
—— ——English	430
—— ——Societies	430
——Strict Mission	431
——Telugu Mission	431
Bar Organisation	444
Barakar Iron Works	711
Baria State	192
Baroda administration	172
——agriculture	172
——area	171
——army	172
——banks	172
——Co-operative Credit Societies	172
——education	172
——history	171
——minerals	172
——population	171
——railways	172
——revenue	172

	PAGE
Basel Evangelical Mission	438
Basra	225
Bassein, Treaty of	42
Bastar State	197
Battle of Buxar	41
——of Chillianwala	44
——of Hydaspes	37
——of Maiwand	46
——of Plassey	41
——of Wandiwash	41
Beam Stations, Wireless	652
Belgian Consuls	250
Benares	199
——Hindu University	366
——Mathematical Society	405
Bengal administration	101
——Anarchy in	47
——and N. W. Railway	697
——area	99
——Bank	671, 675
——Chamber of Commerce	723
——Coasting Trade	100 (*b*)
——Collectors	101
——Colleges	103
——Commissioners	101
——Council	107
——Courts of Justice	101
——Eastern Railway	697
——Ecclesiastical Department	424
——Education	103
——exports	100 (*a*)
——finances	103
——fisheries	644
——Governors of	106
——Governor's staff	105
——imports	99
——Industries	99
——Irrigation	102
——Judicial Department	445
——languages	99
——Legislative Council	107
——Lieut.-Governors of	106
——Manufactures	99
——Marine Department	102
——Municipalities	101
——Nagpur Railway	697
——natural productions	99
——officials	105
——people of	99
——police	102
——population	99

	PAGE
Bengal, Public Works	102
——railway	697
——rising in	43
——schools	103
——sedition in	49
——soil	99
——States under	195
——trade	99
Bentinck, Lord William	43
Berar, *see* Central Provinces.	
Bhandarkar Oriental Research Institute.	405
Bharaha Itihasa Samshodhak Mandal ..	405
Bharatpur State	177
Bhatgar Dam	313
Bhavnagar State	188
Bhopal State	182
Bhor	194
Bhutan State	184
Bibby Line	547
Bible and Medical Mission	436
Bibliography Forest	650
——Glass and Glassware	764
——Irrigation	314
——Mines and Minerals	720
——Wool Industry	751
Bihar, ancient kingdom of	37
——and Orissa administration	136
—— ——agriculture	135
—— ——area	135
—— ——Council	139
—— ——Courts of Justice	136
—— ——Ecclesiastical Dept.	425
—— ——education	137
—— ——famine	329
—— ——finance	137
—— ——fisheries	641
—— ——hospitals	137
—— ——Industries	135
—— ——Irrigation Department ..	136
—— ——Judicial Department	448
—— ——land tenures	136
—— ——Legislative Council	139
—— ——Manufactures	135
—— ——Medical Department	137
—— ——minerals	135
—— ——officials	139
—— ——Orissa opium	135
—— ——people	135
—— ——police	136
—— ——rainfall	135
—— ——revenue	137
—— ——Roads and Buildings Dept. ..	136
—— ——tobacco	35

	Page
Bijapur, architecture of	24
Bikaner State	178
Bilaspur	204
Bills of exchange	678
Birth and Death Rates	578
Black Hole of Calcutta	41
Blanket Weaving	751
Blindness in India	583
Board, Railway	68
Boards, Local	339
Bolivian Consul	250
Bombay	79
——Anthropological Society of	405
——Art Society	406
——Bank	671, 676
——Baroda and C. I. Railway	697
——Central Co-operative Bank	383
——Chamber of Commerce	726
—— —— ——Indian Merchants	728
——Cotton Mill Industry	494, 513, 536
——Ecclesiastical Department	425
——Fisheries	645
——Foreign Consulates in	638
——Grain Merchants' Association	730
——Horse Show	994
——Hydro-Electric Works	334
——Judicial Department	446
——Labour Office	543
——League of Nations Bureau	468
——Legislative Council	87
——Medical Union	406, 446
——Millowners' Association	727
——Mutual Insurance Association	728
——Municipal Boroughs Act	81
——Native Piece-goods Association	730
——Natural History Society	406
——Nursing Association	592
——Piece-goods Merchants' Association	730
——Police	81
——Port Trust	347
——Presidency administration	80
—— ——area	79
—— ——Banks	671, 676
—— ——collectorates	80
—— ——colleges	83
—— ——Courts of Justice	80
—— ——District Police	81
—— ——education	81
—— ——Finance	83
—— ——fisheries	645
—— ——Governors	86
—— ——hospitals	83
—— ——industries	79
—— ——Irrigation	81
—— ——Judicial Department	446
Bombay Presidency Labour Office	543
—— ——Legislative Council	87
—— ——Local Boards	80
—— ——Manufactures	79
—— ——Medical Dept.	83
—— —— —— Union	406
—— ——Municipalities	81
—— ——natural productions	79
—— ——officials	85
—— ——people	79
—— ——Police	81
—— ——population	79
—— ——Port Trust	347
—— ——provincial finance	83
—— ——schools	82
—— ——soil	79
—— ——staff of Governor	85
—— ——Strike Enquiry Committee	536
—— ——talukas	80
—— ——textile industry	79
——Races	1004
——riots in	48
——Royal Asiatic Society, Branch	406
——Sanitary Association	406
——School of Art	21
——Stamp Duties	934
——Stock Exchange	720
—— —— ——Committee	721
——Strike Enquiry Committee	536
——University	366
——Woman Suffrage Debate	595
Bonus Dispute Enquiry Committee	536
Botanical Survey	68, 568
Boxing	1023
Boy Scouts	363,375
Boys' Christian Home Mission	436
Brass-work	27
Brazilian Consuls	250
Britain, Indians in	998
British and Foreign Bible Society	406
——Cavalry	261
——Empire Leprosy Relief Association	583
——Forces in India	261
——Guiana and Fiji	995, 996
——India Steam Navigation Co.	547
——Indian Peoples' Association	407
—— —— Union	1000
——Infantry	261
——Medical Assocn. (Bombay)	407
——officers in Native States	167
——Policy in Persia	231
——Trade Commissioner Service in India	736
——Troops	275

PAGE

British University Women in India, Association of 416
Broadcasting 652
——Company, Indian 653
roadcast Receiving Licenses 653
Bronze Coinage 881
Buddhism 972
Budget, Indian 862, 864, 965
——Expenditure on National Defence .. 272
——Railway 690, 965
Bundi State 176
Bureau of Information, Indian Students' 999
Burma administration 130
——agriculture 129
——Agri-Horticultural Society of .. 405
——area 129
——borders 246
——Chamber of Commerce 734
——Chief Commissioners 130, 133
——Commissioners 130
——Ecclesiastical Dept. 425
——education in 131
——Finances 132
——fisheries 646
——forests 129
——future of 963
——Governors 133
——industries 129
——Irrawaddy Flotilla Co. 129
——irrigation 131
——Judicial Dept. 449
——Justice in 130
——Legislative Council 134
——Lieutenant-Governors 133
——Manufactures 130
——Medical Department 131
——minerals 129
——natural productions 129
——officials 133
——people 129
——petroleum in 130, 715
——police 131
——Public Works 131
——railways 129, 697
——revenue 132
——Round Table Conference 963
——States under Government of .. 204
Burmese War 43, 46
Busra, *see* Basra.

C

Cairo to Koweit railway scheme 248
Calcutta, Black Hole of 41
——Chess Society 407

PAGE

Calcutta Improvement Trust 343
——Jute Dealers' Association 750
——Nursing Association 592
——Port Trust 346
——Races 1007
——Stock Exchange 721
——————Association 721
——University 366
——————Commission 356
Calendars 1257
——Indian 1258
Cambay 192
Canadian Baptist Mission 434
——Presbyterian Mission 431
Canal, Suez 550
Canals, *see* Irrigation.
Canning, Lord 45
Cantonments (House Accommodation) Amendment Act 464
Cape Town Conference 989, 991
Capital, agricultural 379
——the New 560
Capitation Charges, Army 272
Carpet weaving 751
Caste 16, 18
——Marks 16
Catholic Churches, Roman 428
Cauvery Reservoir Project 313
Cavalry, British 261
——Indian 264
Caves 30
Cawnpore, massacre at 44
Cement 925
Censorship, Press 654
Census 972, 978
Central Asian Mission 437
——Board of Revenue 67
——Co-operative Banks 382
——————Bombay 382
——————Constitution of 382
——————Functions of 382
——————Madras 382
——————Working of 382
——Cotton Committee 737
——Government 62
——Hindu Society of Great Britain .. 1000
——India Agency 179
——Legislature 964
——Provinces and Berar administration .. 143
——————agriculture 142
——————area 142
——————Chief Commissioners 143
——————Colleges 145
——————Courts of Justice 143

	PAGE
Central Provinces, Ecclesiastical Dept...	426
——education	144
——Finances	145
——hospitals	145
——industries	142
——irrigation	144
——Judicial Dept.	450
——land system	136
——languages	142
——Legislative Council	149
——Local Boards	144
——Local Self-Government Act ..	144
——Medical Service	145
——Municipalities	143
——officials	148
——police	144
——Public Works	144
——revenue	146
——soil	142
——University	145
——Village Panchayat Act.. ..	144
——Publicity Bureau (Railway)	692
——Railways	248
Ceylon and India General Mission ..	436
——railway	699
Chamba State	200
Chamber, Indian Merchants'	728
——Princes'	207
Chamberlain Committee	883
Chambers of Commerce	722
——Associated (of India and Ceylon)	727
——Associated Indian	722
——Bengal	723
——Bombay	726
——Burma	734
——Cocanada	735
——Federation of Indian	722
——Indian	724
——Indian Merchants'	728
——International (Calcutta) ..	725
——Karachi	731
——London	722
——Madras	731
——Maharashtra	730
——Northern India	732
——Punjab	733
——Southern India	732
——United Provinces	734
——Upper India	733
Chandernagore	215
Chandragupta, Emperor	37
Chank Fisheries	642
Charter Act, new	43
Chelmsford's Frontier Policy	233
——Reform Scheme	51
Chemicals	924
Chemical Society, Indian..	408
Chess Society, Calcutta	407
Chhota Udaipur	191
Chief Punjab Association	1000
——Railways in India	697
Chiefs' Colleges	369
Child Welfare Centres	585
——Movement	585
Children, Employment of	489
——(Pledging of Labour) Act	461
Children's Aid Society	407
Chilian Consuls	250
China Opium Agreement	761
Chinese Consul	250
——in Tibet	244
Chitral	185
——campaign	47
Chittagong Port	350
Christian education, effects of	423
——Holidays	1257
——Home Mission, Boys	436
——and Missionary Alliance Mission ..	434
——Missions, indirect effects of	422
——students	423
Christianity..	972
Christians in India..	422
Church and Education	421
——Anglican Missionary Societies ..	423
——Diocesan Council	421
——Ecclesiastical Establishment ..	421
——Government	421
——of England	421
——of Ireland Presbyterian Mission ..	431
——of Nazarene Mission	435
——of Scotland	429
——of the Brethren Mission	434
——Reunion	423
——Roman Catholic	428
——Society for the Propagation of the Gospel	423
——Sweden Mission	438
——Syrian	422
——United Free	430
Churches, Scottish..	429
City and Hall Lines	547
Cities, population of	975
Civil Aviation	548
——Disobedience Movement	939
——Suits	452

	PAGE
Clearing accounts office, railway	689
——houses, bankers'	683
Climate, North-West Frontier	152
——of India	280
Clive, Lord	41
—— ——Policy of	41
Clubs	418
Coal	710, 925
——Industry	710
——prices	711
——production (table)	710
Cocaine importation	760
——penalties	760
——smuggling	760
——use of	760
Cocanada Chamber of Commerce	735
Cochin grants sex equality	597
——Harbour Scheme	90
——State	186
Code, Indian Penal	452
Codes, famine	330
Coffee	758
Coinage, weights and measures	35
—— —— ——Committee of Inquiry	36
—— —— ——Government action	36
—— —— ——Proposed reforms	35
Coins, bronze	881
——copper	881
——nickel	881
——silver	881
Collectors, Bengal Presidency	101
——Bombay Presidency	80
——Madras Presidency	89
——United Provinces	111
Colleges	364, 369
Colombo Races	1009
Colombo, railway to	699
Commander-in-Chief of the Army	257
Commerce and Industry Department	68
——Chambers of	722
—— ——Associated, Indian	722
—— ——Associated of India and Ceylon	727
—— ——Bengal	723
—— ——Bombay	726
—— ——Burma	734
—— ——Cocanada	735
—— ——Federation of Indian	722
—— ——Indian (Calcutta)	724
—— ——Indian Merchants	728
—— ——International	725
—— ——Karachi	731
—— ——Madras	731

	PAGE
Commerce Chambers Maharashtra	730
—— ——Northern India	732
—— ——Punjab	733
—— ——S. India	732
—— ——United Provinces	734
—— ——Upper India	733
Commercial Intelligence Department	735
Commission, Agricultural	285, 286
——Calcutta University	356
——Currency, of 1925-26	888
——Education	353
——Factory Labour (1907)	486
——Famine	330
——Finance and Currency	882
——Herschell	882
——Hilton Young (Sir Edward)	994
—— (Royal) on Indian Reforms	49
——Industrial (Indian)	542
——Jail	459
——Labour (Royal)	472
——Law	982
——Lindsay	357
——Linlithgow	285, 286
——Opium	762
——Ormsby Gore	993
——Police	454
——Simon (Sir John)	49
——University	353, 356
——Whitley (Labour)	472
Commissioners, Bengal Presidency	101
——Bombay Presidency	80
——British Trade Service in India	736
——Burma	130
——Central Provinces	143
——Punjab	122
——United Provinces	111
Committee, Acworth (Railway)	690
——Banking Inquiry	387, 397
——Bonus Dispute Enquiry	536
——Central Banking, Indian	387, 397
——Central Cotton, Indian	737
——Chamberlain	883
——Co-operative	396
——Cotton Contracts	740
——Cotton, Indian	737
——Currency	888
——East African	993
——Emigrants Friendly Service	996
——Exchange, Indian (of 1919)	884
——Excise	876
——Fawcett	536
——Federal Finance	856
——Finance (Railway)	691

	PAGE
Committee Fowler	882
——Hartog (on Education)	357
——Herschel	882
——Inchcape	858
——Industrial Disputes	536
——Jails	458
——Khilafat	953
——Labour (Royal)	472
——Law	982
——Lytton	999
——Maclagan Co-operation	396
——Mill Enquiry	536
——New Capital Enquiry	561
——Parliamentary, Joint	962
——Pope	692
——Primary Education	361
——Punjab Enquiry Committee (Education)	357
——Rates (Railway) Advisory	692
——Retrenchment	858
——Riots Enquiry	471
——Southborough	993
—— Southborough Franchise	596
——Stock Exchange (Bombay)	720
——Strike Enquiry, Bombay	536
——Weights and Measures	36
Commonwealth Electoral Act	997
Communal Award	956
Communications, Assam	156
——Baroda	172
——Burma	129
——Hyderabad	168
——Kashmir	207
——Rajputana Agency	173
Communists	471
Company, East India	40
——————Administration transferred	45
——————first formed	40
Conciliation and Arbitration of industrial disputes	536
Conference, Indian Railway	689
——International Labour	541
Congregational Mission	433
——Societies	433
Congress, Indian Science	569
——National	937
——Trade Union	471, 530
Constants, tidal	34
Constitution of India Office	163, 164
Consulates (Foreign) in Bombay, Calcutta and Simla	628
Consuls, Foreign in India	250
Consumptives' Home Society	413
Contracts, Railway	687
Contributions, famine	331
Convict employment	458
Cooch-Behar State	195
Co-operative Movement	377
——Audit and supervision	334
——Banking Enquiry Committee, Provincial	381
——Banking Unions	380
——Central Banking Committee, Indian	387, 397
—— ——Financing Banks	381
——Committee	396
——Consolidation of Holdings	390
—— Genesis of Movement	378
——Growth of	379
——Land Mortgage Banks	387
——Maclagan Committee	396
——Non-Credit Agricultural Co-operation	389
——Overdue Loans	386
——People's Banks	394
——Producers Movement	395
——Propaganda, Education and Training	388
——Provincial Co-operative Banks	383
——Rural Poverty	377
—— —— Reconstruction	392
——Societies Act	378
—— ——Agricultural Credit	380
—— ——Anti-Malarial	393
—— ——Better Living	392
—— ——Communal	394
—— ——Educational	393
—— ——Housing	395
—— ——Irrigation	391
—— ——Life Insurance	394
—— ——Marketing	390
—— ——Milk	391
—— ——Millhands	393
—— ——Non-Credit, in Urban areas	394
—— ——Thrift	394
—— ——Urban credit	393
——Statistics	398, 404
Coorg	161
Copper	719
——coinage	881
Copyright	466
Cornwallis, Lord	42
Coroners	443
Cost of Army	274
Costa Rican Consul	250
Costumes, Women's	15
Cotton	283
Cotton Association, East India	740
——Central Committee	737
——Cess Act	739
——Committee, Indian	737
——Contracts Committee	740

PAGE

Cotton cultivation of 283
——East India Association 740
——exports of 927
——Ginning and Pressing Factories Act.. 739
——Indian 283
——Industry 494, 513, 741
——Manufactures, progress of 742, 915, 926, 927
——Piece-goods 916
——Research 739
—— ——Studentships 739
——Statistics 742, 745
——Technological Laboratory 739
——Textile Industry 741
—— ——Industry (Amendment) Act .. 461
—— —— ——(Second Amendment) Act 464
——Transport Act.. 739
——Twist and Yarn 742, 916
Council, Assam 159
——Bengal Presidency 107
——Bihar and Orissa 139
——Bombay Presidency 87
——Burma 134
——Central Provinces and Berar .. 149
——Elected members 73, 77
——Imperial Legislatures 71
——India 164
——Madras Presidency 97
——Military 258
——Mysore 171
——nominated members 76, 78
——North-West Frontier 155
——of State 77
——Punjab 127
——United Provinces 117
Council's Act, Indian 47
Courts, High 443
——of Justice, Bengal Presidency .. 101
—— ——Bihar and Orissa 136
—— ——Bombay Presidency 80
—— ——Burma 130
—— ——Central Provinces 143
—— ——Madras Presidency 93
—— ——Magistrates' 443
—— ——Punjab 122
—— ——Session 443
—— ——Small Causes 443
—— ——United Provinces 112
Cricket 1017
Criminal Investigation Department .. 453
——Law (Amendment) Act 47
——Procedure Code 442
——Tribes 459

PAGE

Criminals transported 459
Crops 282
Cross, Red 586
——Victoria 635
Crown of India, Order of 623
——transfer to the 45
Cruciferous oilseeds 284
Cuba, Consul for 250
Cultivation, methods of 281
—— cotton 283
——jute 284
——linseed 284
——millets 282
——oilseeds 283
——pulses 282
——rice 282
——sesamum 284
——sugarcane 283
——tobacco 284
——wheat 282
Cultivator, Govt. and the.. 875
Currency 882
——Act 881
——and the War 884
——Chamberlain Committee 883
——Closing of Mints 882
——Commission of 1925-26 888
——Committee of 1919 884
——Exchange Committee.. 884
——Failure of Government policy .. 887
——Fowler Committee 882
——Gold Bullion Standard 891
——Gold Exchange Standard 892
——Gold Standard Reserve 892
——Herschell Committee 882
——History of 882
——Note issue 893
——Paper, reserve.. 892
——Rate of Exchange 884
——Ratio 892, 894
——Reserve Bank.. 896
——Reserves 895
——Rise in Exchange 884
——Scheme for Gold 891
——Silver Standard 882
——Sterling Remittances 883
——System 882
——two shilling rupee 886
——weights and measures 35
Curzon, Lord 47
——Police Commission 453

	PAGE
Curzon's (Lord) Frontier Policy ..	47, 217
Customs	15, 771
——Manners and	15
——Revenue	878
——tariff	772
Cutch State	187, 190
Cyclonic storms	317
Czechoslovak Republic, Consul for ..	251

D

Dacca University	367
Dairying	285
Dalhousie, Lord	44
Daman Settlement	213
Damodhar River Project	313
Dangerous Drugs (Amendment) Act ..	465
Danish Missionary Society	439
Darjeeling	557
Datia State	183
Death and birth rates	578
——of Habibullah Khan	217, 240
——rate in mines	711
Deccan States Agency	193
—— ——Bhor	194
—— ——Janjira	193
—— ——Kolhapur	193
—— ——Mudhol	194
—— ——Sangli	194
—— ——Sawantwadi	194
Declaratory Act, 1780	442
Deities, Hindu	16
Delhi, art decoration	560
——cost of building	561
——Durbar	..48, 560
——expenditure on	561
——Mutiny at	44
——Progress of work	562
——site of new capital	561
——Town Planning Report	561
——University	367, 563
——War Memorial (All-India) at ..	563
Denmark, Consul for	251
Department, Archæological	69
——Army	67
——Botanical	68
——Commerce	68
——Commercial Intelligence and Statistics	735
——Criminal Investigation	453
——Ecclesiastical	424
——Education	67
——Finance	67
——Foreign	67
Department, Geological Survey ..	68, 570
——Health	67
——Home	67
——Imperial Council of Agricultural Research	286
——Indian Stores	933
——Judicial	445
——Lands	67
——Legislative	68
——Military Finance	67
——Political	67
——Post Office	68
——Public Health	67
——Publicity	67
——Railway Board	68
——Revenue, Central Board	67
——Survey	68
——Telegraph	68
Depressed Classes	956
Designs and Inventions	766
Development of Burma	129
——Central Provinces	142
——Hydro-Electric	334
——N.-W. Frontier Prov.	142
Dhar State	182
Dharampur	192
Dholpur State	177
Dhrangadhra State	188
Dir State	185
Disciple Societies	437
Distinguished Service Medal, Indian ..	624
Distribution of population	977
District and Local Boards	339
—— Boards, Punjab	122
—— ——United Provinces	112
——Judges	443
——Magistrates, Bengal Pres.	101
——Monopoly Excise System	876
——Officers, Bihar and Orissa	136
——Police, Bombay Pres.	81
Districts, N.-W. Frontier Provinces ..	154
Diu, Island of	213
Domestic servants	546
——Ordinance No. 28 of 1871	546
—— ——No. 17 of 1914	546
——Penalties imposed on	546
Dominica, Consul for	251
Dominion, beginnings of British	40
—— ——French	41

PAGE

Dongarpur State 174
Dravidians, history of 37
Dress, Indian 15
Drugs and Medicines 924
—— excise system 877
Dufferin, Lord 46
Dupleix 41
Durbar at Delhi 48
Dyeing and Tanning substances .. 924

E

Early marriages 978
East African Committee 993
——India Association 1000
—— ——Company 40
—— ——Cotton Association 740
——Indian Railway 697
——Indies Squadron 276
Eastern Bengal Railway 697
——States Agency 196
Ecclesiastical Dept., Assam 425
—— ——Bengal Pres. 424
—— ——Bihar and Orissa 425
—— ——Bombay Pres. 425
—— ——Burma 425
—— ——Central Provs. 426
—— ——Madras Pres. 426
—— ——N.-W. Frontier 426
—— ——Punjab 427
—— ——United Provinces 427
——Establishments 421
Ecuador, Consul for 251
Education 352
——Advisers for Indian Students .. 999
——Army 369
——Baroda 172
——Bengal Pres. 103
——Bihar and Orissa 137
——Bombay Pres. 81
——Boy Scout Movement .. 363, 375
——Burma 131
——Calcutta University Commission .. 356
——Central Provs. and Berar 144
——Chiefs' Colleges 369
——Christian 352
——Colleges 369
——Commission 353, 356
——Dept. 67, 356
——Expansion of 353
——Expenditure on 358, 374
——Female 363

PAGE

Education Girl Guide Movement
——girls' schools 364
——Hartog Committee 368
——History of 357
——Hyderabad 352
——Indian, in South Africa 169
——Indian Military Academy, Dehra Dun 988
——Indigenous 369
——Intermediate Colleges 369
——Inter-University Board 364
——in the Army 368
——Lindsay Commission 369
——Madras Pres. 357
——Medical Inspection 90
——Military Academy, Dehra Dun .. 364
——Mysore 369
——North-West Frontier Province .. 171
——Primary 153
——Prince of Wales' Military College .. 361
——Professional 369
——Punjab 364
——Punjab University Enquiry Committee 122
——Rural 357
——Secondary and High School 362
——Students (Indian) in Foreign Countries 362
——technical 369
——United Provinces 364
——Universities 113
——Universities Commission .. 353, 356
——Universities, Statistics. 354, 355, 358, 359, 360, 361, 362, 363, 365, 368, 370,—374
——University Training Corps 268
——Western Learning, Introduction of 352
——Women 352
Educational enquiries, recent 368
——progress 353
——Service, Army 353
—— ——Indian 369
—— ——Provincial 357
—— ——Subordinate 357
——work, Baptist 358
Electorate 430
Electrification of Railways 53
Elgin, Lord 692
Ellenborough, Lord 46
Ellerman ("City" & "Hall") Line .. 43
Emigrants Friendly Service Committee .. 547
Emigration 996
——Act 982
——Fiji and British Guiana .. 982
——statistics (table) .. 995, 996
Emperors of India, *see* Rulers. .. 981

PAGE

Empire, Order of Indian 611
——Portuguese 40
Employment of Children 489
Employment of Convicts 458
Empress of India proclaimed 45
Engineer Services, Army 262
Engineers, Institution of 410
English Dominion, beginning of 40
——Education in India 353
Episcopal (American) Methodist Mission 439
Establishment of Territorial Force .. 268
Europe, routes to India from 547
European and Native Magistrates .. 442
——Association 407
——British Subjects 442
——Settlements 40
——War and India 48
Evangelical National Missionary Society of Stockholm 438
Everest, Mount 559
Exchange Banks 678
——Bills of 678
——Business (table) 678
——Committee, Indian 884
——deposits (table) 678
——history of 678
——investments 679
——rise in 884
——Stock 680
Excise 876
——Committee, Indian 876
——Contract Distillery System 876
——district monopoly system 876
——Free supply system 876
——Out-still system 876
——Right of Vend 876
Expedition, Abor 246
——Tibet 244
Expenditure on Delhi 561
——education 358
——Indian 866, 873
——irrigation 310
——marine 276
——on new capital 561
——railway 693
——capital 693
——revenue and 873
Exports 925
——Agricultural 283
——Coffee 758
——Cotton 926, 927
——Indigo 754
——principal 925
Exports silk 753
——tea 756, 928
——textile 742
——tobacco 759
——wool 751

F

Factories 486
——Bombay 79
——(Indian) Act 486
——Madras 90
——tobacco 759
——United Provinces 111
Factory Acts 486
——Labour Commission (1907) 486
Fa-hien, Chinese traveller 31
Family Names 18
Famine, Bihar, 1873-4 329
——codes 330
——commissions 330
——History of 329
——Insurance Grant 331
——Madras, 1866 329
——of 1899-1900 329
——Orissa, 1865-7 329
——protection 331
——India, 1876-8 329
——Trust, Indian 332, 333
——under native rule 329
——Western India, 1868-70 329
Fashions, Indian 15
Faridkot State 201
Fawcett Committee 536
Federal Finance 856
Federation, National Liberal 948
——of Indian Chambers of Commerce .. 722
——of Indian University women 417
Female education 368
Fighting Races 270
Fiji and British Guiana 995, 996
Finance 855
——Act, Indian 461
——and Currency, Royal Commission on 888
——Agricultural incomes, taxation of .. 857
——Army Expenditure 865
——Baroda 172
——Budget, 1933-34 867
——Budget, 1934-35 867
——Civil Expenditure 866
——Service 896
——Commercial Stamps 856
——Corporation Tax 856
——Debt 871

PAGE

Finance Department 67
——Expenditure for 1932-33 864
——Federal 856
——Hyderabad 168
——Inchcape Committee 858
——Income Tax 860
——Kashmir 206
——Military Expenditure 867
——Matches, Excise on 856
——Mysore 170
——New Taxation proposals 859
——Post & Telegraph 870
——Provincial Contributions 855
——Public Debt 871
——Railway 858
——Retrenchment 858
——Revenue and Expenditure .. 858, 864, 873
——Silver Duty 860
——Solvency, need for 863
——Succession duty 857
——Supplementary Budget 862
——Taxation 859
——Terminal Tax 857
——Tobacco, Taxation of 857
——Ways and Means 861
Fines and short sentences 459
Finland, Consul for 251
Fish-curing 642
Fisheries 641
——Bengal and Bihar and Orissa .. 644
——Bengal, Department of 644
——Bombay 645
——Burma 646
——Madras 641
—— ——Department of 641
——Marine Aquarium 643
——Pearl and chank 642
——Punjab 646
——Rural Pisciculture 643
——Sind 645
——Travancore 646
——Welfare work among fisherfolk .. 643
Fishing in Baluchistan 160
Flotilla Company, Irrawaddy 129
Food grams and flour 928
Football in India 1021
Force, Indian Auxiliary 267
Foreign Consulates in Bombay 638
—— ——in Calcutta 639
—— Consuls in India 250

PAGE

Foreign Dept. 67
——possessions in India 209
—— ——Chandernagore 215
—— ——Daman 213
—— ——Diu 213
—— ——Goa 209
—— ——Karikal 215
—— ——Marmugao, Port of 212
—— ——Pondicherry 215
——postage rates 572
Forest (Amendment) Act, Indian .. 461
Forests, Administration 648
——Area 647
——Burma 129
——distribution of State 647
——Financial Results 650
——Government Policy 648
——Indian 647
——industries 649
——Policy 648
——products 649
——research 649
——service 648
——state 648
——statistics 651
——Types of 647
Fort St. George, Presidency of 89
—— ——Presidents of 95
——William, Governors of 106
Fowler Committee 882
France, Consul for 251
Franchise 63
Free Church of Finland Mission 434
Freemasonry 564
Free Methodist Mission of N. America .. 440
——supply system, Excise 876
French claims on Maskat 224
——Consul 251
——dominion, beginnings of 40, 41
——possessions in India 214
——railway interests in Syria 248
——struggle with the 41
——treaty with Maskat 224
——Wars 41, 255
Friends' Service Council 437
Frontiers of India 216
——Afghanistan 239
——Afghan War 240
——Amanullah Khan's Reforms .. 242
——Anglo-Persian Agreement 231
——Anglo-Russian Agreement .. 218, 222, 231
——Baghdad Railway, significance of .. 219

	PAGE
Frontiers Bahrein	224
——Basra, its future	225
——Bolshevik Penetration	241
——Campaigns	46
——Chelmsford policy	233
——Curzon (Lord) policy	47, 217, 233
——French Claim on Maskat	224
——Gates to India	239
——German Menace	219
——Habibullah Khan assassinated	227, 240
——Irak	225
——Koweit	224
——Maskat	224
——Mesopotamia, (Map of)	226
——Middle East, (Map of)	228
——of Militia	267
——Muhammerah	225
——North-Eastern	245
——North-West	230
—— ——(Map of)	230
——Persia	231
——Persian Gulf	222
—— ——(Map of)	223
—— ——Shore	229
——Pirate Coast	224
——Policies	217
——Problems	232
——Russia	218
——Russo-Afghan Treaty	241
——Seistan	229
——Treaty with Iraq	227
——Tibet	243
——Tribes	246
——Turkey	220
——Waziristan	235
—— ——(Map of)	234

G

Gandhara monuments	30
Ganges Canal	44
Ganpati	16
Goals	458
Garhwalis	270
Gates to India	239
Gauges, railway	689
Gem stones	719
Geological Dept.	68, 570
German Consul	251
——Menace	219
——railways in Turkey	248
Germany, India and war with	48
—— and Indian frontiers	219
Girl Guides	364
Girls' schools	368
Girni Kamgar Union	470
Glass and Glassware	895, 764
—— ——Bibliography	765
—— ——Manufacture in India	764
——Causes of failure	764
Glossary, Indian	2
Goa	209
Gold, absorption of	768
——Bullion, Standard	891
——Coinage	881
——Exchange Standard	882
——Law	991
——production of	715
——Standard Reserve	882, 891
Golf in India	1022
Gondal State	188
Gough, Lord	44
Government and Banking	671
——and cultivator	875
——and district boards	339
——appointments	66
——Assam	158
——Baluchistan	160
——Bengal	105
——Bihar and Orissa	139
——Bombay	85
——Burma	133
——business procedure	64
——Central election	63
——Central Government	62
—— ——franchise	63
—— ——Powers	63
—— ——Provinces and Berar	148
——Changes made in	60
——control of railways	687
——deposits (tables)	674–676
—— ——with Banks	674–676
——division of functions	65
——electorates	53
——European Settlement	40
——Executive and Legislature	61
——Finance	52, 855
——Forest Policy	648
——Franchise	63
——functions of	65
——Governors-General	69
——Home	163
——India Office	64, 164
——Irrigation Works	309
——local self	331
——machinery of	68

PAGE

Government Madras 95
——of India 51
——personnel and procedure 64
——powers of Provincial Legislative Councils 60
——provincial administration 60
——provision of funds 62
——Punjab 126
——reforms of 1919 51
——revenue 873, 874
——Stores 933
——transfer of control 61
——United Provinces 116
—— Viceroys of India 70
——Voters' qualifications 53
Governor-General's Council 66
—— ——of Fort William 69
—— ——of India 69
—— ——Secretarial staff 67
Governors, Assam 158
——Bengal 106
——Bihar and Orissa 139
——Bombay 86
——Burma 133
——Central Provinces 148
——Madras 96
——Punjab 126
——United Provinces 116
Grain Merchants' Assocn. 730
Graphite 718
Great Indian Peninsula Railway 698
Greek Consul 251
Guiana British and Fiji 995, 996
Gujarat States Agency 191
Gupta Dynasty 38
Gwalior 180

H

Habibullah, Amir 227, 240
Hall Line 547
Hardinge (Lady) Medical College and Hospital 591
Hardinge, Lord 48
Hardware 923
Hartog Committee on Education .. 357
Hastings, Marquis of (Lord Moira) .. 43
——Warren 41
Health of Army 275, 581
Heavy Chemical Industry (Protection) Act 913
Hebrew-Christian Mission 438

PAGE

Hemp 750
Henderson Line 547
Hephzibah Faith Missionary Association 435
Herschell Committee 882
Hersha, Emperor 38
Hides, skins and leather 765, 929
——workers in 765
High Commissioner for India 164
——Court Act, Indian 443
——Courts 443
——Schools 362
Hill Missions, Kurku and Central India 436
——Stations 557
Hilton Young (Sir Edward) Commission 994
Himalayan Club 560
Himalayas, climbing in the 558
Hindu deities 16
——Holidays 1257
——Mahomedan riots 48
——University 366
Hinduism 972
History of India 37
——Afghan Wars 43, 46, 241, 256
——Alexander's invasion 37
——Andhras 38
——Baroda 171
——Burmese Wars 46
——Chelmsford's (Lord) Viceroyalty .. 48
——Clive's administration 41
——Coinage 880
——Currency and Exchange 882
——Curzon's Viceroyalty 47
——Education 353
——of Famine 329
——French Wars 41
——Frontier campaigns 46
——Gupta dynasty 38
——Hastings, Warren 41
——Hindu-Mahomedan riots 48
——Kashmir 206
——Mahomedan invasion 39
——Maratha Wars 42
——Massacre at Cawnpore 44
——Montagu-Chelmsford Reform .. 48
——Mughal Empire 39
——Mutiny, sepoy 44
——Mysore 169
—— ——Wars 42
——Nepalese War 42
——Non-Co-operation movement 49, 937
——Origins of Indian 37
——Pindaris 24

	PAGE
History Plassey, battle of	41
——Rajputs	38
——Reading's (Lord) Viceroyalty	48
——Royal Indian Marine	276
——Sikh Wars	43
——Social reform	43
——Treaty of Sagauli	42
——Visit of King and Queen	48
——Wellesley's (Lord) Policy	42
Hockey	1020
Holdings, nature of agricultural	875
——peasant	875
——private improvements on	875
——Ryotwari	875
——Zemindari	875
Holidays, Indian Public	1257
Home Department	67
——Government	163
—— ——Appointments	164
—— ——High Commissionership	164
—— ——History of	163
—— ——India Council	164
—— ——Secretary of State	163
Hospitals, Bihar and Orissa	127
——Bombay Presidency	83
——Burma	131
——Central Provinces	145
——Punjab	123
——United Provinces	113
Hotels in India	556
Housing, Industrial	501
Humayun, King	39
Hungarian Consul	252
Hutti, Nizam's gold mine at	714
Hydaspes, Battle of	37
Hyderabad	168
——administration	169
——agriculture	168
——Army	168
——Communications	168
——Contingent	168
——education	169
——Finance	168
——Industry	168
——Council	169
——minerals	168
——railway	168
Hyderabad revenue	168
——taxation	168
Hydro-Electric Development	334
——Bombay Schemes	334
——Kashmir Works	336
——Madras Schemes	91
——Mysore Development	336, 171
——Progress, recent	336
——Projects	336
——Pykara Scheme	91, 337
——Sutlej Project	337
Hydrographic Survey of India	334

I

Idar State	191
Immigration	993
Imperial Airways	549, 932
——Bank of India	671
——Bank of India Act	671, 967
——Council of Agricultural Research	286
——finance	855
——Legislatures	71
——Order of the Crown of India	623
——Service formed	45
——silk specialists	752
Import duties	771
Imports	910, 914
——Bengal Presidency	99
——principal	925
Improvement Trusts	340, 343
——Calcutta	343
Inchcape Committee	858
Incidence of Revenue	874
Income and Wages (table)	684
——tax	860, 879
Income-tax (Amendment) Act, Indian	462
——(Second Amendment) Act, Indian	463
Index Number of Prices	931
India Air routes to	932
——and Ceylon	699
——Area of	166
——Army in	255
——Associated Chamber of Commerce of	722
——Banking in	671
——Christian Mission	435
——Church in	421
——Climate of	280
——Clubs in	418
——Consuls in	250
——Council	164
——Council's Act	47
——Currency Act	881
——Defence League	1000

PAGE

India East Company formed 40
——Empress of, proclaimed 45
——England Telephone Service 653
——European war and 48
——Fisheries of 641
——Foreign possessions in 209
——Freemasonry in 564
——Gates to 239
——Government of 66
——Governors-General and Viceroys of .. 70
——History of 37
——House 998
——Insanity in 587
——Insurance in 769
——League 1000
——Lunacy and Asylums in 588
——Meteorological Department 318
——Mission of the Evangelical Lutheran Church in America 438
——Office 64, 164
——office appointments 164
——Peoples of 969
——Population of 166, 973
——Prices in 910, 931
——railways to 248
——Religions of 972
——Routes (Sea) from Europe to .. 547
——Salutes in 602
——Society 1000
——Soil of 280
——Sunday School Unions of 409
——Survey of 568
——Trade of 909
—— ——exports 911, 925
—— ——imports of 910, 914
—— ——(tables) 910, 914, 915, 916, 917, 918, 919, 922, 923, 925, 926, 927, 928, 929, 30
——Viceroys of 70
——Who's who in 1031
Indian Agriculture 280
——Agricultural Commission 285
——Arbitration (Amendment) Act .. 464
——Architecture 23
——Army, *see* Army 255
——Art 19
——Association for Cultivation of Science 408
——Auxiliary Force 268
——Banking 671
——Bar, Creation of 444
——Broadcasting Company 653
——Budget 864, 965
——Bureau of Information 999

PAGE

Indian Calendars 1258
——Cavalry 264
——Central Banking Committee 387, 397
—— ——Cotton Committee 737
——Chamber of Commerce, Calcutta .. 724
—— —— ——in London 722
——Chambers of Commerce, Federation of 722
——Chemical Society 408
——Christian Mission 435
——Clubs, Principal 418
——Coinage 880
——Commission (Royal) on Reforms .. 49
——Conciliation Group 1001
——Constitutional Reforms, White Paper on 960
——Copyright Act 466
——Cotton Cess Act 739
——Councils Act 47
——Currency Act, 1927 881
—— ——Committee 884
—— ——system 882
——Deputation to East Africa 994
—— ——to South Africa 988
——Distinguished Service Medal .. 624
——Dockyards 279
——Domiciled Overseas 981
——Dress 15
——Ecclesiastical Establishments 421, 424
——Education 352
——Educational Service 357
——emigration 982
——Empire, Order of the 611
—— ——People 166
—— ——Population 166
—— ——Society 1001
——Exchange Committee 884
——Excise Committee 876
——Factories Act 486
——Famine Trust 333
——Finance 855
——Finance Act 461, 855
——Fisheries 642
——Forces, Regular (British 261
——Foreign Trade 909
——Forest (Amendment) Act, ... 461
—— ——Engineering Service 648
——Forests 647
——Freemasonry 564
——Frontier Problem 216, 232
——Frontiers 216
——Geological Survey 68, 570
——Glass Manufacture 764
——Glossary 21
——Gymkhanas Club 100

PAGE

Indian High Court.. 443
—— ——Courts Act 443
——Hotels 556
——Holidays 1257
——in Great Britain 998
——Income tax 879
——Income-Tax (Amendment) Act .. 462
—— —— —— (Second Amendment) Act 463
——Industrial Commission 542
——Infantry 264
——Institute of Political and Social Science 408
——Institution of Engineers 410
——Insurance 769
——Inventions and Designs 766
——Irrigation 309
——Jails 458
——Labour 469
——Commission 472
——Law, Europeans and.. 442
——League of Nations Union 408
——Legislation, 1933 461
——Legislature 964
——Manners and Customs 15
——Marine (Amendment) Act... .. 461
—— ——Royal 276
——Mathematical Society 409
——Medical Council Act... 465
——Merchandise Marks Act 771
——Merchant Shipping (Amendment) Act. 462
——Merchant Shipping (Second Amendment) Act 465
——Merchants' Chamber of Commerce.. 728
——Meritorious Service Medal 624
——Meteorological Department 318
——Military Academy 369
——Military College 369
——Mines and Minerals 709
——Mines Act 490
——Mints 880, 881
——Missionary Society of Tinnevelly .. 435
——Municipalities 339
——Mutiny 44, 256
——Names 17
——National Airways 549, 933
——National Congress 937
——Navy, Royal 276
——Newspapers 657
——Officers, Army 269
——Order of Merit 624
——Orders 607
——Paintings 20
——Patents and Designs Act 766
——People's Famine Trust 332
——Peoples, occupations of .. 480, 980

PAGE

Indian Police 453
——Ports 346
——Press 654
——Press Act (1910) 655
——Press Law 655
——Prices 931
——Prisons Act 458
——Public Holidays 1257
——Racing 1003
——Railways (Amendment) Act .. 464
——Railways 685
—— ——Gauges 689
——(Statistics) 693, 694, 695, 696, 700–708
——Red Cross Society 586
——Religions 972
——Roads and Transport Development Association 409
——Rotary Clubs 420
——Salutes 602
——Science Congress 569
——Sculpture 19
——Signal Corps 265
——Social life 978
——Society of Oriental Art (Calcutta) .. 409
——Soil 280
——Sport 934
——Stamp Duties 934
——State Forces 268
——States 166
——States annexation through lapse .. 167
—— ——Area of 166
—— ——British Officers in 167
—— ——education of ruling Chiefs .. 167
—— ——extent of 166
—— ——jurisdiction 166
—— ——obligations 166
—— ——policy towards 167
—— ——political officers.. 167
—— ——population 166
—— ——railways 698
—— ——relations with 166
—— ——rights of 166
—— ——supervision of 167
—— ——tribute 208
—— ——under Assam 198
—— —— ——Bengal Presidency .. 195
—— —— ——Burma 204
—— —— ——Madras Presidency .. 185
—— —— ——Punjab 200
—— —— ——United Provinces .. 198
——Stores Department 933
——Students in Foreign Countries .. 369
—— —— in Great Britain 999
—— ——Union and Hostel 1000

PAGE

Indian Sunday School Union 409
——Tariff 772
——————Board (1933) 968
——Tariff (Amendment) Act 463
——————(Ottawa Trade Agreement) Supplementary Act .. 462
——————(Second Amendment) Act .. 466
——tea 755
——————Control Act 464
——Telegraph Department 573
——Territorial Force 268
——textile industry 741
——Time 33
——tobacco 759
——trade 909
——————Union Congress 471, 530
——train service 548
——Trans-Continental Airways 932
——travel 551
——Troops 275
——Universities 365
——University Women 416
——Village Welfare Association 1001
——Wireless Telegraphy Act 463
——Woman Suffrage 595
——Women's Medical Service 590
Indianisation of Railways 696
Indians abroad 981
——in Great Britain 998
——Overseas 981
——————Agreement with Union Government 991
——————Cape Town Conference .. 989, 991
——————Deputation to South Africa, 1925 989
——————East African Committee .. 993
——————Emigration 993
——————————control of 984
——————————history of 982
——————————origin of 982
——————————present position 983
——————————Fiji and British Guiana 984, 995
——————————Kenya Colony 992
——————————Legislation 987
——————————Natal Borough Ordinance .. 988
——————————Township Franchise Ordinance .. 988
——————————Rights and Disabilities of Indians 986
——————Hilton Young Commission .. 994
——————Ormsby Gore Commission .. 993
——————Smuts-Gandhi Agreement .. 987
——————South Africa 989, 988
India's Marine Expenditure 276

PAGE

Indigenous Education 369
Indigo 753
Indo-Aryan people 969
——British Mutual Welfare League .. 1001
——Ceylon railway connections 699
Indore Institute of Plant Industry .. 739
——State 180
Industrial arts 26
——Commission, Indian 542
——Court of enquiry 538
——Courts Act 536
——Disputes 535
——Forest 649
——Housing 501
——Safety and Inspection 494
——Strikes 536
——Wages 512
Industry, Assam 156
——Baroda 172
——Baluchistan 160
——Bengal 99
——Bihar and Orissa 135
——Bombay 79
——Burma 129
——Central Provinces 142
——Coal-mining 710
——Coffee 758
——Forest 649
——Hyderabad 168
——Indigo 753
——Jute 746
——Kashmir 206
——Madras 89
——Mysore 170
——North West Frontier Province .. 153
——Oils & Oilcakes 754
——Punjab 121
——United Provinces 110
——Silk 752
——tea 785
——Textile 741
——Wool 751
Infant marriage 978
——Mortality 977
Infantry, British 261
——Indian 264
Infirmities 980
Insanity 587
Inscriptions 31
Institutions of Engineers 410
Insurance in India 769
Intelligence Department, Commercial .. 735
——————Criminal 453
Inter-Denominational Mission 437

PAGE

Interest Table 327
Intermediate Colleges 364
International Chamber of Commerce .. 725
——————Labour Conventions .. 541
Inter-University Board 368
Inventions and Designs 766
Iraq 225
Ireland Mission, Presbyterian Church of . 432
Iron and Steel Imports 921, 968
—— Ore production 711
—— Tata, and Steel Co. 712
Irrigation 309
——Acreage under 313
——Area under 311
——Bengal Pres. 102
——Bibliography 314
——Bombay Pres. 81
——Burma 131
——Capital and Revenue 310
——Cauvery Reservoir Project 313
——Central Provinces 144
——Classes of 309
——Damodar Canal 313
——Government works 309
——Growth of 310
——Madras 91
——New Works 313
——Non-Capital Works 312
——Productive Works 312
——projects 313
——Punjab 121
——Sukkur Barrage 313
——Sutlej Valley Project 313
——Tanks 314
——United Provinces 112
——Unproductive Works 312
——Water Charges 310
——wells 314
Irwin, Lord 49
Italian Consul 252

J

Jails 458
——Andamans 459
——Commission of Inquiry, 1919 .. 459
——Committee 458
——Criminal Tribes 459
——Fines and short sentences 459
——Indeterminate sentences 459
——Juvenile prisoners 459
——Prisons Act 458
——Prisoners, employment of 458
——Reformatory Schools 459
——Statistics 460

PAGE

Jails Transportation 459
——Variation of jail population 460
Jain Holidays 1257
Jains 972
Jaipur State 175
Jaisalmer State 175
Jalwar (Jhalawar) State 178
Jamkhandi State 194
Jammu (Kashmir) 206
Janjira State 193
Jaora State 183
Japanese Consul 252
Jath State 193
Jawhar 191
Jewish Holidays 1257
Jews 972
Jhalawar State 178
Jind State 201
Jodhpur State 174
Joint Parliamentary Committee 962
——Stock Banks 680
Judges, District 443
Judicial Dept., Assam 448
—— ——Bengal Pres. 445
—— ——Bihar and Orissa 448
—— ——Bombay Pres. 446
—— ——Burma 449
—— ——Central Provs. 450
—— ——Madras 447
—— ——Department N.W. Frontier Prov. 450
—— ——Punjab 450
—— ——United Provs. 451
Junagadh State 189
Jurisdiction in Native States 167
Justice, administration of 442
——Law and 442
Jute 284, 746
——Crops, 1932 749
——Cultivation of 284
——history of industry 746
——looms 747
——manufactures 747, 750, 928
——Mills Association 749
—— ——working agreements 749
——trade and the war 750
Juvenile prisoners 459

K

Kaisar-i-Hind medal 625
Kalat 172
Kamet, Mount 559
Kangchenjunga 559

PAGE

Kangra Valley 557
Kapurthala State 201
Karachi Chamber of Commerce 731
——Port Trust 349
Karauli State 177
Karenni 205
Karikal 215
Kashmir (Jammu) administration .. 206
——agriculture 206
——area 206
——army 206
——Hill Station 557
——history 206
——hydro scheme 336
——Industries 206
——minerals 206
——population 206
——revenue 206
——roads 207
——schools 207
——State 206
Kathiawar 187
Kenya Colony 992
——Government despatch 992
—— ——East African Committee .. 993
—— ——Franchise 993
—— ——Hilton-Young Commission .. 994
—— ——Immigration 993
—— ——Indian Deputation to East Africa 994
—— ——Ormsby-Gore Commission .. 993
—— ——Southborough Committee .. 993
Kerosene 715
Kharsawan 196
Khasi Chiefship 198
Khassadars 235
Khilafat Committee 953
King and Queen, visit of (1911) 48
King's Commission 269
Kings of India, *see* Rulers.
Kishangarh State 176
Kitchener Army Scheme 257
Kodaikanal 557
Kolhapur 193
——Races 1010
Kotah State 178
Koweit 224
——railway scheme 224
Kurku and Central India Hill Mission .. 436
Kurundwad State 195

PAGE

L

Labour 469
——Absenteeism and Turnover 484
——Accident Prevention 495
——Agriculture 512
——All-India Associations 530
—— ——and Burma Covenanted Non-Gazetted Railway Servants' Services 530
—— —— Railwaymen's Federation .. 530
—— ——Trade Union Congress .. 530
——Assam Labour and Emigration Act 482
——Bombay Cotton Mill Industry 494, 513
—— ——Labour Office 543
—— ——Strike Enquiry Committee .. 536
——Bonus 536
——Bonus Dispute Enquiry Committee 536
——Commission (Royal) on 472
——Communist Menace 471
——Conciliation and Arbitration 536
——Contract 492
——cost of living 524
——Cotton Industry 513
——Education 511
——Employment of Children 489
—— —— ——Women 489
——Factory Labour Commission (1907) .. 486
——Factories 486
——Girni Kamgar Union 470
——Government Administration 542
——Growth of Problem 469
——Health 504
——Hours of work 486
——Indebtedness 519
——Indian Factories Act 486
—— ——Housing 501
—— ——Industrial Commission 542
—— ——Industrial Disputes 535
—— ——Industrial Workers 477
—— ——Mines Act 490
—— ——Safety and Inspection 494
——International Labour Conferences .. 541
—— —— ——Convention 541
——Industry 494
——Maternity Benefits 507
—— ——Benefit Act, Bombay .. 508
——Medical Facilities for workers .. 506
——Mines 496, 543
——Migration 479
——National Union of Railwaymen of India and Burma 530

	PAGE
Labour Office, Bombay	543
——Occupation of the People	480
——Overtime	489
——Plantations	518
——Railway Associations	530
——Railways	510, 520
——Recreation	510
——Recruitment of	481
——Reforms in Bombay Cotton Mills	483
——Riots Enquiry Committee	471
——Seamen	491
——Strike Enquiry Committee	536
——Tea Districts Emigrant Labour Act	456, 483
——Trade Disputes Legislation	536
—— ——Union Congress	471
—— —— ——Legislation	533
—— —— Unions	527
—— —— —— Act	533
——Unemployment	492
——Wages	512
—— ——Deduction from	523
——Welfare work	508
——Whitley Commission	472
——Workers and Peasants Party	470
——Workmen's Compensation	476, 497
—— ——Compensation Act	497
—— ——Compensation (Amendment)	497
Ladies' Missions	436
Lady Hardinge Medical College	591
——Minto Nursing Service	594
Lahore Conspiracy Case	48
——Races	1011
Land Acquisition (Amendment) Act	463
——Alienation Act, Punjab	875
——Mortgage Banks	387
——Oudh Tenancy Act	875
——Protection of Tenants	875
——Revenue, incidence of	874
—— ——policy	874
—— ——system	874
——Settlement Officer	874
——settlement, permanent	874
—— ——temporary	874
——Survey and Records of Rights	875
—— ——literature on	875
——tenure	874
—— ——Bihar and Orissa	136
—— ——United Provinces	111
Landlords, policy towards	875
Languages, Bengal Pres.	99
——Bombay Presidency	79
——Central Provs.	142
——Madras Pres.	89
——N. W. F. Province	152
Languages, Punjab	121
——United Provs.	110
Lansdowne, Lord	46
Las Bela	172
Latvia, Consul for	252
Lausanne, Treaty of	227
Law and Justice	442
——appointments	445
—— Bar organisation	444
——Codification	442
——Commission	982
——European British subjects	442
——High Courts	443
——Indigenous	442
——legal practitioners	444
——legislative power	444
——lower courts	443
——officers	444
——reports	444
——statistics	452
——statute law revision	442
Lawa State	176
Lawn tennis	1019
Lawrence, Lord	45
Laws of 1933	461
Lead	718
League, Moslem	950
League of Nations	467
—— of Nations Union, Indian	408
Leather, hides and skins	765
Legal Practitioners	444
Legislative Assembly	73
—— ——Council, Assam	159
—— ——Bengal	107
—— ——Bihar and Orissa	139
—— ——Bombay	87
—— ——Burma	134
—— ——Central Provinces	149
—— ——Madras	97
—— ——North West Frontier Province.	155
—— ——Punjab	127
—— ——United Provinces	117
——Dept.	68
Legislature, Indian, Proceedings	964
Legislatures	964
Legislatures (Imperial), Powers of	71
Leipzig Evangelical Lutheran Mission	438
Leper Mission	435
Leprosy in India	582
——Relief Association, British Empire	583
Letter postage rates	571
Levy Corps	267
Lhasa expedition	244

	PAGE
Liberal Federation, National	948
Liberian Consul	252
Libraries in Baroda	172
Lieut.-Governors of Bengal	106
——Burma	133
——Punjab	126
——United Provs.	116
Lindsay Commission on Education	357
Linlithgow Commission (Agriculture)	285
Linseed, cultivation of	284
Literacy	978
Literary Societies	405
Live-stock	284
Lloyd Dam	81
Lloyd, Triestino Line	547
Loans, Co-operative	386
Local Boards	339
——Bengal Pres.	102
——Bombay Pres.	80
——Central Provs.	144
——Madras	91
——Punjab	122
——United Provinces	112
——Village Autonomy	338
——Government Commission (for Kenya)	993
——Self-government	338
——District Boards	339
——Improvement Trusts	340
——Municipalities	339
——Panchayats	338
——Provincial progress	340
——statistics	341
——types of villages	338
London Agents of Indian Banks	681
——Alexandria-Karachi Air Routes	932
——Chamber of Commerce	722
——to India railway	248
——Missionary Society, Mission	434
Lord Wellesley's Policy	42
Lucknow, defence of Residency	45
——Races	1011
——University	367
Lunacy and Asylums in India	587
Lunatic Asylums	588
Lunavada	192
Lutheran Missions	438
Luxemburg, Consul for	252
Lytton Committee	999

M

	PAGE
Machinery and Millwork	922
Maclagan Committee (on Co-operation)	396
Madras & S. M. Railway	698
——Agriculture	89
——Agri-Horticultural Society of	405
——Area	89
——Bank	671, 676
—— Capture of	41
——Cauvery Reservoir Project	336, 313
——Central Co-operative Bank	383
—— Chamber of Commerce	731
——Cochin Harbour Scheme	90
—— Collectors	89
——Colleges	90
——Co-operation	92
——Council	97
——District Municipalities and Local Boards Act	91
——Ecclesiastical Dept.	426
——Electric Schemes	91
——Education	90
——Famine, 1866	332
——Fine Arts Society	410
——Fisheries	641
——Government	89
——Governors of	96
——Hydro-Electric Schemes	91
——Irrigation	91
——Industries	89
——Judicial Dept.	447
——Justice	93
——Legislative Council	97
——Literary Society	410
——Marine Aquarium	643
——Nursing Association	593
——Officials	95
——Population	89
——Police	93
——Port Trust	349
——Presidency	89
——Presidents of Fort St. George	95
——Races	1012
——Railways	698
——Rainfall	89
——Revenue	93
——Social Legislation	92
——States in	185
——Stock Exchange	721
——University	366
——Vizagapatam Harbour Project	91
Madura Mission	433
Magadha, Ancient kingdom of	37
Magistrates, Courts of	443
——District	443
——Native and European	442

	PAGE
Mahableshwar	557
Maharashtra Chamber of Commerce	730
Mahomedan Holidays	1257
——kingdoms	39
——Soldiers	270
——University	367
Mahomedanism	972
Mahratta Wars	42
Mahrattas	270
Mahsuds	235
Malaria Survey	570
Maler Kotla State	202
Malwand, Battle of	46
Mammal Survey	567
Mandi State	202
Manganese Industry	713
——Ore Production	713
Manipur	198
Manners and Customs	15
——Buddhists	17
——Caste marks	16
——Domestic life	17
——Dress	15
——Fashion Variations	15
——images	17
——Jains	17
——Women's Costumes	15
——Worship	17
Manufactures, Assam	156
——Bengal Presidency	99
——Bihar and Orissa	135
——Bombay Presidency	79
——Burma	130
——Central Provinces	142
——Glass	764
——Madras Presidency	89
——Punjab	121
——United Provinces	110
Manures	281
Maps, Baghdad Railway	249
——Mesopotamia	226
——of the Middle East	228
——North-West Frontiers	230
——Persian Gulf	223
——Survey (topographical)	568
——Waziristan	234
Marathas, *see* Mahrattas.	
Marine (Amendment) Act, Indian	461
—— Aquarium, Madras	643
—— Royal Indian	276
—— —— ——appointments	278
Marine Royal Indian dockyards	279
—— —— ——expenditure	276
—— —— ——history	276
—— —— ——personnel	278
—— —— ——war service	276
Marks, Merchandise	771
——Trade	766
Marriage	978
Maskat	224
Massacre of Cawnpore	44
Matches, Excise on	856
Mathematical Society (Benares)	405
—— ——Indian	409
Matheran	557
Mayo, Lord	45
Measures and Weights	35
Medal, Indian Distinguished Service	624
—— ——Meritorious	624
—— ——Order of Merit	624
—— —— ——of British India	624
——Kaisar-i-Hind	625
Mediæval dynasties	38
Medical Council Act, Indian	465
—— Research Workers	570
Meerut, Mutiny at	44
——Races	1017
Mennonite Mission	436
Mental Hospitals	588
Merchandise, Imports of	914
—— ——Marks Act	771
Merchant Shipping (Amendment) Act, Indian	462
Merchant Shipping (Second Amendment) Act, Indian	465
Merchants' Chamber, Indian	728
Meritorious Service Medal, Indian	624
Merwara, Ajmer	161
Mesopotamia, Map of	226
Messageries Maritimes Line	547
Metals	27, 921
Metal working	27
——workers	27
Metcalfe, Sir Charles	43
Meteorological Department, India	318
——Organisation	319
——Observations	320
Meteorology	315
——Monsoon of 1933	327
——Monsoons	315
——Rainfall, total	315
——Spring months	317
——Statistics	315
	323-326

PAGE

Methodist Episcopal (American) Mission . 439
——Societies 439
Metre-gauge railways 690
Mexico, Consul for 252
Mica 718
Middle East, Map of 228
—— ——Railway position in 228
Migration 479, 970
Mileage, railway 702, 708
—— ——(tables) 702–708
Military College, Prince of Wales 369
——Council 258
——Farms Department 267
——Territorial Areas 258
Mill Enquiry Committee 483, 536
Millets, cultivation of 282
Millowners' Association, Bombay 727
——Mutual Insurance Association .. 728
Mineral production (tables) 709
——Oils 923
Minerals, Assam 156
——Bengal .. ..100 (*a*)
——Bihar and Orissa 136
——Burma 129
——Central Provinces 143
——Hyderabad 168
——Kashmir 206
——Punjab 121
——United Provinces 111
Mines Act (Indian) 490
——and Minerals of India 709
——Bibliography 720
——Death ratein 711
——Labour in 490
——people employed in 711
Mining accidents 711
——employees 711
Minorities Past 944
Mint, Bombay 881
Minto, Lord 42, 48
——Nursing Service, Lady 594
Mints 882
Miraj State 195
Miscellaneous appointments 69
Mission Schools 422
——to Lepers 435
Missionary Settlement for University women 437
Missions, All-India 434
——and Enemy Trading Act 439
——Baptist Societies 430
——Christian 422
——Church of England 421

PAGE

Missions, Congregational Societies .. 433
——Disciple Societies 436
——Interdenominational Missions .. 437
——Ladies' Societies 436
——Lutheran Societies 438
——Methodist Societies 439
——Presbyterian Societies 432
——Roman Catholic 428
——Scottish Church 429
Missouri Evangelical Lutheran India Mission 439
Mofussil Municipalities 339
Moira, Lord (Marquis of Hastings) .. 42
Money order rates 572, 573
Mongolo-Dravidians (Bengalis) 969
Mongoloids 969
Monsoon, 1933 327
——(tables) 323–326
Monsoons 315
Montagu-Chelmsford reform 48
Monumental Pillars 22
Mormugao, Port of 215
Moslem League 950
Most Eminent Order of Indian Empire .. 611
Motor Cars and Motor Cycles 922
——Vehicles 922
Mount Abu 557
Movement, Civil Disobedience 939
——Co-operative 377
——Non-Co-operation 937
——Woman Suffrage 595
Mudhol State 194
Mughal Dynasty 39
——painting 20
Muhammerah 225
Municipalities, Bengal Presidency .. 101
——Bombay Presidency 81
——Central Provinces 143
—— constitution of 339
——expenditure 339
——functions 339
——income 339
——Madras 91
——Punjab 122
—— rates and taxes 339
——United Provinces 112
Mural Painting 22
Murder statistics 457
Murree 557
Murshidabad Estate Administration Act. 464
Mussoorie 557
Mutiny, Indian 44, 256

	PAGE
Mutiny, Indian at Barrackpore	256
——at Delhi..	44
——Meerut	256
——political causes of	44
——racial causes of	256
——religious causes of	256
——Sepoy	44
——Siege of Delhi	44
——Vellore	255
Mysore	169
——Administration	169
——agriculture	170
——area	169
——army	170
——education	171
——history..	169
——Hydro-Electric Scheme ..	171, 336
——industries	170
——population	169
——Races	1014
——revenues	170
——schools	171
——University	171, 366
—— wars	42

N

Nabha State	202
Nagpur University	367
Naini Tal	557
Names, Indian	17
Nandgaon State	200
Nanga Parbat	558
Napier, Sir Charles..	44
Narendra Mandal	207
Natal Borough Ordinance	988
——Line	547
——Township Franchise Ordinance	988
National Airways, Indian ..	549, 933
——Association for supplying Medical Aid by women	590
——Congress, Indian	937
——Defence, Expenditure on	272
——Horse Breeding and Show Society..	410
——Indian Association	410, 1001
——Liberal Federation	948
——Missionary Society of India.. ..	435
——Union of Railwaymen of India and Burma	530
Native magistrates and Europeans ..	442
——Piece-goods Association	730
——private bankers	682
——Share and Stock Brokers' Association	720
Natural History Society, Bombay ..	406
——productions, Assam	156
——Bengal Presidency	99
——Bihar and Orissa..	135
——Bombay	79
——Burma	129
——Central Provinces	142
——Madras Presidency	89
——Punjab	120
——United Provinces	110
Nawanagar State	189
Navy, contribution to (table)	276
——East Indies Squadron	276
Nepal	247
——War	43
Netherland's Consul	252
New Capital	560
——Enquiry Committee	560
——Zealand Presbyterian Mission ..	432
Newspapers in India	656
——Act, 1910	655
——Incitements to Offences Act ..	655
——Indian	656
Nicaragua, Consul for	252
Nickel coinage	881
Nicobar Islands	161
Nila-Mula Scheme	335
Nizam's Gold Mine, Hutti	714
Non-Co-operation Movement	937
Northbrook, Lord	45
——Society	1001
North-Eastern Frontier	245
North India Chamber of Commerce ..	732
North-West Frontier	232
——Province	151
——agriculture..	153
——area	151
——development	151
——Ecclesiastical Department	426
——flora and fauna	152
——formed	46
——irrigation	153
——Judicial Dept.	450
——Legislative Council ..	155
——map of	230
——municipalities	154
——officials	154
——police	154
——population	152
——races	152
——rainfall	152
——states	185
——trade	153

	PAGE
North-Western Railway	697
Norwegian Consul	253
Notes, currency	882, 893
Nova Goa	210
Nurses' Organisation	594
Nursing Associations	594
——in India	594
——Service, Lady Minto	594

O

Obligations of Indian States	166
Occupations	480, 980
Office, India	164
Officers, Army	269
——Consular, in India	250
——Reserve of	270
Officials, Assam	158
——Baluchistan	161
——Bengal Presidency	105
——Bihar and Orissa	139
——Bombay Presidency	85
——Burma	133
——Central Provinces	148
——Law	414, 445
——Madras Presidency	95
——North-West Frontier Province	154
——Punjab	126
——United Provinces	116
Oil industry	754
——kerosine	715
Oils and oilcakes	754
Oilseeds	283, 929
——cultivation of	283
Old Church Hebrew Mission	438
Ootacamund	557
——Races	1014
Open Brethren Mission	438
Opium Agreement with China	761
——Bihar and Orissa	135
——Commission	762
——excise systems	876
——International aspect of probl-m	761
——Policy	763
——Trade	761, 877
Orchha State	183
Orders, British India	624
——Crown of India	623
——Indian	607
——Distinguished Service Medal	624
——Empire	611
Orders, Indian Meritorious Service Medal	624
——of Merit	624
——Kaisar-i-Hind Medal	625
——Star of India	607
Ordinance, Natal Borough	988
——Township Franchise	988
Ordnance Services, Army	266
Ore, iron	711
——manganese	718
Orient Line	547
Oriental Studies, School of	639
Origins of Indian History	37
Orissa, *see* Bihar	135
——Famine, 1856-7	329
Ormsby-Gore Commission	993
Osmania University	169, 367
Oudh annexed	45
——and Rohilkhand Railways	698
——Tenancy Act	875
Out-still excise system	876
Overseas Expeditions	255

P

Pachmari	558
Painting, Indian	20
——Modern	20
——Mughal	20
——Mural	22
Palanpur	179
Panama, Consul for	253
Panchayats	338
Panjab States	200
Paper and Pasteboard	924
Paper Currency Reserve	892
Parcels postage rates	572
Parliamentary Committee, Joint	962
Parsi Association of Europe	1001
——Holidays	1257
Parsis, *see* Zoroastrianism	972
Partabgarh State	174
Passengers and Traffic Relief Association	410
Passport regulations	636
Patents	766
Pathan Soldiers	270
Patiala State	203
Patna University	366
Pearl fishery, Bahrein	224
——fishing	642
Pegu annexed	44
Penal Code	442

	Page
Peninsular & Oriental S. N. Co.	547
——Railway, Great Indian	698
People Bengal	99
—— Bihar and Orissa	135
—— Bombay Presidency	79
——Burma	129
——Central Provinces	142
——N.-W. F.	152
——Punjab	120
——United Provinces	110
Peoples of India	969
——Census	973, 974
——Christians	972
——Cities	975
——Economic Condition	978
——Education	978
——infirmities	980
——languages	979
——literacy	978
——marriage	978
——migration	479, 970
——occupations	480, 980
——population	975
——religions	972
——sex	977
——socialllife	978
——statistics	970, 971, 972, 973, 974, 975, 976, 977, 978, 979, 980
——town and villages	970
——widows	978
Permanent Settlement Act	874
Persia	231
——Agreement with	231
——and present position	231
——British policy in	231
Persian Consuls	253
—— Gulf	222
—— ——and France	222
—— ——and Germany	222
—— ——and Russia	222
—— ——and Turkey	222
—— ——map of	223
—— ——(Pirate Coast)	224
—— ——railway lines	248
—— ——shore	229
Personnel of Government	64
Peruvian Consuls	253
Petroleum, output of	715
——production of	715
Phaltan	195
Philatelic Socy. of India	410
Photographic Socy. of India (Calcutta)	410
Piece-goods Assocn., Bombay Native	730
Pigsticking	1028
Pillars, Monumental	22
Pindaris	43
Pirate Coast	224
Plantations	518
Plassey, Battle of	41
Poland, Consul for	253
Police	453
——administration	453
——Armed	453
——Baluchistan	160
——Bengal Presidency	102
——Bihar and Orissa	136
——Bombay Presidency	81
——Burma	131
——Cadre	449
——Central Provinces	4
——Commission	456
——Criminal Investigation Department	453
——distribution of	454
——History of	453
——inspectors	454
——Madras Presidency	93
——N.-W. Frontier Province	154
——offences	457
——organisation	453
——Prosecutors	453
——Punjab	122
——statistics	455, 456, 457
——training school	454
——United Provinces	112
Policy, New Frontier	232
——towards Indian States	167
Political Department	67
——Officers	167
Polo in India	1023
Pondicherry	215
Poona and Indian Village Mission	434
——races	1015
——Seva Sadan Society	410
Pope Committee	692
Population, Aden	156
——Assam	156
——Baluchistan	160
—— ——Agency	172
——Baroda	171
——Bengal Presidency	99
——Bihar and Orissa	135
——Bombay Presidency	79
——Burma	129
——censuses of	973

	PAGE
Population Central India Agency ..	180
——— Provinces	142
——cities	975
——India	166
——Indian States	166
——Jail	460
——Madras Presidency	89
——Movement of	970
——Mysore	169
——N.-W. Frontier Province	152
——Principal cities	975
——Punjab	120
——Rajputana Agency	173
——United Provinces	110
Porbandar	190
Port of Bombay	347
——— ——Calcutta	346
——— ——Chittagong	350
——— ——Karachi	349
——— ——Madras	349
——— ——Mormugao	212
——— ——Rangoon	350
Ports, Indian	346
Portuguese Consuls	253
——Empire	40
——foreign possessions in India	209
Post Office and Telegraph	571
——— ——circles	571
——— ——Dept.	68
——— ——growth of	573
——— ——Insurance Fund	770
——— ——tariff	571
Postage rates, foreign	572
——— ——— ——letter	572
——— ——— ——parcels	572
Posts and Telegraphs	571
Precedence, Table of	598
Presbyterian Church of Ireland Mission .	432
——— ——N. American Mission	432
——Societies	432
Presidency Banks	671
——— ——Act of 1876	671
——Corporations	339
——of Bengal	99
——of Bombay	79
——Madras	89
——Police	454
——towns	339
Presidents of Fort St. George	95
Press Act, 1910	655
——and Registration of Books Act ..	655
Press Association of India	656
——censorship	654
——in India	654
——law, Indian	655
——Newspaper (Incitement to Offences) Act	655
——Owners' Association	411
——Repeal of Acts	655
——Statistics	656
——Vernacular	655
Prevention of Seditions Meetings Act ..	47
Prices, Index	931
——in India 910,	931
Primary schools	361
——— ——Committee	361
Prince of Wales' Military College ..	369
Princes and Reforms	946
——Chamber of	207
——Conferences held	207
——Functions described	207
Principal Clubs in India	418
Printing Presses	656
Prisoners' employment	458
Prisoners, juvenile	459
Prisons Act of 1894	458
Private bankers and shroffs, Indian ..	682
Procedure of Government business ..	64
Proclamation of Empress of India ..	45
Produce, agricultural	306
Production of coal (table)	710
——gold	715
——iron ore	712
——Manganese	713
——minerals (tables)	709
——petroleum	716
——salt	719
——tea	755
——woven goods (tables)	744
——yarn	743
Professional names	18
Professions	18
Project Andhra Valley	335
——Vizagapatam Harbour 91,	351
Projects, Irrigation	313
——from Famine	330
Protection of Children Society	413
Provinces, United	110
Provincial Co-operative Banks	383
——Councils, working of	60
——Criminal Law Supplementary Act ..	462
Proving of Wills	34
Provisions	923

PAGE

Public Holidays in India 1257
——Prosecutors 453
——Services 961
Publicity Department 67
Pudukottai 186
Pulse, cultivation of 282
Punchayets 338
Punjab administration 121
——agriculture 121
——annexed 44
——area 120
——canal system 121
——castes 120
——Chamber of Commerce 733
——climate 120
——Colleges 122
——Commissioners 122
——Council 127
——Courts of Justice 122
——District Boards 122
——Ecclesiastical Department 427
——Education Department 122
——Enquiry Committee, Education .. 357
——Finance 123
——fisheries 646
——forests 121
——Governors 126
——Industries 121
——irrigation 121
——Judicial Department 450
——Land Alienation Act 875
——languages 121
——Legislative Council 127
——Lieut.-Governors 126
——Medical Dept. 122
——minerals 121
——Municipalities 122
——officials 126
——police 122
——population 120
——provincial police 122
——rainfall 120
——religions 120
——revenue 123
——schools 122
——states under 120, 200
——textiles 121
——trade 121
——University 366
Pykhara Hydro-Electric Scheme .. 91

PAGE

Q

Quetta Races 1017

R

Races, the fighting 270
Racing in India 1003
Radhanpur State 190
Radio telegrams 575
——Telephone Service, India-England .. 653
Railway Accidents 696
——Accounts 689
——Acworth Committee 690
——Adam's Bridge 699
——Anatolian Co. 248
——Assam 156, 697
——Assam-Bengal 156, 697
——Associations 730
——Baghdad 219
—— ——Map of 249
——Baroda 172, 697
——Bengal and N.-W. 697
——Bengal-Nagpur 697
——Board 68, 687
——Board, Government Control and Organisation 687
——Bombay, Baroda & Central India .. 697
——broad-gauge 689
——Budget 690, 965
——Burma 697
—— ——and India 699
——capital expenditure 693
——Central Advisory Committee .. 696
—— ——Asian 248
—— Chief Railways of India 691
——clearing accounts office 689
——Collieries 695
——Conference 689
——connections with Ceylon 699
——contracts 687
——Control 687
——Earnings 694
——Eastern Bengal 697
——East Indian 697
——Electrification 692
——expenditure 693
——Exports 693
——Famine and Frontiers 685
——fatalities and injuries .. 696, 858
——Finances 694
——Finances, Separation of 690
——Financial Results of Working .. 694
——gauges 689

	PAGE
Railway, German in Turkey	248
——Government control	687
——Great Indian Peninsula	698
——history of Indian	685
——Hyderabad	168, 698
——Indian States	698
——to India	248
——Imports	693
——Indian Conference	689
——Indianisation	696
——Indo-Burma	699
——Koweit Scheme	224
——Local Advisory Committees	696
——Madras and S. M.	698
——management	689
——metre-gauge	690
——mileage	702
——Mysore	698
——Native States	698
——North-Western	698
——Open mileage	694, 702—708
——Oudh and Rohilkhand	698
——Persian Gulf lines	248
——surveys	222
——Pope Committee	692
——profits commence	686
——Publicity	692
——Rates Advisory Committee	692
——rebate system contracts	685
——Reorganisation problems	691
——revenue	693, 694
——Russian to Lake Urumia	248
——Tehran	248
——scheme, Cairo to Koweit	248
——South Indian	698
——Staff	695
——State versus Company Management	690
——Statistics	699
——tonnage	693
——Trade Review	693
——Trans-Persian	248
——Turkish guarantee	248
——two feet six inch gauge	690
——Wages	520
Railways	685
——(Amendment) Act, Indian	464
Rainfall	317, 325, 326
Raisina, New Capital	560
Rajpipla State	192
Rajputana, Lawa State of	176
——agency	173
Rajputs	38
Ramabai Mukti Mission	437
Ramdrug State	193
Rampur State	198
Rangoon Literary Society	411
—— Port Trust	350
Ranjit Singh	43
Rate, Bank	682
Rates Advisory Committee (Railway)	696
—— and taxes, municipal	339
——Birth and Death	578
Rebate Railway contract system	685
Recreation Club Institute	411
Red Cross Society	586
Reform Act, 1919	51
——of weights and measures	35
——social	43
——Viceroy's Emergency Powers	71
Reformatory schools	459
Reforms (Indian) Commission	49
Regions beyond Missionary Union	435
Regulations, Passport	636
Religion, native students and	423
Religions of India	972
Remittances, Sterling	883
Remount Department, Army	266
Repeal of Press Legislation	655
Reports, Law	444
Research Fund Association, Indian	569
—— —— Studentships, Cotton	739
Reserve Bank	676, 896
——Forest	648
——Gold Standard	882, 891
—— Indian Army	270
——Paper Currency	892
Reserves, Currency	892, 894, 895
Retrenchment Committee	838
Revenue, Assam	157
——Baroda	172
——Bengal	103
——Bihar and Orissa	137
——Bombay Presidency	84
——Burma	132
——Central Board of	67
—— ——Provinces	146
—— ——Department	67
——Forest	650
——Government	873
——Hyderabad	168
——incidence of Land	874
——irrigation	310
——Kashmir	206
——Land	874
——Madras Presidency	93
——Mysore	170
——Post Office	576

	PAGE
Revenue Punjab	123
——railways	694
——salt	878
——System, Land	874
——tables of	873
——telegraph	576
——United Provinces	114
Rewa State	182
Rice, cultivation of	282
Rifle Shooting	1029
Right of Vend, Excise	876
——of Indian States	166
Riots Enquiry Committee, Bombay	471
Ripon, Lord	46
Rise in exchange	884
Rising in Bengal	41
Roads and Transport Development Association (Indian)	409
Roberts, Lord	46
Roman Catholic Churches	428
Rotary Clubs in India	420
Roumania, Consul for	253
Round Table Conference	955
——Communal award	956
——Congress participation in	956
——Minorities	956
——White Paper	960
——Federal Legislatures	961
——Provinces	961
——Public Services	961
——Reserved Subjects	960
Route (Air) to India	932
Routes (Sea) to India from Europe	547
Royal Asiatic Society	1001
——(Bombay)	406
——Central Asian Society	1001
——Commission on Agriculture	285
—— Indian Reforms	49
——Indian Marine	276
——on Labour	472
——Empire Society	1001
——Institute of International affairs	1001
——Society of Art	411, 1001
Rugby	1022
Rulers of India, Akbar	39
—— ——Asoka	37
—— ——Aurangzeb	40
—— ——Babar	39
—— ——Chandragupta	37
—— ——India, Gupta dynasty	38
—— ——Harsha	38
—— ——Humayu	39
Rulers of India, Mahomedan	39
—— ——Mediæval dynasties	39
—— ——Mongolian kings	39
—— ——Mughal dynasty	39
—— ——Shahjahan	39
—— ——Southern dynasties	38
Rural Education	362
——reconstruction	392
Russia and Tibet	244
Russian railway to Lake Urumia	248
Russo-Afghan Treaty	241
Rutlam State	183
Ryotwari holdings	874

S

Sabar Kautha Agency	187
Sachin	192
Safeguarding of Industries Act	462
St. John Ambulance Assocn.	587
Salt	719, 877
——Additional Import Duty (Extending) Act	461
——revenue	878
Salutes, table of	602
Salvador, Consul for	253
Salvation Army in India	440
Sandur	187
Sangli State	194
Sanitation	577
——Birth and death rates	578
——chief diseases	579
——child welfare movement	585
——health of the army	581
——history of	577
——leprosy in India	582
——Lunatic Asylums	588
——mortality	579
Sant State	192
Saracenic Architecture	31
Savantwadi State	194
Savanur	193
Scandinavian Alliance Mission	434
Scheme, Kashmir Hydro	336
——Mysore Hydro-electric	336
——Nila-Mula	335
School of Oriental Studies	639
Schools of Art	21, 22
Schools, *see* Education and Colleges.	
Science Congress, Indian	59

	PAGE
Scientific Surveys	567
——— ——Botanical	568
——— ——Geological	570
——— ——Malaria	570
——— ——Mammal	567
——— ——Research Fund Association, Indian	569
——— ——Science Congress, Indian	569
——— ——Survey of India	568
——— ——Topographical Survey Maps	568
——— ——Zoological	567
Scotland, Established Church of	429
——United Free Church of	430
Scouts, Boy	363, 375
Scytho-Dravidian people	969
Sea Routes between India and Europe	547
Secondary schools	382
Secretariat Depts., Governor-Generals'	67
Secretary of State for India	163
Secunderabad Races	1016
Sedition in Bengal	42
Seamen	491
Sea Routes between India and Europe	547
Seistan (Persia)	229
Self-Government, Local	338
Sentences, indeterminate	459
——short	459
Separation of Railway Finances	690
Sepoy mutiny	44, 256
Sericulture	968
Servants, Domestic	546
—— of India Society	412
Service, Lady Minto Nursing	504
Services, Indian Forest (Engineering)	648
——Indian Police	453
Sesamum, cultivation of	284
Sessions, Courts of	443
Settlement Officers' duties	874
Settlements, Dutch	40
——European	40
Seva Sadan	413
Seventh Day Adventists Mission	436
Sex	977
Shahjahan	40
Shahpura chiefship	177
Shan States	204
Share and Stock Brokers' Association	720
Shawl weaving	28
Shroffs, banking by	682
Siamese Consuls	253
Siege of Delhi	256
Signal Corps, Army	265
Sikh wars	43, 256
Sikhs, origin of	270
Sikkim State	184
Silk	752, 920
Silver	718, 869
——coinage	881
——coins	881
——Duty	860
——standard	882
Simla	557
Simon (Sir John) Commission	49
Sind, fisheries	645
Sirguja	197
Sirmur (Nahan) State	204
Sirohi State	175
Skins, hides and leather	765, 929
Small-cause Courts	443
Smuggling of Cocaine	760
Smuts-Gandhi Agreement	987
Social reforms	43
——societies	405
Societies, Agricultural	380
——and Institutions in London connected with India	1000
——Anglican Missionary	423
——Baptist	430
——Congregational	433
——Disciple	437
——Housing Co-operative	395
——Ladies	436
——Literary, Scientific and Social	405
——Lutheran	438
——Methodist	439
——Non-Credit Agricultural Co-operation	389
——Presbyterian	432
——for the Propagation of the Gospel	423
——for the Protection of Children	413
——Red Cross, Indian	586
——of St. John the Evangelist	424
Society for the Protection of Children in Western India	413
——for Promoting the Study of Religion.	1001
Soil, Agricultural	280
——Bengal Pres.	99
——Bombay Pres.	79
——Central Prov.	142
——India	280
——Madras Pres.	89
——Punjab	120

	PAGE
Soil, United Provinces	110
South Africa, Indians in	988
——Indian Famine, 1876-8	329
—— ——Railway	698
Southborough Committee	993
Southern dynasties	39
——India Chamber of Commerce ..	732
Spanish Consuls	254
Sports in India	1002
—— ——athletics	1025
—— ——boxing	1023
—— ——cricket	1017
—— ——football	1021
—— ——golf	1022
—— ——hockey	1020
—— ——Pigsticking	1028
—— ——polo	1023
—— ——racing	1003
—— ——Rifle Shooting	1029
—— ——Rugby	1022
—— ——Swimming	1030
—— ——tennis	1019
—— ——Water Polo	1023
—— ——Wrestling	1028
—— ——Yachting	1030
Squadron, East Indies	276
Staff, Governor-General's	66
——Governor's, Bengal Pres.	106
—— ——Bombay Pres.	85
—— ——Madras Pres.	95
——Railway	695
Stamp Duties, Indian	934
Standard Tours	554
Star of India	607
State, Council of	77
——Forces, Indian Army	268
——forest distribution	647
——irrigation works	309
——*versus* Company Management (Railways)	690
States, Indian	166
—— ——Akalkot	193
—— ——Alwar	179
—— ——Amb	185
—— ——Aundh	193
—— ——Bahawalpur	200
—— ——Balasinor	192
—— ——Baluchistan Agency	172
States, Indian, Banas Kantha Agency ..	187
—— ——Banganapalee	187
—— ——Bansda	192
—— ——Banswara	174
—— ——Baria	192
—— ——Bariya	192
—— ——Baroda	171
—— ——Bastar	197
—— ——Benares	199
—— ——Bengal Presidency	195
—— ——Bharatpur	177
—— ——Bhavnagar	188
—— ——Bhopal	182
—— ——Bhor	194
—— ——Bhutan	184
—— ——Bikaner	178
—— ——Bilaspur	200
—— ——Bundi	176
—— ——Cambay	192
—— ——Central India Agency	179
—— ——Chamba	200
—— ——Chhota Udaipur	192
—— ——Chitral	185
—— ——Cochin	186
—— ——Cooch Behar	195
—— ——Cutch	187, 190
—— ——Datia	183
—— ——Deccan States Agency	193
—— ——Dhar	182
—— ——Dharampur	192
—— ——Dholpur	177
—— ——Dhrangadhra	188
—— ——Dir	185
—— ——Dongarpur	174
—— ——Eastern States Agency	196
—— ——Faridkot	201
—— ——Gondal	188
—— ——Gujarat States Agency ..	191
—— —— ——Balasinor	191
—— —— ——Bansda	191
—— —— ——Baria	192
—— —— ——Cambay	192
—— —— ——Chhota Udepur	192
—— —— ——Dharampur	192
—— —— ——Jawhar	192
—— —— ——Lunawada	192
—— —— ——Rajpipla	192
—— —— ——Sachin	192
—— —— ——Sant	192
—— —— Gwalior	180
—— ——Hyderabad	168

PAGE

States, Indian, Idar 191
——— ———Indore 180
——— ———Jaipur 175
——— ———Jaisalmer 175
——— ———Jamkhandi 194
——— ———Jammu 206
——— ———Janjira 193
——— ———Jaora 183
——— ———Jashpur 200
——— ———Jath 194, 193
——— ———Jhalawar 178
——— ———Jind 201
——— ———Jodhpur 174
——— ———Junagadh 189
——— ———Kalat (Baluchistan Agency) .. 172
——— ———Kankar 200
——— ———Kapurthala 201
——— ———Karauli 177
——— ———Karenni District 205
——— ———Kashmir 206
——— ———Kathiawar 187
——— ———Khairagarh 197
——— ———Kharsawan 196
——— ———Khasi 198
——— ———Kishangarh 176
——— ———Kolhapur 193
——— ———Kotah 178
——— ———Kurundwad 195
——— ———Las Bela (Baluchistan Agency) 172
——— ———Lawa 176
——— ———Lunavada 192
——— ———Madras Presidency 185
——— ———Maler Kotla 202
——— ———Mandi 202
——— ———Manipur 198
——— ———Miraj 195
——— ———Mudhol 194
——— ———Mysore 169
——— ———Nabha 202
——— ———Nandgaon 200
——— ———Navanagar 189
——— ———North-West Frontier 185
——— ———Obligations of 166
——— ———Orchha 183
——— ———Palanpur 179
——— ———Partabgarh 174
——— ———Patiala 203
——— ———Phaltan 195

States Indian, Policy forwards 167
——— ———Political Officers 167
——— ———Porbandar 190
——— ———Pudukottai 186
——— ———Punjab 200
——— ———Radhanpur 190
——— ———Raigarh 196
——— ———Rajpipla 192
——— ———Rajputana Agency 173
——— ———Ramdurg 193
——— ———Rampur 198
——— ———Rewa 182
——— ———relations with 166
——— ———rights of 166
——— ———Rutlam 183
——— ———Sabar Kantha Agency 187
——— ———Sachin 192
——— ———Sandur 187
——— ———Sangli 194
——— ———Sant 192
——— ———Savantwadi 194
——— ———Savanur 193
——— ———Shahpura 177
——— ——— Shan 204
——— ———Sikkim 184
——— ———Sirguja 197
——— ———Sirmur (Nahan) 204
——— ———Sirohi 175
——— ———Suket 200
——— ———Surguja 197
——— ———Swat 185
——— ———Tehri 199
——— ———Tonk 176
——— ———Travancore 185
——— ———Tripura 196
——— ———Udaipur 173
——— ———Vijaynagar 191
——— ———Wadi Estate 194
——— ———Western India 187
——— ———under Assam Govt. 198
——— ——— ———Bengal Govt. 195
——— ——— ———Burma Govt. 204
——— ——— ———Central India Agency Govt. 179
——— ——— ———Madras Govt. 185
——— ——— ———North-West Frontier .. 185
——— ——— ———Punjab 200
——— ——— ———United Provinces Govt. .. 198
——— Railways 698
——— Tribute 208
Station, Khapoli Power 335
Stations, Wireless Telegraph 576

PAGE

Statistics, Agricultural 289–308
——bank 674, 675, 676, 678, 679, 680, 682, 683
——birth and death rate 578
——Bombay Port Trust 348
——Boy Scouts 375, 376
——Co-operation 398-404
——cotton industry .. 741, 742, 743, 744, 745
——dacoity 457
——death and birth rates 578
——education 354, 355, 358, 359, 360, 361, 362, 363, 365, 368, 370, 371, 372, 373, 374
——Famine Trust, Income and Expenditure 333
——forest 650, 651
——Indians, Overseas 981
——irrigation 311, 312, 313
——jail 460
——judicial 452
——Jute 747, 748, 749
——Labour 477, 478, 480, 484, 490, 491, 494, 499, 500, 505, 510, 513, 514, 515, 516, 517, 518, 521, 522, 525, 526, 535
——Local Govt. 341, 342
——Lunacy 588, 589
——Meteorological 323–326
——Mines and Minerals 709, 710, 711. 712, 714, 715, 716, 717, 719, 720
——Municipalities 342
——murder 457
——police 455, 456, 457
——Population 971–981
——press 656
——railway.. 693, 694, 695, 696, 702–708
——reserves, currency 895
——revenue and expenditure .. . 873
——Tea 755, 756, 757
——telegraph and telephone 576
——Textile Industry 741, 742, 743, 744, 745
——theft 457
——Trade .. 910, 914, 915, 916, 917, 918, 919, 922, 923, 925, 926, 927, 928, 929, 930
——wages, income, &c. 684
Statuary 26
Statutory Commission 49
Steamship Co., Anchor Line 547
——Bibby Line 547
——B. I. S. N. 547
——City and Hall Line 547
——Henderson 547
——Lloyd Triestino 547

PAGE

Steamship Co., Marittima Italiana .. 547
——Messageries Maritimes.. .. 547
——Natal Line 547
——Co., Orient Line 547
——P. & O. 547
Steel Industry 712
Sterling Remittances 883
Stock Exchanges 720
——Bombay 720
——Calcutta.. 721
——Committee of Inquiry (Bombay) 721
——Madras 721
Stones, Gem 719
Stores Department, Indian 933
Storms 317
Strength of the Army 275
Strict Baptist Mission 431
Strike Enquiry Committee, Bombay .. 536
Strikes, Industrial 536
——Textile Mill, Bombay 536
Structural Temples 31
Student Christian Movement of Great Britain 1001
Students' Bureau of information 999
——in Great Britain, Indian 998
Sub-district boards.. 339
Succession Duties 857
Suez Canal 548
Suffrage Movement, Woman 595
Sugarcane, cultivation of 283
Sugar imports 923
Suits, civil 452
Suket 200
Sukkur Barrage 313
Sunday School Union 409
Sunth (Sant) 192
Superintendents of Police, Assistant .. 454
Surguja 197
Survey, Archæological 69
——Botanical 68, 568
——Department 68
——Geological 68
——Hydrographic (of India) 334
——of India 568
——Mammal 567
——Maps, Topographical.. 568
——Zoological 567
Surveys, Forest 648
——Scientific 567
Sutlej Valley Project 313, 337
Swedish Alliance Mission.. 434
——Consuls 452

	Page
Swimming	1030
Swiss Consul	254
Syrian Church	422

T

	Page
Table, Interest	337
——of wages	684
Tamil Evangelical Lutheran Church	438
Tank Corps, Royal	965
Tanks	314
Tanned Hides, exports of	765
Tanning	765
——materials	924
Tariff (Amendment) Act, Indian	463
—— Board	968
——Customs	771
——(Ottawa Trade Agreement) Supplementary Act, Indian	462
——————(Second Amendment) Act, Indian	466
Tata Air Mail	932
——Hydro-Electric Power Supply Co.	334
——Iron and Steel Works	712
Tax, Income	860, 879
Taxation, Incidence of	874
Tea	755
——Control Act, Indian	464
——District Emigrant Labour Act.	483
——Exports	756, 928
Technical education	364
Technological (Cotton) Laboratory	739
Tehri State	199
Teignmouth, Lord (Sir John Shore)	42
Telegram Rates	574
Telegraph Department	574
——————and Post Office	571
——tariff	574
Telegraphy, Wireless	652
Telegu Mission, American Baptist	431
Telephone Service, Wireless, India-England	653
——Statistics	576
Telephony	652
Temperature	323, 324
Tennis, lawn, in India	1019
Territorial Force (Indian)	268
Textile export trade	742
——Industry	741
——Progress	745
——Punjab	121
——United Provinces	111
——Yarn	743
Textiles	27
Thanas and Thanadars	453
Theft Statistics	457
Tibet	243
——British intervention in	243, 244
——Chinese in	244
——expedition to	244
——political importance of	245
——Russia and	244
Tibetan Mission	435
Tidal Constants	34
Time, Indian	33
Times of India	654
Tirah Campaign	47
Tobacco, Bihar and Orissa	135
——Cultivation of	284
——Excise on	856
——Indian	759
Tonk State	176
Tonnage, railway	693
Topes	30
Topographical Survey Maps	568
Tours, Standard	554
Towns and country	970
——Presidency	339
Trade	909
——Balance of	911
——Bank rate	682
——Commissioner (British) Service in India	736
——Disputes Legislation	539
——exports of the year	911, 924
——French India	214
——Imports of the year	911, 924
——Marks	766
——N.-W. Frontier Province	151
——Opium	761
——Punjab	121
——Union Congress	471, 530
—— ——Legislation	538
——Unions	527
—— ——Act	533
Train service, Indian	548
Trained Nurses' Association	594
Training Institutions, Army	269
——school, police	454
Trans-Continental Airways, Indian	932
Trans-Persian Railway	248
Transported criminals	459
Transvaal Asiatic Land Tenure Act	991
Travancore	185
——Fisheries	646
Travel in India	551
Treaty of Bassein	42
——of Lausanne	227
——Russo-Afghan	241
——of Sagauli	43
Tribes, Frontier	246
Tribute, Indian States	208
Tripura State	196

	PAGE
Turkey	220
Turkish Consul	254
Turko-Iranian people	969

U

Udaipur State	173
Unemployment	492
Union Government, Agreement with ..	990
——of Britain and India	1001
Unions, Trade	527
United Church of Canada Mission ..	432
——Presbyterian Church of North America Mission	432
——Provinces administration	111
—— ——agriculture	110
—— ——area	110
—— ——Chamber of Commerce	734
—— ——Collectors	111
—— ——Colleges	113
—— ——Council	117
—— ——Courts of Justice	112
—— ——Deputy Commissioners	111
—— ——District Boards	112
—— ——Districts	111
—— ——Ecclesiastical Department ..	427
—— ——educational progress	113
—— ——factories	111
—— ——Finance	114
—— ——hospitals	113
—— ——Industries	110
—— ——Judicial Department	451
—— ——languages	110
—— ——Legislative Council	117
—— ——Lieutenant-Governors	116
—— ——Manufactures	110
—— ——Medical Dept.	113
—— ——Minerals	111
—— ——Municipalities	112
—— ——natural products	111
—— ——officials	116
—— ——police	112
—— ——population	110
—— ——revenue	114
—— ——roads and building	112
—— ——schools	113
—— ——soil	110
—— ——States under	198
—— ——Textile industry	111
——States, Consul for	254
Universities	365
University, Agra	367
——Aligarh	367
——Allahabad	366
——Andhra	367
——Annamalai	367
——Benares Hindu	366
——Bombay	366
——Calcutta	366
——Commission	353, 356
——Dacca	367
——Delhi	367
——Lucknow	367
——Madras	366
——Mysore	171, 366
——Nagpur	367
——Osmania	169, 367
——Patna	366
——Punjab	366
——Rangoon	367
——Training Corps	268
——Women, Indian Federation of ..	417
—— ——Missionary Settlement for ..	437
Upper India Chamber of Commerce ..	733
Uruguay, Consuls for	254
U. S. A. Consuls	254

V

Vellore, mutiny at	255
Vend, right of (excise system)	876
Venezuela, Consul for	254
Vernacular Press	654
——Act	46, 654
Veterinary Services, (Army)	267
Viceroyalty, Instituted	45
——of Lord Chelmsford	48
——of Lord Curzon	47
——of Lord Hardinge	48
——Lord Irwin	49
——of Lord Minto	47
——Lord Reading	48
——Lord Willingdon	49
Viceroys of India	70
——Commission	269
——Emergency Powers	71
Victoria Cross	635
——League	1001
——Memorial Scholarships Fund ..	591
Vijaynagar	191

PAGE

Village autonomy 338
Villages, occupations in 980
——types of 338
Vishnu 16
Visit of King and Queen 48
Vizagapatam Harbour Project 91, 351

W

Wadi Estate 194
Wages 512
——and Income (table) 684
——Deduction from 523
Wana, Reoccupation of 23
War and Afghanistan 43, 46, 48, 256
——Burmese 44, 46
——European, and India 48
——Gurkha 43
——India and the 48
——Maratha 42
——Memorial, All-India 563
——Mysore 42
——Nepal 43
——Royal Indian Marine 276
——Sikh 43
Warrant of Precedence 598
Wars, Afghan 43, 46, 48, 256
Water Polo 1023
Waziristan 235
——Map of 234
——People in 235
——Policy in 235
——Suggested Programme in 235
——The Compromise 236
——Wana, Reoccupation 237
Weaving, carpet 751
——Mills 751
——Shawls 751
Weights and Measures Committees .. 36
——————currency 35
——————reform of 35
——————variety of 35
Welfare centres, child 585
——movement, child 585
——Work 585
——Work among fisherfolk 643
Wellesley's (Lord) policy 42
Wells 314
Welsh Calvinistic Methodist Mission .. 433
Wesleyan Methodist Mission 440
Western India Famine, 1868–70 .. 329, 330
——————National Liberal Association .. 414
——————States 187
——————Bhavnagar 188
——————Cutch 187, 190
——————Dhrangadhra 188
——————Gondal 188
——————Idar 191
——————Junagadh 189
——————Nawanagar 189
——————Porbandar 190
——————Radhanpur 190
Wheat, cultivation of 282
— Import Duty (Extending) Act .. 913
White Paper on Indian Constitutional Reforms 960
Whitley Commission (Labour) 472
Who's who in India 1031
Widowhood 978
Widow remarriage 978
Willingdon, Lord 49
Wills, Proving of 34
Wireless Beam Stations 652
——Broadcasting 652
——Licences 653
——Prospects 653
——stations 652
——telegraphy 652
——Telegraphy Act, Indian 463
——telephony 652
——Telephone Service, India-England .. 653
Wolfram 129
Woman Suffrage Movement 595
Women Association of British University. 416
——Workers 489
Women's Christian Medical College .. 437
——costumes 15
——Deputation, All-India 595
——Employment Bureau 416
——Indian Association 414, 1001
——Medical Service 590
——————Bombay Nursing Association 593
——————Calcutta Nursing Association 593
——————Lady Hardinge Medical College 591
——————Lady Minto's Association 594
——————Leave Rules 591
——————Madras Nursing Association 593

	PAGE
Women's Medical Service National Association for Supplying Medical Aid by Women to the Women of India.	590
——————Nurses' Organisation ..	594
——————Nursing	592
——————Pay	590
——————Qualifications	590
——————State registration of nurses	592
——————Trained Nurses' Association	594
——————Victoria Memorial Scholarships	591
——Municipal franchise	595
Wood-carving	27
——workers	27
Wool Bibliography	751
——Blanket Weaving	751
——Carpet	751
——Exports	751
——Industry	751
——Manufacture	751
——trade	921
Workers and Peasants Party	470
Workmen's Compensation ..	476, 497
——————(Amendment) Act	463
——Compensation Act	497
Worship, Hindu	17
Woven goods (table)	744
Wrestling	1028

Y

Yachting	1030
Yarn production tables	742, 743
Younghusband's expedition to Lhasa ..	244
Young Men's Christian Association ..	414
——Women's Christian Association ..	415

Z

Zamindari holdings	874
Zenana Mission, Ladies'	436
Zinc	718
Zoological Survey	567
Zoroastrianism	972

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